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#WE  
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**Women in SMEs: A Systematic  
Literature Review (2000-2021)**

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# #WECAN



## European Union

European  
Social Fund

#WECAN (Women Empowered through Coaching and Networking) is a project led by Leeds Beckett University in partnership with Edge Hill University and SEYH (Social Enterprise Yorkshire & Humber).

The project has funding of £1.7m for a period of three years, partly funded by partners and partly from the European Social Fund as part of the 2014-2020 European Structural and Investment Funds Growth Programme in England. The Department for Work and Pensions (and in London the intermediate body Greater London Authority) is the Managing Authority for the England European Social Fund programme. Established by the European Union, the European Social Fund helps local areas stimulate their economic development by investing in projects which will support skills development, employment and job creation, social inclusion and local community regenerations.

For more information visit <https://www.gov.uk/european-growth-funding>.

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## **Summary**

Research continually shows that women face barriers and exclusions, however, the existing research seems to be mainly concentrated on organisations generally or corporations. This report analyses available research on women and SMEs in a period from 2000-2021. The analysis focuses on research published in women and gender journals. Thematic analysis has been conducted on 106 identified articles divided into two decades, 2000-2009 and 2010-2021.

Findings show that barriers is the main theme that runs through existing research with women reporting societal, cultural and institutional barriers, as well as lack of confidence, a different approach to working and/or running businesses, masculinities and the lack of training and skills. The existing research is largely international and these themes run through the whole corpus of analysed research showing a global issue of women in SMEs, particularly women entrepreneurs.

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## Introduction

#WECAN (Women Empowered through Coaching and Networking) project focuses on helping women advance to leadership positions by offering training in leadership, coaching and bespoke training sessions on communication, resilience and general business skills<sup>1</sup>. Whilst the project is predominantly focused on enterprise, it also has a strong research component and academics working in the team are developing original research driven by both theory and practice, as well as action learning. In this report, and as part of a large research agenda centred on producing original research that both contributes to knowledge and theory, as well as serves as ground research for designing bespoke training for the project, we embarked on a systematic literature review on women in SMEs to explore what is already known.

Research continually shows that women suffer from discrimination such as the pay gap and glass ceiling, which includes difficulties in obtaining leadership positions (Tabassum et al, 2019; Larkin et al, 2013; Aldoory, 1998; Dubrowski et al, 2019; Place & Varderman Winter, 2013; Tench et al, 2017; Christopher, 2008; de la Rey, 2005; van der Boon, 2003; Growe & Montgomery, 2000; Crawford, 1995; Stanford et al, 1995; Alimo Metcalfe, 1995), as well as stereotypes and bias (Mihail, 2006; Weyer, 2007; Topić et al, 2019) and obstacles in navigating organisational culture often centred on masculinity and what comes naturally to men rather than women. Despite the United Nations having proposed Millenium Development Goals (UN, 2015) and Sustainable Goals (UN, n.d.) and these initiatives encompass gender equality, however, equality is far from happening.

Organisational and sociological studies have been arguing that the organisational culture is generally largely entrenched into masculine practice. For example, some authors argued that men monopolise higher positions whilst women remain in lower positions (Alvesson, 1998) and this is often seen because organisations are gendered whilst organisational structures remain constructed as masculine and feminine. Alvesson (2013) argued that masculinity in organisations means that workers are expected to work under cultural meanings that come naturally to men rather than women, which then results in a hierarchy in which men hold managerial positions and women hold lower positions. This is because managerial roles are understood to require determination, toughness and persistence and these qualities are seen as anti-thesis to women. As a result lower positions are associated with femininity and higher

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<sup>1</sup> <https://www.leedsbeckett.ac.uk/leeds-business-school/wecan/>

positions with masculinity. Some authors also argued that “there was never a question that women would be able to move up the company ladder in the way men could, since it remained unfathomable for male executives to place women alongside them in managerial jobs (...) Men were allowed to think of themselves as middle-class so long as women, from their perspective, remained something like the office proletariat, took office jobs to help their families until they married” (Saval, 2015, p. 77-78).

Therefore, some scholars argued that research needs to focus on “how organizational structures, processes, and practices material, behavioral, relational, ideational, and discursive may be viewed as (culturally understood as) masculine and, perhaps often less salient, feminine. Gendering organizations usually means paying attention to how they are dominated by culturally masculine meanings. Masculinity is a vague concept but can be defined as values, experiences, and meanings that are culturally interpreted as masculine and typically feel "natural" for or are ascribed to men more than women in the particular cultural context” (Alvesson, 1998, p. 972). This also means that organisations are constructed of “divisions along lines of gender – divisions of labor, of allowed behaviours, of locations in physical space, of power, including the institutionalized means of maintaining the divisions in the structures of labor markets, the family, the state” (Acker, 1990, p. 146).

Organisations being gendered also means that jobs are identified as neutral and workers as “abstract” and “bodiless” and jobs identified as gender-neutral, which then also means that job “has no sexuality, no emotions, and does not procreate” (Acker, 1990, p. 151). These practices lead to a situation that organisations expect workers to put in long hours, socialise with clients after work and historically, this has been difficult for women due to social expectations that women will look after children and the elderly (Crewe & Wang, 2018; Saval, 2015; McLeod, 2011; Topić, 2020). These expectations then created an “inequality regime”, which means that “the persons at the top of most organizations are likely to be white men; they are very privileged and have great class power compared with most other people in the organization. The processes of exclusion that constitute a glass ceiling are class and race processes as well as gender processes” (Acker, 2009, p. 3).

Whilst organisational and sociological studies, as well as mainstream feminist studies, often call for ending the patriarchy and rebuilding the system built on exploitation and domination of women, indigenous populations and nature (Birkeland, 1995; Salleh, 2011; Holy, 2007; Topić, 2021), studies in human resource management (HRM) also called for building resilience



for women to enable coping with stress and breaking the glass ceiling. Resilience is a management concept used to manage stress and cope with difficult situations (Tabassum et al, 2019) and embracing this practice also means building an ability to bounce back from hindrances whilst staying efficient and growing despite facing difficult situations or hostility (Cooper et al, 2013). Tabassum, Shafique, Konstantopoulou and Ahmad (2019) argued that resilience is also an ability of an individual to learn from negative experiences and turn them into meaningful actions to move forward, which also means maintaining control and breaking the glass ceiling. In that, authors proposed that managers should offer coaching, mentoring, career counselling, resilience training, role models and building networks to empower women and help them go ahead in their careers and earn promotions.

However, some studies have shown that networking on its own does not always help women because there are not enough women at the top to network with and the issue of role models remains (Klyver & Grant, 2010; Donelan et al, 2009; Topić et al, 2021), however, resilience and coaching remain unexplored concepts in women's scholarship. But, what is particularly striking in the current literature, is that most of it concentrates on organisational, sociological, feminist and HRM studies, which explore the position of women from various angles. Not many studies focus solely on women in SMEs and their positions in these types of organisations. This is relevant because SMEs are a major part of any economy. For example, the European Commission (n.d.) stated that SMEs are the backbone of the European economy and represent 99% of all businesses in Europe employing around 100 million people and leading innovation. The World Bank (n.d.) also stated that SMEs play an important role in job creation and global economic development, and they are important for both developed and developing countries, with the latter particularly relying on this form of economic activity to secure jobs. The UK Government (2018, n.p.) labelled SMEs "the backbone of our economy" putting SMEs at the centre of economic development, thus justifying the relevance of research focusing on SMEs.

Therefore, this systematic literature review of is timely, exploring what is already known, identifying possible research gaps and whether the current literature signals a particularly difficult situation for women in SMEs. Nevertheless, our aim is to explore the conceptualisation of current research to understand which further research is necessary. For example, we looked at whether studies take an approach looking at barriers such as organisational masculinities, or they use postfeminist approaches in studying women's



experiences and how women make meaning out of their working lives, or whether they perhaps take an HRM perspective and study resilience.

In the subsequent part of this report, we are firstly outlining our method of research and then we present findings per each analysed decade and then overall findings, followed by a conclusion and appendices containing research data used for the analysis.

## Method

As already emphasised, we conducted a systematic literature review on women and SMEs to identify trends in data. We focused on women and gender studies journals to explore to what extent the position of women in SMEs has been of interest to feminist scholars.

The reason for selecting women and gender journals lies also in the fact that many organisational studies warn of masculinities in organisations that impede women's progress, however, these studies are usually done generally and not with a focus on the type of organisation in which women work. As a result, there are lots of studies on organisations in general and also on corporations, but there seems to be a gap in studying the position of women in SMEs, which is why we embarked on a systematic literature review to explore to what extent this area of research has been of interest and what is already known.

We identified women and gender studies journals for the analysis using the Scimago list of journals (<https://www.scimagojr.com/journalrank.php?category=3318>) and we considered all women and gender studies journals, as well as some niche journals such as those from the field of business and management that explore women and/or gender, e.g. International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship. However, we did not consider niche women and gender journals (e.g. education, etc) because this would be out of the scope of this research mainly focusing on the position of women in SMEs. In other words, since our scope is to study women in SMEs, management and business journals focusing on gender and/or women were relevant for inclusion in the analysis but feminist, women and gender journals specialising in other niche areas were excluded as it is unlikely these journals would have papers on SMEs as organisations and the position of women in these organisations.

In searching for articles, we used keywords 'women' and 'SME' and the search was performed between March and May 2021. The selection criteria used was to select articles that directly discuss women in SMEs, which included women entrepreneurs and regardless of the period in which these articles were published, thus trying to capture all qualifying articles on women in SMEs in women and gender journals.

Following these criteria, a total of 106 articles was included in the analysis. A list of the journals selected for analysis and number of articles used from each one are shown in Table 1 below.

**Table 1. Publications per journal**

<b>JOURNAL</b>	<b>NUMBER OF PUBLISHED ARTICLES</b>
International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship	66
Gender in Management (Women in Management Review)	34
Feminist Economics	3
Gender, Work & Organization	2
Women's Studies International Forum	1
European Journal of Women's Studies	0
Feminist Review	0
Feminist Theory	0
Gender & Society	0
Journal of Gender Studies	0
Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies	0
Signs	0
Women Studies Quarterly	0
Feminist Studies	0
Hypatia	0
Total	106

As table 1 clearly shows, feminist scholarship on women in SMEs is lacking with only five journals publishing qualifying articles in an identified period from 2000 to 2021, which already warrants further research. What is more, of five journals that published qualifying articles, three are niche journals from fields of management, organisations and economics studying gender in their areas whereas traditional/mainstream feminist journals did not publish qualifying articles, except just one article in *Women's Studies International Forum*.

All articles selected for the analysis are in appendix I and all units of analysis are available in appendix II. The latter appendix has served as data for the analysis and articles were coded by using elements such as key findings, highlights of the article, theories used, abstracts, keywords and locations of research to explore which parts of the world conduct this research and possible cultural and political differences in the position of women in SMEs internationally.

The articles were analysed based on identified decades of research, in this case, 2000-2009, 2010-2021 as all selected articles were published in this period (table 2).

**Table 2. Articles per decade (N=106)**

<b>DECADE</b>	<b>NUMBER OF ARTICLES</b>
2000-2009	21
2010-2021	85
<b>Total</b>	106

As table 2 shows, there is an increase in scholarly interest in the position of women in SMEs, thus scholarly interest matches a growing interest of national and supranational organisations and governments into SMEs as important for economies.

The data was firstly analysed per each identified decade and then a complete thematic analysis of both decades has been conducted. The data has been analysed by reading each article and writing codes for the most important arguments in each article. Codes were developed per each article and then grouped and the data was continually compared and contrasted (Straus & Corbin, 2002). Triple coding was conducted, open (identifying themes emerging from each decade to help with categorising data), axial (contextualising each decade and contrasting with another decade to capture recurring themes) and selective (identifying the most relevant themes across both decades).

Thematic analysis was carried out on each of the two analysed decades and then a final thematic analysis was conducted on both decades combined. Thematic analysis is “a systematic approach to the analysis of qualitative data that involves identifying themes or patterns of cultural meaning; coding and classifying data, usually textual, according to themes; and interpreting the resulting thematic structures by seeking commonalities, relationships, overarching patterns, theoretical constructs, or explanatory principles” (Lapadat 2010, p. 926). The method is mainly used as a sense-making approach that helps in reducing large datasets, identifying trends in the data and proposing and identifying future research (Rowher & Topić, 2018). In presenting findings, the approach proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) was used where data is presented in a visualised form and direct quotes are used to illustrate arguments.

This approach was useful for this study because it required reading of 106 articles, which is a large dataset and the method helped in identifying critical themes that emerge from the research.

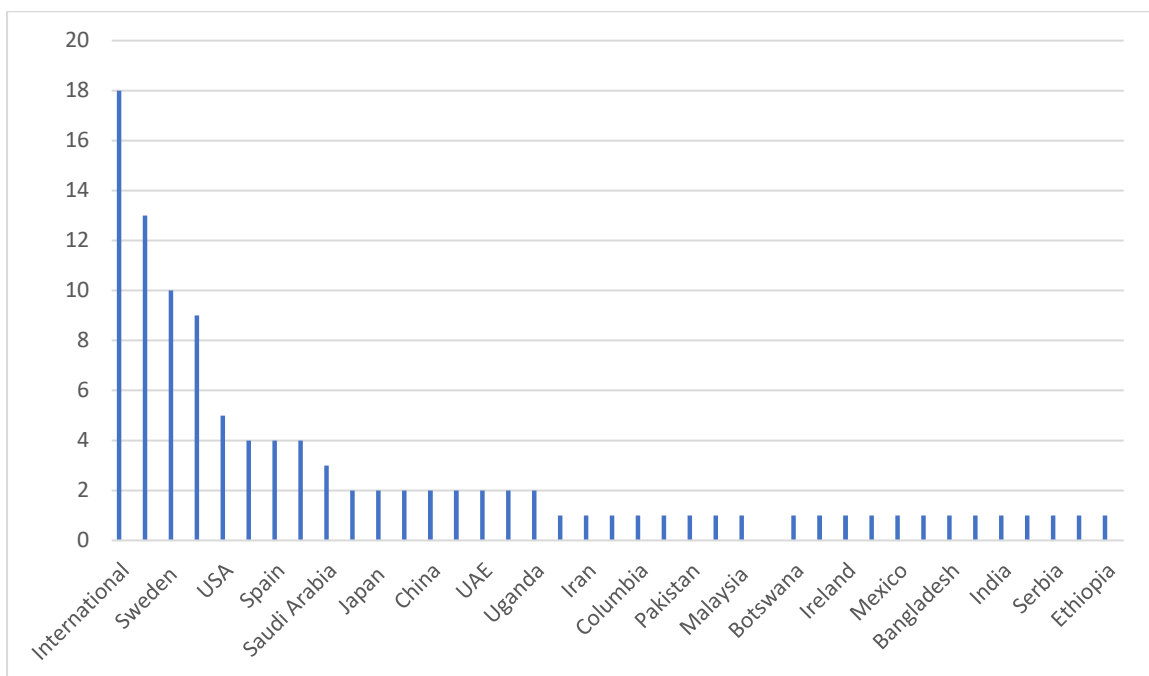
The main research questions for this study were,

- what are the main trends in research on women and SMEs?
- what research gap can be identified about women and SMEs?

## Findings

The first finding that emerges from the analysis is the international aspect of scholarship on women in SMEs. International studies (either taking an international stance and/or several countries comparisons) comprise the major part of the sample followed by the studies conducted in Sweden, the USA, Spain and Saudi Arabia, however, at the lower end (one or two studies per country) there is a large diversity, which shows an international interest in this area of research. However, whilst the number of countries conducting these studies is high and very diverse, the number of studies per most of the countries remains low, which signals already emphasised interest but also the underdevelopment of this field of research (figure 1).

**Figure 1. Studies Per Countries**

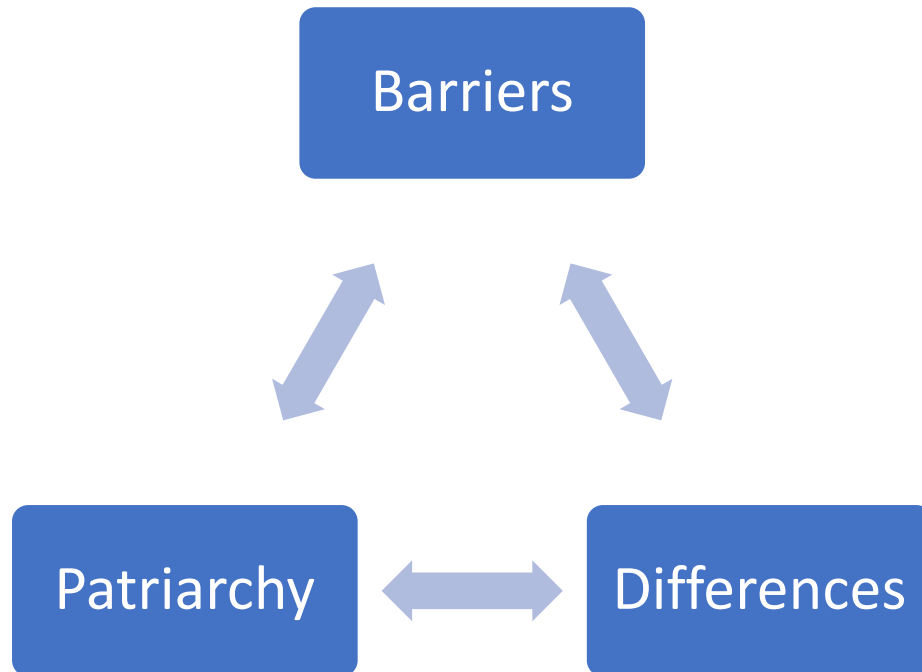


Thematic analysis revealed some underlying themes that run through all decades of research, the predominant one being the types of barriers that women in SMEs face. In the subsequent part of the report, we present findings in two identified decades of research followed by a summative thematic analysis of both periods of research.

## 2000-2009

In the first analysed period (2000-2009), the main theme that appears in the research is barriers, and sub-themes include differences between men and women and patriarchy as constitutive of barriers for women (Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Thematic Analysis (2000-2009)**



### Differences

The differences between men and women are mostly focused on ways of doing the job and also expectations and confidence. For example, Eriksson, Katila and Niskanen (2009) argued that women-owned SMEs are more likely to use current owner's funding to support their businesses than SMEs owned by men. Farr-Wharton and Brunetto (2009) also argued that women use a relational approach to managing their employees, which is the knowledge that was found in many studies in general (Aldoory, 1998), however, women entrepreneurs seem not to use social capital and consider views of their employees, according to this study. In practice, this means that women entrepreneurs "were actively building social capital within their firms by promoting an environment of mutual trust and information sharing. They also appear to promote empowering workplaces. In addition, they also appear to have the environmental factors in place necessary to support organisational learning because they strategically



employed regular meetings” (Farr-Wharton & Brunetto, 2009, p.25). Therefore, despite building an atmosphere of trust and information sharing, women did not look for new business opportunities by tapping into ideas in their businesses, thus leading authors to conclude they are primarily interested in business survival.

Some studies also suggested that women may be more engaged with green entrepreneurship than men. Braun (2010) argued that “male entrepreneurs tended to look for bottom-line outcomes and competitive advantage, whereas women tended to lean towards broader ethical concerns in terms of benefiting the greater good. Women were also more proactive in participating in green networking opportunities, where they could interact with like-minded businesses, access more clients, source alternative resources and expand their business networks” (p. 254). Martin (2001) also argued that “the way in which female-run organisations functioned, even when the female owner manager had adopted “masculine” management styles, shows their preference for the features and processes of organisational learning” (p.295, emphasis in the original). These research studies fit into organisational masculinity research which has often argued that women do things differently but organisations often function according to masculine patterns (Alvesson, 1998; 2013; Topić, 2020).

However, a significant issue in differences presents the self-confidence issue where women are reported to exhibit less confidence than male entrepreneurs. Kirkwood (2009) argued that “women entrepreneurs tend to have lower levels of confidence than men at all stages of the entrepreneurship. Second, women have a limited inclination to call themselves entrepreneurs. When a comparison is made with businesses with a similar number of employees and a similar level of annual sales, this appears to relate to a lack of self-confidence. Finally, self-confidence affects entrepreneurs’ decisions and actions once they have established businesses. These have implications for business growth and access to finance particularly” (p.130). Lewis (2006) previously argued that businesses owned by women remain smaller than those owned by men, thus leading to a situation that the opportunities to innovate and expand are limited, which opens a question of whether self-confidence is the reason why women’s businesses do not grow and innovate as much as men-owned ones. This is also linked to the notion of masculinity where some studies reported that “male entrepreneurs tended to look for bottom-line outcomes and competitive advantage, whereas women tended to lean towards broader ethical concerns in terms of benefiting the greater good. Women were also more proactive in participating in green networking opportunities, where they could interact with like-minded businesses, access

more clients, source alternative resources and expand their business networks” (Braun, 2010, p. 254).

### Patriarchy

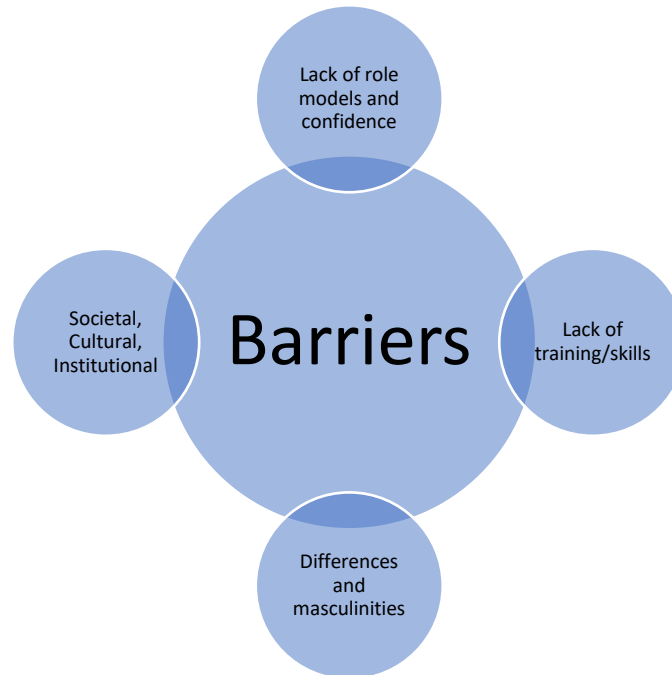
In terms of patriarchal expectations of women, women reported facing pressures from family expectations due to social roles as caregivers. For example, in a Nigerian study, Mordi, Simpson and Singh (2010) argued that women face challenges because of gender categorisation and cultural values rather than educational or mental abilities, and Nigerian women emerge as “particularly confident and resourceful in their entrepreneurial career” (p. 16). What is more, the authors argued that when it comes to family, even single women have constraints because of traditional expectations of women participating in family life (ibid). Bensemann and Hall (2010) also found that when women co-own SMEs with their partners, this work ends up with a traditional gendered role divide with women doing gendered work and thus having lesser importance in the business. In a study on copreneurial tourism business, it appeared that “the majority of copreneurial ventures were still structured along the division of labour along traditional sex-role lines (...) The findings show that there is a huge discrepancy in “equalness” when tasks responsibilities are compared by gender. Women do the cooking, the cleaning, taking bookings and marketing/promoting the business” (ibid, p. 236).

In summary, in this period of research (2000-2009), it appears that women mainly reported issues with patriarchal expectations of them which run in various societies and also differences between them and men, in terms of how they run businesses, what expectations they have, as well as the lack of self-confidence, which is a very important but unexplored area of research.

## 2010-2021

The second period revealed the main theme of barriers (with sub-themes of cultural, societal and institutional barriers, differences between men and women and masculinities, lack of role models and confidence, and lack of role models and training and skills) (Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Thematic Analysis (2010-2021)**



### Societal, Cultural and Institutional Barriers, and Role Models

Existing research identifies barriers that can come from societal, cultural and institutional areas. One of the main barriers from the cultural and societal side is the notion of patriarchal expectations of women in regards to family commitments. These findings have been found in studies conducted in Kampala (Dawa et al, 2021), Kenya and Oman (Owalla & Al Ghafri, 2020), Syria, Lebanon, Qatar and UAE (Megheirkouni et al, 2020), Palestine (Althalathini et al, 2020), Saudi Arabia (Ali et al, 2019; Danish et al, 2012), Columbia (Garcia Solarte et al, 2018), Sri Lanka (Kankanammge & Surangi), Greece (Mylonas & Petridou, 2018), France and Canada (St-Arnaud & Giguère, 2018), Russia, South Africa and Thailand (Hodges et al, 2015), Sweden (Yazdanfar & Abbasian, 2015), Malaysia (Teoh & Chong, 2014), Spain (Pablo Marti et al, 2014), and also women in developing countries generally (Panda, 2018). For example, Panda (2018), in a literature review of women entrepreneurs from 90 developing countries, argued that women face gender discrimination, work-family conflict, financial constraints such as difficulties in raising capital, lack of infrastructure, unfavourable business, economic and

political environments, lack of training and education, and personality differences including the lack of female role models. These findings summarise what has been found elsewhere. Work-family conflict remains a central issue with women being socially and culturally expected to look after families, which then impedes their ability to work or run their own businesses.

Whilst the intensity of this problem varies, depending on the cultural and social context, it is a predominant issue women face. For example, in a study on women in Sri Lanka, Kankanammge and Surangi (2018) argued that women have to “use particular strategies to resist existing forms of power, including the narrative of being a dutiful wife, while actually modifying expectations through their successful activities” (p. 129). In France and Canada, St Arnaud and Giguere (2018) argued that women pay “the economic cost in terms of opportunities to develop their business, which tends to grow at the same pace as the children. In other words, economically, their business grows at the same pace as the social and human development of their children and family, as the pace is adjusted to this growth” (p. 212). Nevertheless, the authors argued that “...the work activities of the family sphere nevertheless did not disappear, even though some activities were delegated, the women remained generally responsible for them and had to coordinate the work to be done. This outsourcing appeared to shift the power relationships to other women, ... This shifting of reproduction appears to simply maintain the feminist standpoint within individualistic feminism without effecting real social change” (ibid, p. 212). In Spain, scholars argued that less experience in financial management, vertical segmentation of the labour market and gender stereotypes create barriers (Pablo-Martí et al, 2014). However, women also reported facing institutional barriers. For example, in a Tanzanian study, women complained of institutional uncertainty, discrepancy and conflict between different aspects and domains of the institutions” (Langevang et al, 2018, p. 237) as well as a lack of role models of successful entrepreneurs.

The same finding on role models was found in a UK study (Hunt et al, 2019) where authors argued for the higher introduction of coaching and mentoring as well as role models for women, which are still lacking. What is more, authors argued that “if female entrepreneurship is to be encouraged and supported, provision needs to be designed and developed based on the needs and requirements of female entrepreneurs, rather than simply conforming to traditional business support models which have been shown to fail to meet the needs of the many female entrepreneurs...” (p. 697). This finding has been recognised in many different studies on women as women generally tend to have different needs, based on their socialisation and life

experiences. For example, networking research shows the persistent existence of boys clubs and men networking and advancing whilst women are being left behind (Tonge, 2008; Topić et al, 2021). This happens not just because women are excluded from male networks because this is not always the case, but simply because they do not fit in, face discrimination and there is an insufficient number of women on top to network with.

Orser, Riding and Li (2019) in a Canadian study also argued, using a case study from women in the ICT industry, that women lack role models, or “mainstream ICT support programs can be viewed as male-centric and thus serve to widen the gender gap in ICT adoption among business owners as they fail to recognise the unique experiences and entrepreneurial capabilities of women business owners” (p. 286). Equally, in a study on 90 developing countries, Panda (2018) argued that women lack role models and this contributes to stereotypes and disrespect and in a UK study Outsios and Farooqi (2017) argued that female role models have a significant role in helping women become successful entrepreneurs and it helps particularly in running sustainable businesses, which was the focus of this study.

What also appeared in some studies is the lack of confidence that women experience when running or trying to run a business. Orser, Riding and Li (2019) argued that women face a lack of confidence and risk aversion, which presents a significant barrier to their success, and other authors also argued that women experience self-doubt (Panda, 2018), confidence in their knowledge when applying for business loans (Xu et al, 2019), lack of family support (Kungwansupaphan & Leihaothabam, 2016), etc. This lack of self-confidence is then also linked to entrepreneurial intentions. For example, Villanueva-Flores, Diaz-Fernandez, Hernandez-Roque and van Engen (2021) argued that “...subjective norms were directly related to entrepreneurial intention in the female population and that the moderating role of this variable had a greater impact on this gender. Therefore, these results support the fact that women have a greater need for support from their closest social group to have the intention to start a business venture ” (p. 425).

### Training and Skills Gap

Many studies also argued that women require training and lack some skills to go ahead, however, there is a difference in opinion on what training should constitute. Some authors argued that women need entrepreneurial training to gain self-esteem by obtaining emotional and psychological support, and thus also mentoring and tutoring along with role models (Dabic et al, 2012, p. 332). However, studies are also arguing that women have specific needs. For

example, Orser, Elliott and Findlay-Thompson (2012) argued that “some women business owners perceive value in gender-segregated small business training. This conclusion provides evidence that entrepreneurial training agencies should be alert to learning needs and different types or modes of knowledge acquisition by entrepreneurs. These suggestions are consistent with the work of Wilson et al. (2007) who have observed that compared to men, entrepreneurial training was particularly effective for women in raising self-efficacy. Wilson et al. (2007) also reported that access to entrepreneurial training may not be sufficient and that gender-focused entrepreneurial training must be specifically designed to increase women’s self-efficacy” (Orser et al, 2012, p. 256).

Lockyer and George (2012) also emphasised a need for training but also the exposure to successful business owners arguing that women who were exposed to successful business owners in their circle are more likely to create a successful business. However, some authors have found advice on offering training to women as victim-blame that suggests women need to be fixed. In other words, Cukier and Hassannezhad Chavoushi (2020) argued that “a specific review of over 30 years of policy research finds that most policy implications presented are “vague, conservative, and center on identifying skills gaps in women entrepreneurs that need to be ‘fixed’” (...) This latter set of implications essentially offers a “blame the victim” mentality and implies policy changes should be geared toward changing what women are doing rather than changing governmental approaches and programs” (p. 305).

### Differences and Masculinities

Similarly to general organisational studies mentioned in the introductory part of this report, some studies revealed that masculinity also presents a barrier in entrepreneurship and SMEs and not just the corporate world. For example, Zisser, Johanson, Freeman and Staudemaier (2019) argued that personal characteristics influence entrepreneurial intentions. Neuroticism, conscientiousness, extraversion and tendency towards cooperation are more endorsed by women than men, and these characteristics influence entrepreneurial intentions, along with self-confidence, optimism and the fear of failure, with self-confidence and optimism being lower among women and fear of failure being higher.

However, the issue with entrepreneurship is that it is associated with masculinity and thus women’s entrepreneurship is seen as secondary (Zisser et al, 2019). Orser, Riding and Li (2019) argued that entrepreneurship is associated with masculinity and in industries such as ICT, with low numbers of women, it can contribute to stereotyping and exclusions. What is more, Dabic,

Daim, Bayraktaroglu, Novak and Basic (2012), argued that women have lower self-efficacy and suggest that women with higher masculinity would have higher entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

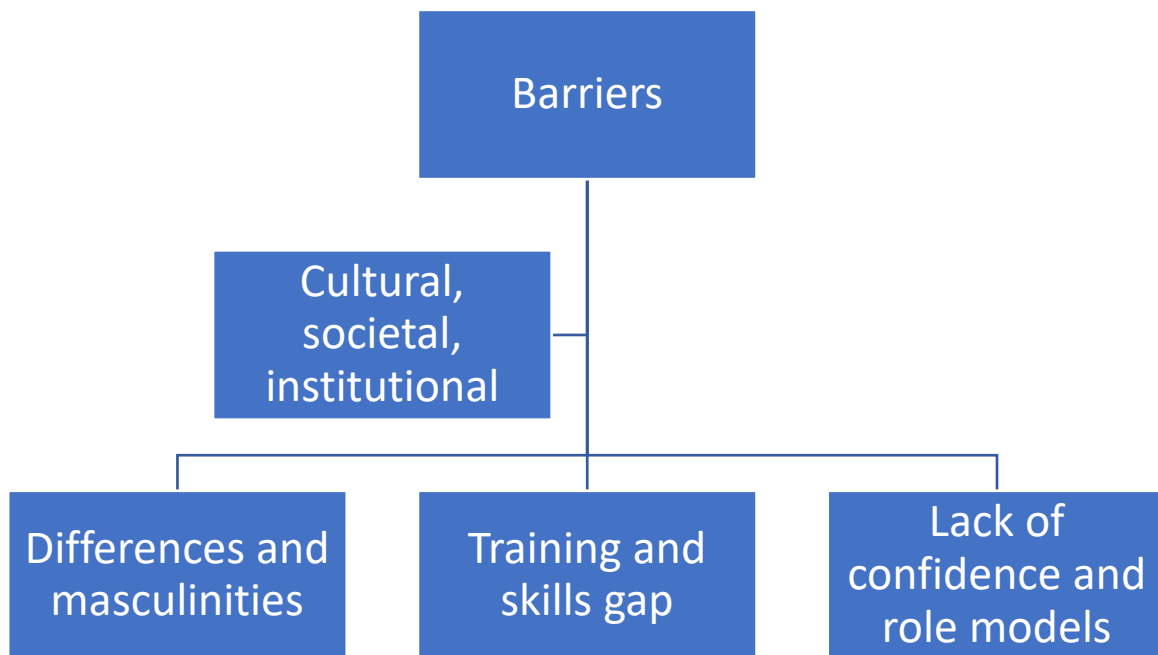
In summary to this theme, it appears that the issue of self-confidence, differences between men and women and family conflict run again as an important theme in research on practitioners, as with the previous theme. The issue of barriers thus becomes pervasive and seems to pass across national borders and present a unique and global issue for women, with regional and cultural variations that may reduce or increase an extent of oppression depending on the local context.



### Final Thematic Analysis (2000-2021)

After completing the initial two thematic analyses based on two identified research periods, we completed a final thematic analysis to capture main trends in research and identify research gaps. Based on the analysis, it appears that the predominant theme in all research is barriers, which can be cultural, societal and institutional, and this is followed up with differences and masculinities, training and skills gap, and the lack of confidence and roles models, the latter three being sub-themes that appear from the analysis (graph 3).

**Figure 3: Thematic analysis (2000-2021)**



In other words, throughout this analysis, available research outlines barriers that women face, thus signalling that equality is far from happening regardless of positive initiatives that have been implemented to advance gender equality over the last few decades. The issue remains at the societal, cultural and to an extent institutional level where women face formal obstacles (institutional) and obstacles in the form of expectations imposed on them (cultural and societal). This then also results in a situation where women lead their businesses differently and face issues with masculinity, lack training and skills and most importantly, lack confidence and role models. Confidence is naturally important to encourage innovation and growth of women’s businesses and the lack of role models prevents effective and meaningful networking.

## Conclusion

This review highlighted the fact that the majority of studies in the existing literature focus on women entrepreneurs and women business owners, and there are hardly any studies analysing organisational culture in SMEs nor there are studies tackling resilience. Therefore, the focus of this research is timely and needed as it shines a light to barriers faces by women in SMEs and how externally imposed barriers result in internal ones, such as lack of confidence that impedes women's progress as already emphasised in the previous part of this report. The external barriers that create internal barriers and undermine women's confidence should be a subject of future research and activism, and not just from feminist scholars but also from those governments and organisations who claim to be supportive of SMEs and their role in societies and economies.

It seems that the conclusion to the aim of this research, which was centred to explore whether current research focuses on organisational culture or resilience, is that it focuses on neither of those but solely on women entrepreneurs. What is more, the current research also does not explore masculinities in-depth even though it appears in research as one of the central themes, and thus the fact women do things differently but suffer from masculinity is not recognised or explored enough. In addition to that, literature reviews differences in access to funding, which did not constitute a theme or a sub-theme in this study but require further exploration. Finally, no studies studied resilience as an organisational concept and a practice that addresses women's oppression from an HRM perspective.

Therefore, as a future research agenda for the project, masculinity in SMEs as organisations will be studied particularly from the point of difference and organisational practices such as culture, communication, conversations, office setups, etc. In addition to that, resilience will be explored in detail to explore to what extent have women working in SMEs engaged with resilience as a practice as well as how to build resilience within the organisational world so that women do not feel unsupported and fall off the ladder or fail with their businesses.

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## APPENDIX I

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## APPENDIX II

### Reference

Deng, W., Liang, Q., Li, J., & Wang, W. (2021). Science mapping: a bibliometric analysis of female entrepreneurship studies. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 36(1), 61-86.

Required Element	abstract	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This bibliometric review aims to display visually the intellectual communities (i.e. the cooperation networks among various countries, institutions, journals and individuals), the intellectual structure (i.e. the status quo and development trajectory of the intellectual base) and emerging hot topics of the female entrepreneurship research in 1975-2018. Based on the comprehensive review of the state-of-the-science, this paper aims to identify significant research gaps in extant studies and develop potential future research agendas that may catalyse new streams of female entrepreneurship research.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Bibliometric analysis via science mapping provides in-depth analyzes, highlights the intellectual structure and identifies hot topics. Using CiteSpace, co-citation networks of contributing countries, institutions, cited journals and authors are mapped first. Second, co-citation network analysis helps to identify the key “nodes” in the intellectual structure. The landscape view identifies main clusters from an overall perspective, while a timeline view delineates the characteristics and evolution of focal clusters. Major clusters are interpreted in detail with the help of foam tree graph processed by Carrot. Finally, the co-occurrence network analysis is conducted by using VOSviewer to examine hot topics and research frontiers.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings show that the publications of female entrepreneurship increase exponentially. The major driving force of female entrepreneurship research is from the USA and England. In terms of intellectual structure, key concepts behind different clusters represent the major milestones in relation to</p>

	<p>individual determinants of female entrepreneurship, the impact of cultural and contextual factors on female entrepreneurship and female entrepreneurship in non-OECD countries, as well as the impact of family, social and institutional factors on the survival and exit of male and female enterprises. Hot topics include financing sources, the embeddedness nature, the impact and environmental factors of female entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>This study presents important practical implications. The findings suggest that intellectual communities of the female entrepreneurship field are relatively loose. Close contact and cooperation among different countries, institutions and researchers are lacking. To promote the evolution of the field, researchers who belong to different institutions in different countries may need to strengthen contact and cooperation. Additionally, papers in journals from the business and management discipline are most cited in this field, preventing new knowledge from other disciplines from flowing into the female entrepreneurship field. Accordingly, female entrepreneurship research journals may need to expand their focus and combine knowledge from various domains.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This bibliometric review provides a more comprehensive, systematic and objective review of the female entrepreneurship field. Previous qualitative reviews are typically based on personal judgement, while a few quantitative reviews only describe statistical data. This study is based on thousands of citation data rather than a small number of papers pre-selected by the researcher, thus, is more data-grounded and less biased than prior reviews. It expands previous reviews by transparently visualizing the underlying structure and evolution of the field. Moreover, it highlights significant gaps in extant studies and develops future research agendas to catalyse new streams of research.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intellectual structure</li> <li>• bibliometric analysis</li> <li>• female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• science mapping</li> <li>• CiteSpace</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• International</li> </ul>

<b>Key Highlights (3-5 – be brief in the summary)</b>	•
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> • Network analysis, citation analysis
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>The key takeaway from this paper is probably the research clusters they identify (p. 77-79):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Research on female entrepreneurship issues, especially accesses to financing sources, in developing countries (cluster in red). Keywords mainly include credit (64)[1], poverty (55), India (54), microfinance (52), empowerment (50), Africa (41), Bangladesh (39), microcredit (34), sub-Saharan Africa (34) and developing-countries (31).</li> <li>* Research on the embeddedness nature and the impact of female entrepreneurship (cluster in green). Keywords mainly include performance (353), growth (223), success (138), innovation (115), networks (97), survival (55), risk (55), social capital (52), firm performance (49), social networks (45), embeddedness (39), constraints (38) and business performance (32).</li> <li>* Research on individual psychological and emotional determinants of female entrepreneurship (cluster in blue). Keywords mainly include: self-efficacy (120), determinants (110), perceptions (104), intentions (96), behavior (94), attitudes (93), personality (58), planned behavior (52), entrepreneurial intention (51), motivation (49), orientation (42) and decision-making (39)</li> <li>* Research on environmental factors affecting female entrepreneurship and on a new perspective and theoretical framework (cluster in yellow). Keywords mainly include: perspective (94), challenges (54), leadership (50), framework (48), strategies (45), social entrepreneurship (44), context (40), directions (32), opportunities (32), institutions (31) and barriers (31).</li> </ul>	

## Reference

Kawai, N., & Kazumi, T. (2021). Female entrepreneurs' cognitive attributes and venture growth in Japan: the moderating role of perceived social legitimacy. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJGE-05-2020-0063>

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b> <p>Purpose</p> <p>By drawing upon social cognitive and legitimacy perspectives, this study aims to explore the role of perceived social legitimacy as an informal institutional force that moderates the effects of female entrepreneurs' self-efficacy and entrepreneurial tenacity on venture growth.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This study uses a data set of 308 Japanese female entrepreneurs, who are a subject of limited extant scholarly attention, to test the hypothesised relationships empirically.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Consistent with the unified framework, the study was able to identify that the acquisition of social legitimacy required by female entrepreneurs serves as a crucial safety net under which entrepreneurial self-efficacy and tenacity can significantly affect venture growth.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The study highlights that high levels of entrepreneurial traits alone are not necessarily sufficient to guarantee women's venture growth. In doing so, this study stimulates the development of theory on the complementary role of the social legitimacy of entrepreneurship in fueling and mobilising the female entrepreneurs' cognitive resources as the key to venture growth in the Japanese context.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>Policymakers should be dedicated to implementing more gender-specific policies designed to continually cultivate women's cognitive attributes in tandem with</p>



	<p>the promotion of social awareness to embrace entrepreneurship as a promising career option.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The originality of this study lies in stimulating a debate on the underlying heterogeneity of female entrepreneurs in the performance outcomes of two entrepreneurial cognitive attributes. By integrating the concept of perceived social legitimacy, the study can respond to Miao et al. (2017), who sought further examination of untested boundary conditions in the cognitive characteristics-venture growth equation.</p>
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurial self-efficacy</li> <li>• female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• entrepreneurial tenacity</li> <li>• perceived social legitimacy</li> <li>• venture growth</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Japan</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-6 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Examines Japanese context for female entrepreneurship (most studies Europe/Anglosphere), especially as it relates to social legitimacy</li> <li>• Focused on self-efficacy and tenacity – studied previously about men but not about women</li> <li>• Uses mixed methods to look at the actual performance of women’s businesses alongside female entrepreneurs’ confidence</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social cognitive theory</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“... a market environment perceived as more supportive of entrepreneurship is more likely to energise female entrepreneurs’ perceived efficacy and persistence in pursuing their goals” (p. 18).</p> <p>“... the acquisition of social legitimacy required by female entrepreneurs serves as a crucial safety net under which entrepreneurial self-efficacy and tenacity can significantly affect venture growth” (p. 18).</p> <p>“... low social legitimacy is likely to detract from the performance advantages of self-confidence in entrepreneurial skills and tenacity in the entrepreneurial domain. Our study highlights that high levels of entrepreneurial traits alone are not necessarily sufficient to guarantee women’s venture growth” (p. 19).</p> <p>“In the process of developing gendered entrepreneurial ecosystems, emphasis should be placed on women-specific challenges (e.g. time constraint of mothers, family obligations, prejudice against women as [having a] limited business orientation and work-life imbalances)” (p. 20).</p>	

**Reference**

Dawa, S., Namatovu, R., Mulira, F., Kyejjusa, S., Arinaitwe, M., & Arinaitwe, A. (2021). Entrepreneurial competences and growth of female-owned enterprises: the mediation role of absorptive capacity. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJGE-02-2020-0028>

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Focusing on female entrepreneurs operating in a resource-scarce environment, this study aims to draw from the resource-based view to examine the relationship between entrepreneurial competences and firm growth.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This study used a cross-sectional research design. Data was collected from 232 women entrepreneurs operating in Kampala’s two biggest markets. The data were analyzed to test the mediation effect of absorptive capacity on the relationship between entrepreneurial competences and firm growth; a Sobel test and bootstrap estimation were analytical approaches that were used.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>This paper argues that for female entrepreneurs, the venture growth process is not simply dependent on inimitable resources such as competences, as these are first not readily available to female entrepreneurs and second, only provide a temporary competitive advantage. Rather, venture growth also involves the ability to continuously identify and exploit knowledge resources through an absorptive capacity that may be limited by the sociocultural context within which the female entrepreneur operates in sub-Saharan Africa.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The novelty of this research resides in support for the mediating role of the ability to recognize the value of new information, assimilate it and apply it to commercial ends. This study shows that female</p>

	entrepreneurs use externally generated knowledge as a mechanism to grow their firms and this is impacted by the sociocultural context within which they operate. The study further improves the understanding of the resource-based view by suggesting that a black box exists in the relationship between resources and performance. It is shown that the possession of one resource facilitates the acquisition of other resources and proposes that the role of resources continuously unfolds as a firm develops.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Absorptive capacity</li> <li>• Sub-Saharan Africa</li> <li>• Growth</li> <li>• female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• entrepreneurial competencies</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uganda</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-7 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individual women’s competencies only affect the growth of their businesses when they have the opportunity to access new information and can put that to use</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Resource-based theory of the firm</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“... while entrepreneurial competencies are important in firm growth, their effects are channelled through the entrepreneur’s absorptive capacity” (p. 42).</p> <p>“... the systemic subordination of women at home, in training institutions and in workplaces hinders the acquisition of human and other capital and therefore places limitations on women’s abilities to access and use external information when they start their own enterprises.” (p. 42).</p> <p>“...inconsistencies in explanation of the growth of female-owned firms are due to sociocultural factors that restrict women’s access to and exploitation of information necessary for firm growth. We argue that in the sub-Saharan Africa context, gender bias is exhibited in access to employment and career progression in the work place, which influences the acquisition of knowledge that could be useful in future entrepreneurial pursuits.” (p. 43).</p> <p>“... it is necessary to focus on those training opportunities that expose women to a dense socially connected business environment, a broad range of professionals, up-to-date entrepreneurial best practices and have an orientation toward improving the overall performance of the individual female entrepreneur and business as a whole” (p. 44).</p>	

**Reference**

Alkhaled, S. (2021). Women's entrepreneurship in Saudi Arabia: Feminist solidarity and political activism in disguise? *Gender, Work & Organization*, online first: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1111/gwao.12626>

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	This paper is a longitudinal study that uses insights from postcolonial feminism to explore women's entrepreneurship as a political form of feminist organizing for social change in Saudi Arabia. Postcolonial feminist approaches challenge Western feminism, which can obscure the diversity of women's lived experiences, agency, and activism. Through Bayat's (2013) theory of “quiet encroachment,” I identify the ways in which contemporary Western conceptualizations of feminist solidarity and social movements have dismissed “Other” women's “silent,” protracted and (dis)organized activism in parts of the Middle East. By exploring how Saudi women have utilized their entrepreneurial space as a legitimate platform for change, I aim to enrich understanding of women's activism through everyday solidarity practices, which allow them to quietly encroach onto the previously forbidden political space. The findings exemplify how their activism “quietly” developed over time through a three-step process—from the entrepreneur aiming to empower women within their organization, to developing feminist consciousness within their entrepreneurial network, to becoming a “political activist” lobbying for policy changes for women. These solidarity practices exemplify the West's relationship with “the Other,” and reveal that feminist organizing for social change must be explored within its own context in order to fully appreciate its global political potential.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminist solidarity</li> <li>• political activism</li> <li>• postcolonial feminism</li> <li>• quiet encroachment</li> <li>• reflexivity, social change</li> <li>• women’s entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Saudi Arabia</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-8 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Critiques previous theories of entrepreneurship that reproduce Western/Anglo assumptions</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Considers female entrepreneurship as a means of ‘quiet’ feminist activism in a context where direct protest is frequently not possible</li> <li>• In-depth qualitative data collection over a long period of time (2010-2020) illustrates small, incremental changes over time</li> <li>• Explores how women who are not deliberately acting <i>together</i> (that is, as a movement) nonetheless push social change through self-empowerment</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Postcolonial feminist theory</li> <li>• Critical entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Listening Guide – voice-centred relational analysis</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Indeed, entrepreneurship provided the women with a legitimate and safe space to engage in feminist solidarity practices, which allowed them to quietly encroach upon the political space alongside men” (p. 966).</p> <p>“...solidarity in the case of the Saudi women entrepreneurs was individualized, unorganized, and a scattered nonmovement toward solidarity, but one which unreflectively and accumulatively became a collective feminist movement. This perspective could be further researched in Western contexts, where women and other subjugated communities also turn to entrepreneurship in response to their marginalization at work and society, and thus, could also unreflectively fall within this process and pattern of unorganized individual actions but non-collective actors leading to collective change” (p. 967).</p> <p>“...Being entrepreneurs and driven by a strong sense of national identity meant they had a legitimate platform to execute solidarity practices that were perhaps a little “louder” than the previous quiet encroachment practices, through; standing up to the authorities when they were hindered in running their businesses, successfully lobbying the government for policy changes to support women entrepreneurs and women employees, and even representing women on the King's consultative council. Yet, it was not in the form of mainstream Western activism either” (p. 965).</p>	

**Reference**

Villanueva-Flores, M., Diaz-Fernandez, M., Hernandez-Roque, D., & van Engen, M. (2021). Psychological capital and entrepreneurship: gender differences. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 36(3), 410-429.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b></p> <p>(indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This study aims to examine whether the psychological capital of male and female university students explains the intention to undertake entrepreneurship. Following Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour, the aim was to study whether perceived behavioural control and subjective norms influence entrepreneurial intention and if subjective norms moderate established relationships, in both genders.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Structural equation modelling and analysis of variance was applied to test the hypotheses amongst students at a Spanish university.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results showed that gender differences in psychological capital, in perceived behavioural control and in subjective norms existed between the male and female population, which explain gender differences in entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, subjective norms acted as a moderator in the relationship between psychological capital, the perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention, with the moderating impact being higher on the female population.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The results obtained in this paper indicate that developing perceived behavioural control and the psychological capital of university students in training programmes of male and female students helps to promote their entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, the results suggest that building a support network, for instance of family and groups of friends is key to fostering entrepreneurial intention, particularly for women.</p>

	<p>Originality/value</p> <p>Entrepreneurship is key to the successful employability of current and future generations in the labour market. This study examined key antecedents of students' entrepreneurial intention and how these are gendered. For both men and women (investing in) psychological capital is important. Informal social support was shown to play a key role in women's entrepreneurial intention.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perceived behavioural control</li> <li>• Subjective norms</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial intention and gender</li> <li>Psychological capital</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Spain</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-9 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Finds that optimism and self-confidence influence entrepreneurial intention more in men than in women</li> <li>• Subjective norms had a greater influence on entrepreneurial intention in women than in men</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“...subjective norms were directly related to entrepreneurial intention in the female population and that the moderating role of this variable had a greater impact on this gender. Therefore, these results support the fact that women have a greater need for support from their closest social group to have the intention to start a business venture. These findings have practical training implications, as the results suggest that psychological capital variables must be strengthened in both genders, especially in the female population" (p. 425).</p> <p>“...Hope influenced entrepreneurial intention in both populations, without significant differences between them, while optimism influenced entrepreneurial intention only in the male gender” (p. 424).</p>	

## Reference

Owalla, B., & Al Ghafri, A. (2020). "Bitten by the entrepreneur bug" – critiquing discourses on women owner-managers/entrepreneurs in the Kenyan and Omani newspapers. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 35(6), 529-551.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>  Purpose  This paper aims to critically analyze media discourses on women owner-managers/entrepreneurs (OMEs) in the Kenyan and Omani newspapers.  Design/methodology/approach  Critical discourse analysis is carried out on a total of 408 online media articles (174 articles from Omani newspapers and 234 articles from Kenyan newspapers) on women OMEs over the period 2010-2018. Articles are also classified based on their framing of women's entrepreneurship.  Findings  Five main categories of media discourses are identified, i.e. discourses on government/institutional initiatives; women OMEs' dependency; women OMEs' femininity; women OMEs' societal impact; and normalization of women OMEs. These gendered media discourses and underlying assumptions further perpetuate women OMEs' subordinate position in society, weaken their social legitimacy and trivialize their roles as managers and leaders in society.  Research limitations/implications  The analysis was limited to online articles published in mainstream media. Future research could focus on offline print media from smaller media distributors or other distribution channels.  Practical implications  Policymakers and media houses need to pay greater attention to the subtle mechanisms reproducing gender stereotypes. Women OMEs should also take a more active role in constructing their identity in the media.



	<p>Originality/value</p> <p>This paper highlights the underlying assumptions of media discourses regarding women’s empowerment that negatively impacts their social legitimacy. This paper also draws attention to media’s role in the trivialization of women OMEs’ leadership and managerial roles and subsequent marginalization of their social status.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Media discourses</li> <li>• Framing</li> <li>• Gender stereotypes</li> <li>• Kenyan/Omani press</li> <li>• Women owner-managers/entrepreneurs</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Kenya, Oman</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-10 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identifies five key discourses around women’s entrepreneurship (government initiatives; dependency/need for support; femininity; social impact; normalisation) and examines how these contradict and interact</li> <li>• Highlights the extent to which none of these discourses is actually about how women function as business leaders</li> <li>• Builds on previous literature to show that while individual national contexts are very different, the key themes often recur</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Finally, discourses portray women OMEs [owner-managers/entrepreneurs] as “dependent” on their spouses or immediate family in setting up and running their ventures. While it may be suggested that these portrayals further reinforce the portrayal of women OMEs as “helpless”, considering the collectivist culture in both contexts, these portrayals could also be a reflection of close social ties and the importance of the family as a support group. Given the other cultural barriers faced by women OMEs in these contexts, family support acts as an enabler of entrepreneurship” (p. 537).</p> <p>“... one glaring omission in the media discourses is any discussion of how women OMEs lead or manage their ventures” (p. 546).</p> <p>“Media’s role in “doing gender” by mirroring gendered practices of entrepreneurship in society and creating gendered images of entrepreneurship (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2013) is further highlighted in discourses of women as OMEs “by chance” and/or portraying them as “the other” by constantly comparing them to their male counterparts. Such discourses result in the construction of a gendered identity of women OMEs that is tied to their femininity and that eliminates their power as creators and managers of their ventures” (p. 547).</p>	

**Reference**

Megheirkouni, M., Thirlwall, A., & Mejheirkouni, A. (2020). Entrepreneurial leadership in Middle East sport businesses: The impact of gender differences in cultural values. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 35(2), 167-188.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to understand the impact of gender in the sport business by investigating gender differences in entrepreneurial leadership and cultural values using quantitative methods.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>In total, 241 surveys were completed by sport business owners in 4 countries in the Middle East. Findings: The results revealed that gender differences and similarities are not only widely affected by national cultural values but also the effects of national cultural values vary between countries in the Middle East, despite these countries being similar in terms of habits, traditions, history, language and institutional systems. Additionally, it was found that entrepreneurial leadership is a role, task or responsibility that is related to both men and women in the sport business in the Middle East.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Theoretical and practical implications of the findings are discussed, together with limitations and suggestions for future research.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This is the only study in the field of entrepreneurial leadership that examined the concept of entrepreneurial leadership in Middle East sport businesses.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Middle East</li> <li>• Culture</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• sport business</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Syria, Lebanon, Qatar, UAE</li> </ul>

<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-11 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Finds significant cultural differences in attitudes to women’s entrepreneurship even between four countries that share a dominant language and religion, have similar ethnic makeup and are often considered part of the same cultural bloc</li> <li>• Finds that academic support for entrepreneurship must be sensitive to these differences in national culture</li> <li>• No significant difference found between the formation of entrepreneurial <i>intention</i> by men and women; concludes that structural barriers, not social norms, produce the differences in actual entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Academic entrepreneurship in the Middle East should be designed not only to promote women’s entrepreneurial leadership but also to cope effectively with the sensitivity of national cultural values and their various influences on each country, as national culture may be a real barrier to women entrepreneurial leadership in some countries” (p. 180).</p> <p>“...gender differences and similarities are not only widely affected by national cultural values but also the effect of the national cultural values varies” (p. 176).</p> <p>“Arab women interested in launching their own businesses in Middle East countries need to learn from the current women-owners of sport businesses and ignore the common tendency in the Middle East that places men first in terms of leadership” (p. 180).</p> <p>“...reform policies and legislations are not enough and must be associated with changes in the way of thinking through educating societies because informal forces are a real problem not only for women leaders but also men” (p. 180).</p>	

**Reference**

Tundui, C.S., & Tundui, H.P. (2020). Performance drivers of women-owned microcredit funded enterprises in Tanzania. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 12(2), 211-230.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to investigate performance drivers of women-owned businesses that are funded primarily through microcredit. It draws on Storey’s theory of small business growth and family embeddedness axiom to examine the factors that drive the performance of businesses that are funded primarily through microcredit.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper uses a cross-sectional survey that covered 208 women business owners who had access to microcredit. The authors use a logistic regression analysis to model the relationship between independent variables and enterprise performance.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The paper demonstrates that microcredit plays a significant role in business performance. The credit amount has the most significant influence on the enterprise capital base, whereas the effect on profits is insignificant. Also, owners are more likely to report growth in profits if they possess skills in business management. In addition, younger business owners and necessity entrepreneurs are more likely to report success in their businesses. Other factors that have a significant effect on business performance are product cycle, loan use and family support.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Many women in Tanzania are entering business ownership and depend on microcredit as their primary source of capital for starting and growing their businesses. However, just a few businesses grow into small and medium-sized enterprises. For informed policy decisions, it is important that the factors influencing the performance of funded businesses are known and well understood. This understanding will help the government and development practitioners</p>

	assist women in achieving business growth rates that could warrant their empowerment and poverty reduction prospects.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Microcredit</li> <li>• Microenterprises</li> <li>• Performance</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tanzania</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-12 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Examines some specifics of microcredit-driven businesses that have not been previously studied</li> <li>• Finds that business training is key to growing businesses out of the necessity/survival microbusiness stage and into a viable SME</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> • -
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“... enterprise profitability decreases with age, and the growth in enterprise profits is more likely among younger business owners than among older owners” (p. 221).</p> <p>“...business owners with training in business management skills seem to enjoy significant increases in enterprise profits than owners without such an experience.” (p. 225)</p> <p>“... researchers, development practitioners and policymakers need to appreciate or take account of the role that the specific factors play in the growth, success and survival of businesses owned by women” (p. 226).</p> <p>“...there is a need for more focussed policy initiatives and commitment to turn necessity entrepreneurs into opportunity entrepreneurs” (p. 226).</p>	

**Reference**

Cukier, W., & Hassannezhad Chavoushi, Z. (2020). Facilitating women entrepreneurship in Canada: the case of WEKH. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 35(3), 303-318.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper aims to provide a multi-level framework for exploring women entrepreneurship in Canada. The authors examine the Women Entrepreneurship Knowledge Hub (WEKH), a platform to advance women entrepreneurs from diverse backgrounds.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The authors analyze the major elements associated with the processes and strategies in WEKH through a case study approach.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings presented in this paper clearly show how creating an inclusive innovation ecosystem linking micro-, meso- and macro-level factors has the potential to advance women entrepreneurship</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>This case study presented here is in the early phase and results are not yet available.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The lessons from WEKH provides a model for other countries.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>Entrepreneurship drives economic development and gender equality is a critical sustainable development goal. WEKH activities will advance opportunities for women by creating a more inclusive innovation ecosystem.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>WEKH is a knowledge hub in Canada that aims to help foster women entrepreneurship in Canada related</p>

	to the women entrepreneurship strategy national program.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Canada</li> <li>• Innovation</li> <li>• Ecological model</li> <li>• Case study</li> <li>• Women entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Ecosystem</li> <li>• WEKH</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Canada</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-13 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This is mainly scene-setting for a later case study, but it has a solid overview of current literature and recent (Canadian) policy around business support for women entrepreneurs and summarises it clearly</li> <li>• It provides an outline of the steps being taken by WEKH, a major Canadian policy initiative, to promote inclusive innovation</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Critical ecological model</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“Women’s advancement in entrepreneurial activities is a function of interplaying environmental factors, which can be conceived by researchers through the ecological model’s three principal spheres societal/macro-level, institutional, organizational/meso-level and individual/micro-level” (p. 306).</p> <p>“...when entrepreneur is defined as an owner of an incorporated SME with 1-499 employees only 15.6 per cent of the SMEs are majority woman-owned (114,000 of 730,000 businesses) and another 20.9 per cent (153,000) are half owned by women and half-owned by men (Statistics Canada, 2017). However, when the definition includes self-employment, the number increases dramatically: 1 million women are self-employed or 37.4 per cent of all self-employed Canadians and 11.8 per cent of all working women” (p. 309).</p> <p>“...a specific review of over 30 years of policy research finds that most policy implications presented are “vague, conservative, and center on identifying skills gaps in women entrepreneurs that need to be ‘fixed’” (Foss et al., 2019). This latter set of implications essentially offers a “blame the victim” mentality and implies policy changes should be geared toward changing what women are doing rather than changing governmental approaches and programs” (p. 305).</p> <p>“These are the six areas used by WEKH’s diagnostic to “identify barriers and enablers to diverse women entrepreneurs,</p> <p>(1) Leadership, governance and decision-making: organizations can signal their commitment to diversity through the composition of their leadership, governance and decision-making team.</p>	

- (2) Strong and transparent recruitment, selection and support processes: through inclusive and transparent HR processes, organizations can give fair access to diverse groups.
- (3) Values and organizational culture: organizations can create an organizational culture that is hospitable to diverse groups and sensitive to their needs; this will reduce barriers to entry and increase retention of employees.
- (4) Measure and track diversity: organizations can measure and track diversity practices to translate their commitment into action.
- (5) Integrate or mainstream diversity across the value chain: using a diversity lens will allow organizations to evaluate every dimension of their operations, from procurement and service offerings to marketing and communications
- (6) Developing the pipeline: developing a culture of entrepreneurship begins young, and outreach activities to include the youth of diverse communities will facilitate entrepreneurial activities for diverse groups” (p. 310-11).



## Reference

Althalathini, D., Al-Dajani, H., & Apostolopoulos, N. (2020). Navigating Gaza's conflict through women's entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 12(4), 297-316.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>  <b>Purpose</b>  This paper aims to explore the extent to which women's entrepreneurship in conflict zones is an influential catalyst for liberalising traditionally conservative gender norms. This purpose is achieved by focussing on women entrepreneurs in Gaza and how they actively renegotiate their multiple gender roles and navigate the social order through entrepreneurship.  <b>Design/methodology/approach</b>  This paper adopts the interpretivist approach where individual in-depth interviews were conducted with 16 Palestinian women entrepreneurs operating in Gaza.  <b>Findings</b>  The findings demonstrate that the context of conflict itself and its impact on gender norms is a prime motivator for women to engage in entrepreneurial ventures. Some gender roles were constraining and other enabling women to initiate and sustain their ventures to contribute to their families' well-being. In spite of the fact that the conflict context and entrepreneurship have contributed to enhancing the agency of women and their ability to navigate the conflict and its consequences, the gendered practices and assumptions are still used as guidance for legitimising women's entrepreneurship.  <b>Originality/value</b>  This paper contributes to the gender and entrepreneurship literature by giving greater visibility to women entrepreneurs operating in conflict zones, which remain under researched. This paper also demonstrates how prolonged conflict instigates social and economic changes that can empower women

	entrepreneurs while simultaneously reinforcing gendered norms.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-employment</li> <li>• Womens entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Micro businesses</li> <li>• Conflict context</li> <li>• Gaza</li> <li>• Gender roles</li> <li>• Conflict</li> <li>• Necessity entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Women entrepreneurs</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Palestine</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-14 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Examines the specific experience of women entrepreneurs in Gaza and conflict zones, in general, are little studied from angles not directly about the conflict</li> <li>• Finds that its participants largely went into business out of necessity to provide for their families, but were also criticised by their relations/communities for working instead of focusing on their children</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interpretivism</li> </ul> * Theory of the feminisation of responsibility
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“This theory [Chant’s theory of the feminisation of responsibility] emphasises the importance of recognising women’s multiple, time-consuming unpaid responsibilities and obligations within their homes and families and argues that women’s enterprising is an added responsibility and obligation rather than a replacement of existing responsibilities and obligations” (p. 300).</p> <p>“Therefore, while the women were able to provide a better life for themselves and their families, they were also resisting changing the norms that discriminated against them. Without an enabling environment for women entrepreneurs, the inconsistent attitudes from households and society are “akin to blaming the victim” (Sholkamy, 2010, p. 257)” (p. 311)</p> <p>“Our findings suggested that self-perceived capabilities and family circumstances are the most important determinants pushing women entrepreneurs in conflict contexts to persevere in their entrepreneurial journeys. However, their family values and societal norms influence and shape the women’s entrepreneurial activities including their choice of sector, business premises and potential for business growth” (p. 312).</p> <p>“... a gender inclusive approach and tailored enterprise support will result in an engaging and relevant enterprise development policy and practice that can impact upon the lives of the women and their families favourably. A better understanding of how women</p>	

entrepreneurs perceive their roles and the institutional constraints they encounter will identify and create policies and interventions to ensure their effective participation and enhance their new social status” (p. 313).

**Reference**

Holmquist, C., & Sundin, E. (2020). Is there a place for gender questions in studies on entrepreneurship, or for entrepreneurship questions in gender studies? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 12(2), 89-101.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)</b></p>	<p>Purpose This paper aims to add to the diversity of gender and entrepreneurship studies by presenting the (lived experience) perspective on the development of research on women as entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach An essay built on personal reflections on the development of the field since the 1980s.</p> <p>Findings Research on entrepreneurship has shifted toward quantitative studies and the paper format, leading to fragmented research. Research on gender shows another trend, where empirical data have become less central – “women” as individuals are to a large extent not discussed. The authors conclude that the field of gender and entrepreneurship, therefore, is a fruitful arena to perform research in as long as the physical women are not neglected.</p> <p>Originality/value Building on the lived experience for almost 40 years as researchers of women as entrepreneurs, the perspective contributes to the understanding of the development of the field.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender theory</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-5 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reflective research on the development in the field of women and entrepreneurship since the 1980s when authors first started research in this area</li> <li>• Authors report experiencing ridicule when they first started to research this area (the first researchers to do this) because SME scholars did not see the point in studying SMEs from a women’s point of view and women scholars</li> </ul>

	<p>did not see the point in studying people who own their own business</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Authors argue there is still a divide between gender and entrepreneurship studies, as well as a distrust</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <p>-</p> <p><b>Brief Theory Summary</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p>	<p>“The skepticism between the two research fields remains, and we argue that there is still a divide between entrepreneurship studies and gender studies. The empirical fact that women are largely involved in entrepreneurship is ignored by both fields. In entrepreneurship research, the inclusion of “gender” is often simply done by adding the variable “gender” – that should rightly be named “sex,” as it is the biological and not the social sex that is measured. In gender studies, entrepreneurship has partly been included in the discourse on how “woman” and “female” are perceived but has failed to acknowledge that entrepreneurship is quite common for women, thus a vital part of women’s working lives. Therefore, we find that the mainstream agenda in both fields fails to acknowledge the possibility of a richer understanding of the phenomenon of women’s entrepreneurship – in terms of understanding the functioning of entrepreneurship, as well as understanding how women form their working lives” (p. 90).</p> <p>“Conversely, our impression is that gender research has not accepted or included entrepreneurship as a topic. The field has moved from the add-women perspective, where quantitative studies were quite frequent, to postmodernist perspectives, where qualitative studies or purely theoretical studies are more common. From the outset, entrepreneurship was not typically part of gender studies, and when it was, it was as an example given by historians of how survival in bad times was achieved. Gender research has always had an interest in the position of women (and men) in the labor market, but entrepreneurship and self-employment has not been in focus or elaborated on. More recently, “the theoretical turn” has made entrepreneurship and also empirical work even less visible in gender research. Summing up, we see no signs of integration – or even strong relationships – between the field of entrepreneurship and that of gender. The place for gender in entrepreneurship research is still mainly restricted to the add-on of the variable “gender” (i.e. biological sex), while in gender research, for the most part, there is no place for entrepreneurship. A quick search for articles with the word “gender” in the Journal of Business Venturing from 2018, and a search for articles with the word “entrepreneurship” in</p>

	<p>gender, work and organization from the same period shows this pattern, i.e. more than 100 articles in Journal of Business Venturing deal with gender, predominantly as a variable, and only one article in Gender, Work and Organization mentions entrepreneurship” (p. 96).</p>
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**Reference**

Mohanty, E., & Mishra, A.J. (2020). Understanding the gendered nature of developing country MSMEs’ access, adoption and use of information and communication technologies for development (ICT4D). *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 12(3), 273-295.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The widespread use of information and communication technologies (ICTs) has had a significant effect on various groups and communities of people including micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) and their owners/managers. The current study aims to analyze recent literature regarding adoption of ICTs by MSMEs. Further, it tries to locate gender within this broader context of diffusion of ICTs among MSMEs.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Using the thematic analysis approach, the research articles pertaining to six leading journals on ICTs, gender and entrepreneurship published during the time period from 2011 to 2019 are reviewed.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The literature selected for the study has been discussed under two primary categories, viz. “adoption of information and communication technologies for development (ICT4D) for business purposes” and “insights on gender in ICT4D use by MSMEs.”</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The context-dependent nature of ICT use can enable future entrepreneurs to assess the scope of specific ICTs in given areas of operation. The gendered nature of ICTs helps to evaluate as well as question the empowerment potential of ICTs. The study emphasizes the need to account for historical specificities and transnational linkages in understanding access, adoption and use of ICT4D by women MSME entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Originality/value</p>

	The study bridges together literature on ICT4D use by MSMEs and the role of gender in ICT-mediated entrepreneurial environments. While unraveling the interplay of power dynamics in such environments, the scope for future research in terms of tapping into the content of information exchanges and exploring the implications of “dark side of internet” for women MSME entrepreneurs is also indicated.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• ICT4D</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Agency</li> <li>• MSMEs</li> <li>• ICT use</li> <li>• Women MSME entrepreneurs</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• International</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-15 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A detailed review of a smallish (30 articles) corpus of recent literature related to ICT and small business, with a focus on gender dynamics and developing countries</li> <li>• Brings together various papers on the benefits of ICT adoption to women-led SMEs, including practical benefits but also socio-psychological ones</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> • -
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“... gender constraints to technology can be addressed if the ICT-based development projects focused on women entrepreneurs of MSMEs attempt to go beyond women’s existing skills, traditional roles and gender norms. This implies that these projects should envisage deployment of ICTs in ways that ensure new entrepreneurial opportunities for women of the developing world by breaking the male hegemony in such domains and facilitate women’s visibility in the public sphere” (p. 290).</p> <p>“ICTs facilitate access to critical information and professional opportunities that can help the MSME entrepreneurs enhance their productivity and strengthen economic participation. However, in order that these technologies are amenable to a diversity of members along the gender spectrum requires taking into account their needs and aspirations in the design of these technologies” (p. 289-90).</p>	



**Reference**

Nouri, P., Imanipour, N., & Ahmadikafeshani, A. (2019). Exploring female entrepreneurs' marketing decisions with a heuristics and biases approach. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 34(8), 623-643.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This study furthers the body of knowledge on entrepreneurial decision-making, entrepreneurial marketing and female entrepreneurs by exploring practical implications of heuristics and biases in female entrepreneurs' marketing decisions. Heuristics and biases influence many entrepreneurial decisions. Moreover, some of the most important entrepreneurial decisions are marketing-related. Given that the entrepreneurial marketing behavior emanates from entrepreneurial thinking and decision-making, one may conclude that female entrepreneurs' marketing decisions are susceptible to heuristics and biases. This paper aims to explore the outcomes of heuristics and biases in entrepreneurial marketing decisions.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Data were collected by conducting semi-structured interviews with 19 Iranian female biotech entrepreneurs and analyzed by thematic analysis.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings indicate that introducing pioneering products to the market, overestimating product's market appeal, unprepared entry, underestimating the competition, overcoming entry impediments, entry postponement, growth, success in incremental innovation and failure in radical innovation are the main outcomes of the identified heuristics and biases in the female entrepreneurs' marketing decisions.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>This paper has some precious practical implications for marketers as well as female entrepreneurs running small businesses. Generally speaking, reducing the negative impacts of the identified heuristics and biases of this study while enhancing their positive</p>

	<p>effects will increase the chances of female entrepreneurs to compete and succeed in tumultuous markets. Furthermore, our most important managerial implication is regarding overconfidence, which was very common in the female entrepreneurs' marketing decisions by having various positive and negative outcomes. Thus, female entrepreneurs should be careful of this fateful bias in their decisions by knowing the most common signs of overconfidence.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This paper is unique because of not only identifying the main heuristics and biases but also their major outcomes in entrepreneurs' major marketing decisions. Moreover, this paper is a pioneer in exploring heuristics and biases in female entrepreneurs' decisions.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small businesses</li> <li>• Heuristics</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Biases</li> <li>• Marketing decisions</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Iran</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-16 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Heterogeneity of entrepreneurial decision making between genders.</li> <li>• Research gap identified applying anchoring and adjustment biases and entrepreneurship.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p>Theory Name:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Two biases of overconfidence and illusion of control and two heuristics of representativeness and affect were identified in entrepreneurs' market entry decisions (all the decisions about entry barriers” (p. 633).</p> <p>“The representativeness heuristic also caused the female entrepreneurs to overestimate their product's appeal and market demand, thus, resulting in their financial loss, although not categorical elimination from the market” (p. 637).</p> <p>“Optimistic overconfidence impacted some female entrepreneurs' opportunity evaluations and led to unprepared exploitation decisions by entrepreneurs and subsequent loss of the markets overconfidence is the most influential bias in entrepreneurial marketing decisions and makes entrepreneurs overestimate product's market appeal, introduce pioneering products to the market, overcome entry impediments, penetrate new markets, expand their markets, succeed in incremental innovations, exploit opportunities unpreparedly and fail in implementing radical innovations” (p. 636).</p>	

“On the other hand, some biases like the illusion of control lead to mostly negative outcomes by making entrepreneurs underestimate their rivals’ capabilities, until it is too late” (p. 636).

“...planning fallacy is a common bias among entrepreneurs, we did not find this bias in our sample’s marketing decisions. This could be the result of gender, indicating that female entrepreneurs are not prone to this bias, or show it far less than male entrepreneurs” (p. 638).

“Knowing which heuristics and biases influence consumer decisions would be an important source of competitive advantage for female entrepreneurs running small businesses to improve their marketing strategies” (p. 638).

“Thus, female entrepreneurs should be aware of the most common signs of irrational escalation of commitment (e.g. not revising one’s initial decisions despite receiving negative feedbacks because of the reluctance to lose face among others” (p. 638).

**Reference**

Zisser, M.R., Johnson, S.L., Freeman, M.A., & Staudenmaier, P.J. (2019). The relationship between entrepreneurial intent, gender and personality. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 34(8), 665-684.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to examine gender differences in personality traits of people with and without entrepreneurial intent to assess whether women who intend to become entrepreneurs exhibit particular tendencies that can be fostered.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Participants completed an online battery of well-established questionnaires to cover a range of personality traits relevant to entrepreneurship and gender. Participants also answered items concerning intent to become an entrepreneur. A factor analysis of personality traits produced four factors (esteem and power, ambition, risk propensity and communal tendency, the latter reflecting openness and cooperation, without hubris). The authors constructed four parallel regression models to examine how gender, entrepreneurial intent and the interaction of gender with intent related to these four personality factor scores.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Participants who endorsed a desire to become an entrepreneur reported higher ambition. Women with entrepreneurial intentions endorsed higher levels of communal tendency than men with entrepreneurial intent. Those without entrepreneurial intent did not show gender differences in communal tendency.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Current findings suggest that men and women who intend to become entrepreneurs share many traits, but women with entrepreneurial intent show unique elevations in communal tendencies. Thus, a worthwhile locus for intervention into the gender disparity in self-employment would be providing space and acknowledgement of prosocial motivation</p>

	<p>and goals as one highly successful route to entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Given the underused economic potential of women entrepreneurs, there is a fundamental need for a rich array of research on factors that limit and promote women's entry into entrepreneurship. Current findings indicate that personality may be one piece of this puzzle.</p>
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Personality</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USA</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-17 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussion surrounding masculinity traits associated with entrepreneurship.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Personal Trait Theory – On-line questionnaire n= 194 business and psychology Undergraduates.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“A “leaky pipeline,” or a pathway that discourages female entrepreneurship at different points along the way, could contribute to the gender disparity in business ownership (Martin et al., 2015) whereas personality traits such as neuroticism, conscientiousness, extraversion and tendency toward cooperation will be endorsed more by women than men” (p. 667).</p> <p>“The decreased propensity of women compared to men to start businesses has been tied to lower levels of optimism and self-confidence, and higher fear of failure (Koellinger et al., 2008)” (p. 669).</p> <p>“Theorists and researchers have critiqued this disparity and proposed new ways of examining women's entrepreneurship. Because primarily male samples dominated the early literature and much of traditional entrepreneurship is gendered as masculine, women's entrepreneurship is frequently viewed as secondary (Ahl, 2006; Bruni et al., 2004; De Bruin et al., 2006; Gupta et al., 2009)” (p. 669).</p> <p>“...women who intend to become entrepreneurs endorsed higher levels of communal tendency than men with entrepreneurial intent. Women who did not intend to become entrepreneurs reported similar levels of communal tendency than men without entrepreneurial intent” (p. 676).</p> <p>“Women, on the other hand, may find “alternative” motivations to become an entrepreneur. These motivations could include more community-oriented business goals or approaches to entrepreneurship. Women may also be more rewarded for focusing their business goals or styles on more collectivistic pursuits” (p. 676).</p>	

“Women may need to augment their reliance on social capital to compensate for structural differences in access to financial capital. Communal tendencies, then, could be a particular strength for women who intend to become entrepreneurs” (p. 676).

“Considering the constellation of personality traits together, women who intend to become entrepreneurs endorsed some “masculine” traits, such as high risk-taking and ambition” (p. 677).

“Greater promotion of the strengths of collaborative tendencies for achieving entrepreneurial success could be discussed for women contemplating this career path and struggling with a hyper-masculinized perception of entrepreneurship” (p. 677).

“...women who associate femininity with poor performance in a particular domain may do less well on relevant tasks when subtly reminded of gender. This process may deter women’s entry into entrepreneurship to the extent that entrepreneurship and the related tasks are perceived as “male” (p. 677).

“...perceptions of personality traits, as well as interventions targeting self-perceptions, as a promising avenue for future studies” (p. 678).

“...if research and policy can increase the visibility and desirability of women’s strengths in entrepreneurship, the field may be able to increase women’s perception that entry into entrepreneurship is consistent with core elements of their gender identity. Studying the self-perceptions of women entrepreneurs also provides an opportunity to identify alternative forms of entrepreneurship that may have gone unnoticed in favor of more traditional entrepreneurial styles” (p. 678).

“Research designed to provide a stronger sense of the challenges women face and the strengths they bring in entering entrepreneurship could provide a starting point for much needed social and policy change surrounding this vital and potentially lucrative aspect of business” (p. 679).

**Reference**

Hunt, C.M., Fielden, S., & Woolnough, H.M. (2019). The potential of online coaching to develop female entrepreneurial self-efficacy. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 34(8), 685-701.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to explore the potential of coaching to develop female entrepreneurship by overcoming potential barriers. It sought to understand how entrepreneurial self-efficacy can be applied to development relationships, through on-line coaching, examining changes in the four key elements of entrepreneurial self-efficacy enactive mastery, vicarious experiences, social persuasion and psychological arousal. The study examines the impact of coaching relationships on female entrepreneurial self-efficacy compared to a control group. The participant group was matched with coaches and undertook a structured six months' coaching programme.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This was a longitudinal study using a mixed methods approach. Questionnaires investigating entrepreneurial self-efficacy were collected at two time points for both the coaching and control group. After the first time point, the coaching group was supported through a six months coaching development programme. At the second time point, questionnaires were again completed by both groups and qualitative data gather via interviews with the coaching group.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings from this study showed that coaching relationships had a positive impact on coachees' entrepreneurial self-efficacy, compared to the control group in terms of enactive mastery, vicarious experience, social persuasion and psychological arousal. This suggests that coaching is a development intervention which can be used to enhance self-efficacy beliefs of female entrepreneurs, thereby increasing their chances of engaging in successful business creation and operation.</p>

	<p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The group size was a problem, with four of the coaching group and ten of the control group dropping out. The coaching participants left the intervention due to personal reasons but no reason could be established for the control group participants leaving the study. The problem of ‘Type II’ was considered and in an attempt to overcome this problem, data were shown at below 10% (<math>p &lt; 0.10</math>). It would also have been useful to collect more qualitative data from the control group.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>An online coaching programme provided by women for women, which is tailored to the individual, can support female entrepreneurs through the difficult stages of start-up and development phases of business development. Creating more successful women owned businesses will not only provide financial benefits, but should help provide additional entrepreneurial networks for women, as well as more positive female role models. Exposure to positive role models has been found to have a direct effect on entrepreneurial self-efficacy. This circular affect should in theory keep on increasing, if female entrepreneurs have access to the tailored support provided by coaching programmes such as the one used here.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>Considering the current global economic climate, it is increasingly important for women to be supported in small business ownership (Denis, 2012). Countries which actively promote women entering into business ownership will ultimately share the gains in terms of wider issues, i.e. improving education and health, and economic growth (Harding, 2007). If female entrepreneurship is to be encouraged and supported, provision needs to be designed and developed based on female entrepreneurs’ needs and requirements, rather than simply conforming to traditional business support models.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Coaching</li> <li>• Longitudinal</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Control group</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Kingdom</li> </ul>



<b>Key Highlights (3-18 – be brief in the summary)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Muted due to more focus on quantitative measures and outcomes.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Banduras theory: Enactive mastery, Vicarious modelling, Social persuasion &amp; Psychological arousal.</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“These barriers are widely documented in the literature, such as access to funding and finance, domestic responsibilities, the maintenance of work/life balance, a lack of human capital (i.e. previous work experience and education), and a lack of social capital (i.e. networks)” (p. 686).</p> <p>“Entrepreneurial self-efficacy in a given domain that reflects an individual’s innermost thoughts on whether they have the skills/abilities perceived as important for task performance, as well as the belief that they will be able to effectively convert those skills/abilities into a chosen outcome (Bandura and Locke, 2003)” (p. 686).</p> <p>“Research has suggested that the reason women are not accessing this form of support is because a lack of self-efficacy, poor physical access and a lack of understanding about the relevance of the services to their situation (Fielden et al., 2003; Mariani et al., 2019). As many women perceive entrepreneurship as a male construct, which focuses on masculine values and attributes, they frequently question the ability to be successful in such a male dominated arena in business ownership (Simpson and Lewis, 2007)” (p.687).</p> <p>“One important problem nascent and new entrepreneurs is that they have very little time to spend looking for outside help, and only rarely have the knowledge or the networks required to find the right person (or any person) to provide them with the right kind of support (Alstrup, 2000)” (p. 689).</p> <p>“She really inspired me to get the ball rolling. She had been there and done it so I had a lot of respect for her in terms of that. It made me realise that I just needed to get on with it and that I could make it happen” (p. 695).</p> <p>“The space in which on-line coaching relationships develop providing support which enables female entrepreneurs to access support at a time and location which is appropriate and convenient for them, overcoming one of the main barriers to accessing traditional forms of business support, i.e. physical access (Fielden et al., 2003; Fielden and Hunt, 2011)” (p. 696).</p> <p>“If female entrepreneurship is to be encouraged and supported, provision needs to be designed and developed based on the needs and requirements of female entrepreneurs, rather than simply conforming to traditional business support models which have be shown to fail to meet the needs of the many female entrepreneurs (Fielden et al., 2006; Hunt and Fielden, 2011)” (p. 697).</p>	

**Reference**

Jabeen, F., Faisal, M.N., Al Matroushi, H., & Farouk, S. (2019). Determinants of innovation decisions among Emirati female-owned small and medium enterprises. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 11(4), 408-434.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to investigate the factors that influence the innovation decisions of Emirati women-owned small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This study uses a two-phased approach. In the first phase, empirical research on 50 Emirati female entrepreneurs is conducted to discover the extent of innovation in their ventures. In the second phase, the study uses an analytical hierarchy process (AHP) to prioritize factors considered important in facilitating business innovation among SMEs. The AHP model is developed with 9 criteria and 25 sub-criteria based on the previous literature. Face-to-face interviews are conducted with Emirati female entrepreneurs operating nascent (n = 10), start-up (n = 10) and established innovative (n = 10) businesses to collect data for the AHP study. The data collected are interpreted and a priority vector is assigned to each criterion and sub-criterion.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Female SME owners prioritize government policies, research and development, innovation strategy and skill development as the main criteria that influence their innovation decisions. Family support, access to external financing, social networks and the allocation of funds are the main sub-criteria affecting their decisions to be innovative. Furthermore, respondents who are in the nascent business stage consider family motivation as the greatest influence on initiating new ideas through financial and moral support. Among all respondents, the nascent business owners rank skill development the highest because they are still in the initial stages of their business journeys, and thus, obtaining these skills could help them increase innovation and success in their ventures. However,</p>

	<p>respondents in the established stage rank innovation strategy the highest.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The study results can help policymakers and women’s associations, such as businesswomen councils, identify the specific inhibitors and facilitators linked to innovation and, thereby, help develop various effective policies to promote innovation among Emirati women-owned SMEs.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The study is one attempt to facilitate innovation among Emirati women-owned SMEs through its efforts to discover the determinants of innovation efforts at nascent, start-up and established business stages as defined by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2012). The study can help Emirati women-owned SMEs understand the critical factors influencing innovation and can encourage them to incorporate innovative characteristics for business growth and resilience. Furthermore,</p>
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small and medium enterprises</li> <li>• Analytical hierarchy process (AHP)</li> <li>• United Arab Emirates (UAE)</li> <li>• Emirati female entrepreneurs</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Arab Emirates</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-19 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cultural and institutional factors influencing innovation.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Analytical hierarchical Theory</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“Family support, access to external financing, social networks and the allocation of funds are the main sub-criteria affecting their decisions to be innovative. Furthermore, respondents who are in the nascent business stage consider family motivation as the greatest influence on initiating new ideas through financial and moral support” (p. 408).</p> <p>“Family support, access to external financing, social networks and the allocation of funds are the main sub-criteria affecting their decisions to be innovative” (p. 408).</p> <p>“Previous researchers (Block et al., 2017; Jennings and Brush, 2013) have affirmed that women-owned businesses are among the new emerging entrepreneurial populaces in the world and will make substantial contributions to innovation, employment, and economic prosperity” (p. 409).</p>	

“Singh and De Noble (2003) find that technical skills, creativity and innovative skills are important because they imply the ability to come up with novel ideas and problem-solving tactics to inspire success” (p. 412).

“All the respondents agree that having an innovative culture and strong social networks, allocating funds for R&D activities, and access to external finance will help Emirati women entrepreneurs become more innovative and successful” (p. 427).

**Reference**

Anlesinya, A., Adepoju, O.A., & Richter, U.H. (2019). Cultural orientation, perceived support and participation of female students in formal entrepreneurship in the sub-Saharan economy of Ghana. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 11(3), 299-322.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to examine cultural orientations and intention of Ghanaian women to engage in entrepreneurship while assessing the role of perceived support system. The aim is to contribute to the literature in the sub-Saharan African context where women entrepreneurs are generally under-researched, despite their increasing significant roles in socio-economic development in the continent even in the face of huge cultural barriers.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study uses hierarchical regression analysis and Hay’s PROCESS moderation technique to analyze survey data from 190 female students from Ghana, Africa.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results indicate that uncertainty avoidance and power distance cultural orientations have significant positive and negative effects, respectively, on women’s participation in formal entrepreneurship. However, collectivism and masculine cultural orientations do not have any effect on their intention to engage in formal entrepreneurial activity. The study further shows that perceived support system has a buffering effect on the destructive consequences of power distance culture on formal entrepreneurship intentions. On the contrary, perceived support does not moderate the relationship between uncertainty avoidance, collectivism and masculine cultural and formal entrepreneurial intention.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>Given the fact that most African governments are making efforts to accelerate the growth and development of their economies via entrepreneurship and economic empowerment, this study’s findings encourage stakeholders to implement measures to</p>

	<p>leverage on the positive dimensions of cultures to facilitate the development of formal entrepreneurship among Ghanaian women while mitigating the negative consequences of cultural practices. The findings further highlight the need to evaluate the current level of support given to women in Ghana. The study suggests that provision of sufficient level of support can make women more willing to challenge the status quo in power distance cultures and take personal initiatives, thereby leading to more formal entrepreneurial actions.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study is a significant addition to women entrepreneurship literature because the role of culture in females' intention to participate in entrepreneurship is generally an under-researched area. Besides, our examination of national cultural variation at the individual level on formal entrepreneurship.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Culture</li> <li>• Support</li> <li>• Ghana</li> <li>• Women entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Formal entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Ghana</li> <li>• Sub-Saharan Africa</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship intention</li> <li>• Gender</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ghana</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-20 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Informal entrepreneurship structures</li> <li>• The link between uncertainty avoidance and entrepreneurial activity.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hofstede's Cultural Theory</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“According to Webb et al. (2009), informal entrepreneurs are “illegal” from the perspective of the formal institutions. They are however regarded as “legitimate” from the outlook of a country’s informal institutional norms, values and beliefs” (p. 300).</p> <p>“Through their collective efforts and pooling of resources, they can develop and successfully execute entrepreneurial activities. Furthermore, and contrary to the expected negative effect, the empirical evidence shows that masculine cultural orientation has no effect on the intention of women to engage in entrepreneurship” (p. 313).</p>	

**Reference**

Brush, C.G., Greene, P.G., & Welter, F. (2019). The Diana project: a legacy for research on gender in entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 12(1), 7-25.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p><b>abstract</b></p> <p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to provide a brief history of the evolution of the Diana Project and the Diana International Research Conference. The authors examine the impact of the publications, conferences and research contributions and consider key factors in the success of this collaborative research organization. They discuss the ongoing legacy, suggesting ways to extend this into the future.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This paper uses an historical narrative and a citation analysis. Findings – The Diana Project was founded by five women professors in 1999 with the purpose of investigating women’s access to growth capital. Following a series of academic articles, and numerous presentations, the first Diana International Conference was held in Stockholm, Sweden. At this convening, 20 scholars from 13 countries shared their knowledge of women’s entrepreneurship, venture creation and growth, culminating in the first volume of the Diana Book Series. Since then, 14 international conferences have been held, resulting in 10 special issues of top academic journals and 11 books. More than 600 scholars have attended or participated in Diana conferences or publications.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Contributions from the Diana International Conferences’ special issues of journals and books have advanced theory across topics, levels, geographies and methods. Articles emerging from Diana scholars are some of the top contributions about women’s entrepreneurship and gender to the field of entrepreneurship. Future research directions are included.</p> <p>Practical implications</p>

	<p>This analysis demonstrates the success of a unique woman-focused collaborative research initiative and identifies key success factors, suggesting how these might be expanded in the future.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>To date, more than 600 scholars have participated in the Diana International Conferences or publications. Diana is the only community dedicated to rigorous and relevant research about gender and women’s entrepreneurship. Going forward, efforts to expand work on education for women’s entrepreneurship, women entrepreneurship faculty and careers, and women entrepreneurs, gender and policy will take place to extend this legacy.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper is unique in that it is the first to show the substantial legacy and impact of the Diana project since its inception in 1999. Further, it demonstrates how a feminist approach to entrepreneurial principles can yield insights about this unique research initiative and collaborative organization</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Venture capital</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Collaborative research</li> <li>• Diana project</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USA</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-21 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 14 conferences on women and entrepreneurship.</li> <li>• Numerous journals and articles.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Not applicable as analysing the role and potential of the DIANA project for women studies in entrepreneurship although a ‘feminist’ collaborative approach to the research project has been utilised.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>-</p>	



**Reference**

Ali, I., Ali, M., & Badghish, S. (2019). Symmetric and asymmetric modeling of entrepreneurial ecosystem in developing entrepreneurial intentions among female university students in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 11(4), 435-458.

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Unlike previous studies that examine the role of different entrepreneurial ecosystem factors in predicting entrepreneurial intentions. The purpose of this study is to explain the direct effects of entrepreneurial ecosystem factors effecting entrepreneurial intentions and configurational combinations of entrepreneurial ecosystem factors that cause high or low entrepreneurial intentions among female university students in Saudi Arabia.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study used structured survey-questionnaire based data collected from 310 female students enrolled in different universities in Saudi Arabia. The study used symmetric analysis using structural equation modeling technique, whereas asymmetric analysis is performed using the fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis, necessary condition analysis is also used to identify the role of different entrepreneurial ecosystem factors in increasing and/or decreasing entrepreneurial intentions among young Saudi women.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results of symmetrical analysis show that access to finance, access to physical infrastructure, and cultural factors are not significantly associated with entrepreneurial intentions, whereas government policies and regulations, government programs and support, social factors and entrepreneurship education and training are significantly associated with the development of entrepreneurial intentions among female Saudi university students. While the result of asymmetrical analysis provides 15 configurational models that explains the high levels of certain factors to predict entrepreneurial intentions among female university students in Saudi Arabia. Specifically,</p>

	<p>social support is found as necessary condition in majority of models to predict high levels of entrepreneurial intentions among female Saudi university students.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The results of the study provide empirical evidence to policymakers in Saudi Arabia. The study proposes that it is not mandatory that the high levels of all entrepreneurial ecosystem factors are important to predict high entrepreneurial intentions, rather in some conditions the low levels of certain factors are obligatory to predict high levels of entrepreneurial intentions.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Two-step mix-method approach is used in this study containing analysis of symmetric within entrepreneurial ecosystem increase or decrease entrepreneurial intentions among female university students in Saudi Arabia. There has been plenty of research that examines the role of entrepreneurial ecosystem factors in development of university students' entrepreneurial intentions, however</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship ecosystem</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial intentions</li> <li>• Configurational analysis</li> <li>• Women's empowerment</li> <li>• Saudi Arabia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Saudi Arabia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-22 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Links between socio-economic strength and entrepreneurial intentions of females.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Women’s empowerment through entrepreneurship reflects the hope that unemployed women can earn a living, have a respectable life and contribute toward the economic development of the country. Entrepreneurship is an excellent way to engage women in business activities and improve their socio-economic conditions” (p. 438).</p> <p>“Culture is particularly important in Arab regions, especially in Saudi Arabia, given its traditional Muslim cultural values. Basaffar et al. (2018) hold that cultural and social values restrict Saudi women in terms of their confidence and ability to start their own business” (p. 440).</p>	

“The results of symmetrical analysis show that access to finance, access to physical infrastructure, and cultural factors are not significantly associated with entrepreneurial intentions among female university students in Saudi Arabia, whereas government policies and regulations, government programs and support, social factors and entrepreneurship education and training have positive significant influence in developing entrepreneurial intentions among young Saudi women” (p. 450).

“We noted that social support is a “necessary” factor (Dul, 2016) in the majority of configurational models to predict high levels of entrepreneurial intentions among female university students” (p. 450).

“The comparison of respondents on the basis their socio-economic background could also provide interesting and useful policy insights regarding predictors of entrepreneurial intention among different sub-groups of female university students” (p. 450).

**Reference**

Rosenbaum, G.O. (2019). The role of export promotion programs in the internationalisation of female-owned enterprises: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 11(3), 323-347.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>While the role of government-funded export promotion programs (EPPs) on the international activities of small ventures has been previously documented, they do not appear to have been hitherto studied in a gendered context. This is unfortunate given the evidence suggesting growing numbers of female entrepreneurs with strong international orientation. Thus, this study aims to provide a better understanding of the experiences and practices of women entrepreneurs with regard to EPPs.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This study is based on personal interviews with eight female-owned international entrepreneurial ventures in the fashion design industry in Denmark. A qualitative research design was used to explore the experiences of the women entrepreneurs regarding different types of EPPs and their various providers, and the data were analysed and interpreted using the NVivo software program.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results show that while the level of awareness of EPPs was generally high, the programs were overwhelmingly perceived to be overly expensive, excessively time-consuming, insufficiently specific and largely irrelevant. When the women business owners had availed themselves of their services, the usefulness of the EPPs was deemed to be largely imperceptible. Plausible explanations for these results may be found in the gendered entrepreneurial literature. The study's findings provide important gendered insights to government support agencies charged with promoting the internationalisation of female-owned small businesses.</p> <p>Originality/value</p>

	This study presents novel gendered findings of the experiences of female entrepreneurs regarding the role played by EPPs in the growth of their firms on international markets. It contributes to the literature on the growing phenomenon of female international entrepreneurs.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Internationalisation</li> <li>• Export promotion programs</li> <li>• Fashion design industry</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Denmark</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-23 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recognition of time-consuming government programmes constructed with no consideration regarding women being mainly the main care givers .</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	Theory Name: •
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“...while entering larger, more diverse business networks may assuage this issue; strong evidence suggests that women business owners face structural and/or psychological barriers (Rodriguez and Santos, 2009; Sharafizad, 2011; Sundin, 2011; Surangi, 2018), reducing their willingness or ability to leverage external business contacts to grow their ventures” (p. 324).</p> <p>“First, while quite aware of the availability of these programs, they were generally eschewed by the focal female entrepreneurs because of perceptions of offerings being overly expensive and excessively time-consuming” (p. 324).</p> <p>“Given that networks often contain valuable external resources and information, prior studies provide strong evidence suggesting that women entrepreneurs ordinarily seek the emotional support embedded in small and dense social networks (Carter et al., 2003; Klyver and Grant, 2010; Kremel and Yazdanfar, 2017; Lee et al., 2011)” (p. 325).</p> <p>“The latter may be in the form of a lack of self-confidence to enter business networks (Fielden and Hunt, 2011), or a fear that they will not be taken seriously by male peers (Rodriguez and Santos, 2009; Sundin, 2011)” (p. 325).</p> <p>“They were perceived as being excessively costly and overly time-consuming, such that the perceived benefits of participation failed to outweigh the perceived costs – both in monetary and non-monetary terms” (p. 333).</p> <p>“I can remember once that (the regional business development center representative) said “Take a loan” and my husband just said: “Just loan that (200,000 Euros)” and I simply couldn’t. Think if it had gone wrong, and then my children would have to change school (Epsilon)” (p. 334).</p>	

“Managing the work–life balance thus presents female entrepreneurs with challenges associated with leveraging the resources inherited in external networks to promote venture growth” (p. 336).

“For instance, Fielden et al. (2003) found that many of their female entrepreneur respondents were simply unable to attend network meetings early in the mornings because of child responsibilities. Indeed, Farr-Wharton and Brunetto (2007) reported that 25 per cent of their sample of 115 women business owners stated that they did not belong to any kind of business or institutional network” (p. 336).

“It was all rather superficial. It was difficult for them to relate to us because they were never deep enough in the firm – then it’s obviously going to be difficult for them to come up with something that is actually useful to us (Gamma on Business Development Centers)” (p. 337).

“One respondent felt that the offerings were designed for larger firms. This supports the findings of Chell and Baines’ (2000) study that the vast majority of UK small firm owner respondents had neither used the advisory services of industry associations or government bodies within the past three years. One main-cited reason for lack of relevance was the largely impersonal services offered the case data highlighted that the FIEs were all extremely aware of the existence of the various EPP offerings, they harboured largely negative perceptions that the offerings were too expensive and excessively time-consuming, and were generally united in their criticism that they were largely useless because they were insufficiently specific and largely irrelevant” (p. 334).

**Reference**

Orser, B., Riding, A., & Li, Y. (2019). Technology adoption and gender-inclusive entrepreneurship education and training. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 11(3), 273-298.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Drawing on social feminist theory, this paper aims to close gaps between knowledge about gender-related barriers to information, communication and technology (ICT) adoption and the provision of entrepreneurship education and training (EET) programs.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Empirical findings are drawn from 21 semi-structured interviews (22 informants) possessing differing training expertise regarding digital technology among women entrepreneurs. An open-coding technique was adopted where descriptive codes were first assigned to meaningful statements. Interpretive and pattern codes were then assigned to indicate common themes and patterns, which were reduced to higher-order categories to inform the research questions.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings specify and validate further gender influences in the digital economy. Digital skills are identified, and strategies to close gender barriers to ICT adoption with EET are described. The findings are discussed in reference to a large-scale, Canadian ICT adoption program.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Perceptual data may be idiosyncratic to the sample. The work did not control for the type of technology. Gender influences may differ by type of technology.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>Findings can be used to construct gender-inclusive ICT supports and inform ICT adoption policies. This includes program eligibility and evaluation criteria to measure the socio-economic impacts.</p>

	<p>Originality/value</p> <p>The study is among the first to examine the intersection between knowledge about gender-related barriers to ICT adoption and EET. The findings can be adopted to ICT support programs targeted at small business owners and entrepreneurs</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneur</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship education and training</li> <li>• Gender-based analysis</li> <li>• Information communication technology</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Canada</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-24 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The gender blindness of technology and innovation.</li> <li>• The masculinity of entrepreneurial education.</li> <li>• Recognition of adoption of ICT as being a masculine pursuit.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social Feminist Theory.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Associated with EET. In summary, the study reports ICT adoption, gender and EET. The findings inform gender-inclusive ICT programming, and practices to help women entrepreneurs scale their enterprises. This is important given women are considered an under-represented group” (p. 274).</p> <p>“The emergent view suggests that social norms and context play critical roles in awareness, access, and adoption of ICTs. The literature also suggests that gender-related barriers are systemic to the extent that women-owned SMEs are smaller, less likely to retain the financial capital needed to purchase ICTs, and less likely to access ICT knowledge or training” (p. 275).</p> <p>“Lack of confidence and risk aversion were associated with willingness to adopt technologies. Again, these barriers are consistent with those previously identified in the literature” (p. 283).</p> <p>“Access to experienced business owners and role models were two related themes. Matching protégés with mentors who had adopted technologies in their businesses was perceived as a particularly helpful means of providing guidance” (p. 285).</p> <p>“Informants noted that mainstream ICT support programs can be viewed as male-centric and thus serve to widen the gender gap in ICT adoption among business owners as they fail to recognise the unique experiences and entrepreneurial capabilities of women business owners” (p. 286).</p>	



## Reference

Garcia-Solarte, M., Garcia-Perez de Lema, D., & Madrid-Guijarro, A. (2018). Gender diversity and its impact on high-tech SMEs' organizational leadership. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 33(6), 499-523.

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This study aims to empirically identify the relationship between gender diversity and organizational leadership.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A multifactor questionnaire, Form 6-S, developed by Bass and Avolio (1992), is used to measure leadership. The results are derived from univariate and multivariate analyses conducted through ordinary least square linear regression. This study uses a base consisting of 142 small and medium enterprises in Cali (Colombia); men manage 111 of which, whereas women manage 31. The data came from a project performed by the Humanism and Management research group of the Administration Sciences Department of Valley University (Universidad del Valle). Fieldwork was conducted between November 2013 and April 2014.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results show that companies with greater gender diversity (mostly women on the board of directors and in management) develop a transformational organizational style orientated towards organizational change through the transformation of followers.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>There is no previous study combining these variables in the Colombian context.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transformational leadership</li> <li>• Transactional leadership</li> <li>• Gender diversity</li> <li>• Small and medium enterprises (SMEs)</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Columbia</li> </ul>

<b>Key Highlights</b> <b>(3-25 – be brief in the summary)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• That men and women both contribute and complement each other within leadership and management.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	Theory Name: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transformational Leadership Transactional leadership</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>  <p>“One of the obstacles faced by women is that they continue to be assigned great family and domestic responsibilities by their feminine role, which affects the perception of their abilities, especially in organizational leadership and management (Eagly and Carli, 2003). Furthermore, managerial positions have been designated a male domain by organizational cultures and administrative theories that continue to uphold masculine ideologies (Coronel et al., 2010)” (p. 500).</p> <p>“The feminine characteristics associated with leadership are the ability to show concern for others, interpersonal sensitivity, warmth, friendliness, and empathy, among others (Kark et al., 2012)” (p. 501).</p> <p>“Building something like female leadership can add some value to traditional leadership ideas, but it can also create a misleading impression of women’s leadership orientation, as well as the reproduction of stereotypes and the traditional gender division of labour” (p. 516).</p>	

## Reference

Kankanammge, H.A., & Surangi, N.S. (2018). What influences the networking behaviours of female entrepreneurs? A case for the small business tourism sector in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 10(2), 116-1333.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)</b>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Research investigating female entrepreneurs and their networking relationships has developed considerably over the past two decades. There are, however, few Sri Lankan studies that have specifically focussed on female entrepreneurs in terms of their social networks. This paper aims to examine the important influences on these female entrepreneurs' networking behaviour within small businesses in the tourism sector.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Having established that the social constructionist approach is most suitable for this study, in-depth narrative interviews and observations were deemed a particularly suitable research tool. In total, 14 female entrepreneurs were purposively approached and interviewed. Narrative analysis was used to analyze and interpret qualitative data, which were organized with the assistance of QSR NVivo 10, a software programme.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Competing family responsibilities and business matters (being a good mum and dutiful wife), culture and societal expectations, running a home-based business and building trust were found as main influences on female entrepreneurial networking behaviours. The majority revealed stressful times trying to combine the business with multiple roles and societal expectations.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>Applications of the model in female entrepreneurial networking behaviour are suggested, within and beyond the context of the small business tourism industry in Sri Lanka.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study enriches the understanding of social networks and social capital based on the experience of Sri Lankan female entrepreneurs, which is influenced by contextual factors of identity, gender and culture.</p>

<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Networking</li> <li>• Social constructionism</li> <li>• Narratives</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sri Lanka</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-5 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “Consistent with much research on female entrepreneurship, the highest numbers of studies of female business owners have focussed on the demographic background, psychological characteristics, motivations, management style and start-up activities (Brush, 1992; Brush and Cooper, 2012; Welter, 2004; Henry et al., 2015). In recent years, we have observed a shift in the research agenda from an early focus to an increasing emphasis on softer issues including work/family balance and nonfinancial resources such as personal networks, mentors and markets (Brush and Cooper, 2012; Marlow and McAdam, 2013)” (p. 16).</li> <li>•</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b> (indicate if none)	<b>Theory Name:</b> Social constructionist approach  <b>Brief Theory Summary</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “According to social constructionist approach, meanings and realities are shaped by social and cultural contexts through interaction with others and in combination with the norms and expectations that are experienced in everyday life (Gergen, 2009). This study focusses on female entrepreneurs’ networking relationships. These relationships do, however, not exist in a vacuum but maybe, more or less, part of wider societal structures. This social constructionist approach was thus particularly suitable to explore the influence of social networks on Sri Lankan female entrepreneurs. By examining what influences the networking behaviour of female entrepreneurs networking, the research offers insight into the underlying reasons of why women network the way they do” (p. 119).</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	“...networks can be defined as personal relationships between an entrepreneur and her “external actors” (Premaratne, 2001). The external actors can be individuals or organizations. Networking is an influential tool by which entrepreneurs use a wide variety of contacts to help them achieve their business objectives, and it gives them greater access to information, resources, new clients and people with similar business interests, etc. (Premaratne, 2001). In addition, these

relationships facilitate to reduce the firm's risk of failure and take new opportunities and learning (Klyver, 2011). Networking is important for women who generally have more limited access to information and business contacts through various memberships such as trade organizations, business networks and business clubs. While numerous studies revealed the benefits of networking, some studies indicated that there are drawbacks as well (Stephanie, 2010). Time is a constraint for many, especially female entrepreneurs (Stephanie, 2010). Cost is another important factor. For a new business just starting out, paying membership fees can be a negative element when looking at a potential network. Moreover, entrepreneurs have negative attitudes of "doing it alone," and an entrepreneur with this attitude might not see the value in fostering a network (Stephanie, 2010). Some researchers revealed that building relationships with their competitors can have a negative impact on the success of their business (Stephanie, 2010)" (p. 117).

"This study suggests that when examining the interrelationship between culture and entrepreneurial networks, more focus on cultural diversity is necessary. Therefore, theoretical contribution to emerge from the findings is the significance of contextual aspects of the networking behaviour and network development. Furthermore, this study also provides an indication of social institutions, such as caste, which constrains the social and business life of these women, limiting, in particular, their networking within wider society. Thus, this research develops an argument which extends the cultural context of entrepreneurial network theory, in that it shows how culture influences the network creation of female entrepreneurs. For example, this study focusses on how the identity and behaviour of female entrepreneurs in Sri Lanka are shaped by multiple structures, and how these women use particular strategies to resist existing forms of power, including the narrative of being a dutiful wife, while actually modifying expectations through their successful activities" (p. 129).

"This research explored how the entrepreneurial identity co-exists with other identities. However, identity is not a real-life phenomenon but a social construction (Hytti, 2005). In sharing their narrative accounts, these women formed a range of socially assessed labels for roles, such as business owner, a good mother and dutiful wife. According to Hytti (2005), to understand the meanings attached to entrepreneurs' stories, it is really important to analyze them in their contextual settings, meaning both the individually constructed personal setting and the general economic and social environment that gives the larger scenery for all enterprises. The research findings confirmed that female entrepreneurs' decisions are largely

	<p>shaped by the social and cultural constraints which surround them. In this setting, entrepreneurship is understood in two ways: first, entrepreneurship is understood not only as an economic activity but also as a social activity that shapes and is shaped by our society (Steyaert, 1997); and second, it is mainly about addressing problems as gender issues, and gender discrimination is taken place” (p. 129-130).</p>
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**Reference**

Mylonas, N., & Petridou, E. (2018). Venture performance factors in creative industries: a sample of female entrepreneurs. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 33(5), 385-404.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to investigate whether predicting factors of conventional ventures' performance are appropriate in interpreting the creative industries context. Moreover, this paper introduces a way to measure venture performance in creative industries.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A structured questionnaire was used to address this research objectives, based mainly on scales tested in previous studies. Data were collected from a sample of 371 female entrepreneurs of creative industries. A hierarchical linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the research hypotheses.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>In congruence with the hypotheses, the findings demonstrated that venture performance in creative industries can be predicted by factors that affect conventional venture performance. Creative personality and professional network ties are regarded according to the empirical analysis presented in this paper as the factors with the highest impact.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Data were pulled from female entrepreneurs in Greece, especially from the two biggest cities Athens and Thessaloniki. Consequently, it was precarious to fulfil the condition of generalizability. Additionally, a snowball sampling method was used, because of the absence of creative industries firms' directory in Greece.</p> <p>Originality/value</p>

	Based on authors' knowledge and review, no prior study has examined predictors' effect on creative industries venture performance.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• mentoring</li> <li>• creativity</li> <li>• networking</li> <li>• creative industries</li> <li>• entrepreneurial orientation</li> <li>• venture performance</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Greece</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-26 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Venture performance in creative industries can be predicted by factors that affect conventional venture performance.</li> <li>• Creative personality and professional network ties are the factors with the highest impact.</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial background positive related to the venture performance while a negative effect with artistic family background</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurs with children balancing work and family struggle to give attention to growing their venture (Cliff, 1998)</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) (Miller, 1987; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Boso et al., 2013)</li> <li>• Creative personality (Feist, 2000 &amp; 1998); DiLiello and Houghton, 2008)</li> <li>• Network: social network (Boso et al., 2013); professional tide (Bost et al., 2013; Yiu et al., 2007); Chen et al, 2015</li> <li>• Mentor: (Clutterbuck, 2004); Kickul et al., 2010</li> </ul> <p>Venture performance (Wiklund and shepherd, 2005); Chen et al., (2015)</p>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“Females manifest more positive attitudes toward sectors primarily based on creativity rather than innovation, where males are dominant (Buttner, 2001; Eikhof, 2012; Lau and Li, 1996; Petridou, 2009; Zhao et al., 2010)” (p.387).</p> <p>“A review of the literature reveals that entrepreneurial orientation (EO) affects positively venture performance (Hong et al., 2013; Lumpkin et al., 2010; Naldi et al., 2007; Smart and Conant, 2011; Stam and Elfring, 2008; Wiklund and Shepherd, 2005)” (p. 388).</p> <p>“Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is widely conceptualized through five dimensions. Three of them, innovativeness, risk-taking and proactiveness, defined in Miller’s (1987) conceptualization and other two, competitive aggressiveness and autonomy, have been added later by Lumpkin and Dess (1996)” (p. 388).</p>	



“Parkman et al. (2011) in their research showed that EO affects positively venture performance in creative industries through the mediating effect of innovation capacity, adopting the definition given by Hurley and Hult (1998, p. 44), that innovation capacity is “the ability of the organization to adopt or implement novel ideas, processes, or products successfully” (p. 389).

“Entrepreneurs with a creative personality are considered more flexible in absorbing information, recognizing opportunities and more open in exploiting new challenges (Selby et al., 2005; Shalley et al., 2009; Stobbeleir et al., 2011)” (p. 389).

“...typologies of networking in the literature. A known typology is that of social and professional or business network ties (Boso et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2015; Lau and Bruton, 2011). Social network ties are developed between an entrepreneur and local community leaders, as well as local social peers (Boso et al., 2013), while professional ties are developed with customers, suppliers and competitors within an industry (Boso et al., 2013; Yiu et al., 2007)” (p. 390).

“...learning and training through mentoring process augments the probability of business survival and growth (Deakins et al., 1998; St-Jean and Audet, 2009)” (p. 390).

“A mentor plays five roles during a typical mentoring process, namely, coaching, coordinating, supporting, monitoring and organizing (Clutterbuck, 2004)” (p. 390).

“Mentoring plays a crucial role, particularly for female entrepreneurs’ ventures by providing faster career advancement, expertise on the female entrepreneurial role model, the possibility to cope with the first problem of their startup within a safe and supportive relationship and the capacity to cooperate effectively in teams (Petridou, 2009; Schlosser, 2012)” (p. 391).

“...mentoring supports creators’ ventures by assisting their career building and providing a powerful environment to catalyze their development (Bridgstock, 2011; Gaunt et al., 2012; Eikhof and Warhurst, 2013)” (p. 391).

“...female entrepreneurs low mean of reliance on mentors: Two potential explanations of the limited reliance on mentors are the nature of creative people that feel autonomous and intend their self-expression (Caves, 2002) and that the culture of mentoring is not extensively incorporated in the Greek reality, despite the ancient Greek origin of the term (Apospori et al., 2006)” (p. 395).

“Both entrepreneurial and artistic family background statistical significantly impacts ventures performance (Mylonas & Petridou, 2018)” (p. 395).

**Reference**

Panda, S. (2018). Constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in developing countries: review and ranking. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 33(4), 315-331.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper aims to identify and ranks constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in developing countries. It offers a framework to differentiate between the constraints faced by male and female entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper engages in an exhaustive literature review and uses a qualitative methodology to categorize and rank entrepreneurial constraints.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in developing countries arise from gender discrimination, work-family conflict, difficulty in raising capital, lack of infrastructure, unstable business, economic and political (BEP) environments, lack of training and education and personality differences. The study suggests that in addition to financial constraints, unstable BEP environments need to be addressed as top priorities.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study offers a broad overview and ranking of the constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in developing countries. It brings together literature on women entrepreneurship from multiple countries and creates a condensed body of knowledge. This paper bridges the gap between entrepreneurship theory and practice and gives direction to policy makers in creating a conducive environment for the success of women entrepreneurs.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing countries</li> <li>• Challenges</li> <li>• Literature review</li> <li>• Women entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Microscopic factors</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Macroscopic factors</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing countries (90 countries)</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-27 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seven macro constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in developing countries arise from</li> <li>• 1. gender discrimination,</li> <li>• 2. work-family conflict, (see St-Arnaud and Giguere, 2018)</li> <li>• 3. Financial constraints difficulty in raising capital,</li> <li>• 4. lack of infrastructure,</li> <li>• 5. unfavourable business, economic and political (BEP) environments</li> <li>• 6. lack of training and education and ,</li> <li>• 7. personality differences - lack of female role models.</li> <li>• The study suggests that in addition to financial constraints, unstable BEP environments need to be addressed as top priorities.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Framework based on Panda and Dash (2014) model: ranking of constraints based on the criteria external barriers, internal barriers, necessary resources and enabling resources</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>Seven key constraints that affect women entrepreneurs in developing countries,</p> <p>Gender discrimination</p> <p>“Women are less likely to pursue entrepreneurship, as it goes against traditional (i.e. patriarchal) gender roles of mother and wife (Achtenhagen and Welter, 2003; Welter and Smallbone, 2003)” (p.317)</p> <p>Work-family conflict</p> <p>“Women entrepreneurs are stressed and often overtaxed between managing their business and family (Itani et al., 2011). Women are also pressured to fulfil their “womanly” responsibilities as primary caregivers of their children while still living up the patriarchal ideals of a what a “good wife” and homemaker ought to be by opting out of entrepreneurship altogether (Andersson et al., 2007; Brush et al., 2009)” (p.320)</p> <p>Financial constraints</p>	

“Information asymmetry, lack of credit history and inadequate collateral make it difficult for all entrepreneurs, and especially women entrepreneurs, to access loans (Panda, 2012; Sandhu et al., 2012; Thampy, 2010)” (p.320)

“Women entrepreneurs often face greater difficulty raising capital because of a weaker credit record resulting from inconsistent work histories, lower compensation and inadequate savings (Andersson et al., 2007; Carter et al., 2001)” (p.320)

“Women tend to start up with their own savings in service sectors that are cheaper and easier to establish (Carter et al., 2001; Carter and Kolvereid, 1998; Cosh and Hughes, 2000)” (p.321)

#### Lack of infrastructural support

“Limited networking opportunities and consulting services also hamper their firm’s performance (Robb and Coleman, 2010)” (p. 320)

“In terms of work-life balance, women feel guilty when they are unable to find appropriate child care, leading to further stress and tension (McClelland et al., 2005)” (p.321)

#### Unfavourable business, economic and political environments

“Complicated regulations, complex requirements to register businesses, bureaucracy, favouritism, bribery, unclear compliance procedures, high tax rates and unsupportive government policies and programmes are impediments to the development of women entrepreneurship” (Panda 2018, p. 321).

“Women find it hard to start up or gain employment because they are either too young, too old or not qualified enough. They are denied loans even when they have higher collateral compared to competing men (Singh and Belwal, 2008)” (p.321)

#### Lack of entrepreneurship training and education

“Women entrepreneurs face problems due to their lack of understanding of business practices, managing capital, keeping books, engaging in marketing and consumer-related activities and hiring and retaining talent. They lack formal business and entrepreneurship training and are constantly learning on the job” (Panda 2018, p. 321).

#### Personality-based constraints

“A lack of self-confidence and a surfeit of self-doubt also hinder their performance (Shelton, 2006)” (p. 322)

“...lack of female role models deprive women of inspiration in their industries (Yousuf Danish and Lawton Smith, 2012)” (p. 322)

“The nature and degree of gender-related discrimination also varies in the developing world. While women are free to go outside the household and work in African or Latin American countries, for example, women doing business in Islamic countries face many restrictions (Nichter and Goldmark, 2009)” (p.322).

“This phenomenon is termed “imposter syndrome”, where women consider themselves unworthy of their success and feel that their achievements are a fluke (Clance and Imes, 1978; Sanford et al., 2015)” (p.324).

**Reference**

St-Arnaud, L., & Giguère, É. (2018). Women entrepreneurs, individual and collective work–family interface strategies and emancipation. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 10(3), 198-223.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>This paper aims to examine the experience of women entrepreneurs and the challenges and issues they face in reconciling the work activities of the family sphere with those of the entrepreneurial sphere.</p> <p>This study is based on a materialist feminist perspective and a theory of living work that take into account the visible and invisible dimensions of the real work performed by women entrepreneurs. The methodology is based on a qualitative research design involving individual and group interviews conducted with 70 women entrepreneurs.</p> <p>The results show the various individual and collective strategies deployed by women entrepreneurs to reconcile the work activities of the family and entrepreneurial spheres.</p> <p>One of the major findings emerging from the results of this study relates to the re-appropriation of the world of work and organization of work by women entrepreneurs and its emancipatory potential for the division of labour. Through the authority and autonomy they possessed as business owners, and with their employees' cooperation, they integrated and internalized tasks related to the work activities of the family sphere into the organization of work itself. Thus, not only new forms of work organization and cooperation at work but also new ways of conceiving of entrepreneurship as serving women's life choices and emancipation could be seen to be emerging.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminist theory</li> <li>• Emancipation</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Work-family interface</li> <li>• Theory of living work</li> <li>• Visible and invisible work activities</li> <li>• The sexual division of labour</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• France and Canada</li> </ul>

<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-28 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• re-appropriation of the world of work and organization of work by women entrepreneurs and its emancipatory potential for the division of labour.</li> <li>• new forms of work organization and cooperation at work but also new ways of conceiving of entrepreneurship as serving women’s life choices and emancipation could be seen to be emerging. (freedom of choice, alternative version)</li> <li>• individual strategies for reconciling the work activities of the two spheres</li> <li>• collective strategies for internalizing the work activities of the family sphere into those of the entrepreneurial sphere</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Materialist feminism perspective (Delphy, 2001a, 2001b, 2003; Dunezat, 2016; Hirata and Kergoat, 2017) (in French)</li> </ul> <p>Living work Theory(psychodynamics of work) (Dejours, 2012, 2013; Molinier, 2004) (in French)</p>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Several have addressed the question from the viewpoint of the challenges and issues involved in reconciling work and family life, including the conflicts and types of relations created between the work and family spheres (Lee-Gosselin et al., 2010; Parasuraman and Simmers, 2001; Stoner et al., 1990; Tremblay et al., 2006)” (p.200).</p> <p>“...some scholars have shown that women entrepreneurs can reduce their role in the family sphere by choosing not to have children (Kirkwood and Tootell, 2008; Shelton, 2006; Winn, 2004), to postpone having children (Kirkwood and Tootell, 2008; Shelton, 2006; Winn, 2004) or to reduce the size of their family (Shelton, 2006)” (p.200).</p> <p>“Some women try to control their activities by setting clear boundaries between the time allocated to work and that allocated to family (Lee-Gosselin et al., 2010; Tremblay et al., 2006), thereby maintaining a form of separation between the two spheres” (p. 200).</p> <p>“Hurley (1999) also underscored the reluctance among entrepreneurship scholars to engage in one of the feminist theoretical perspectives” (p. 201).</p> <p>“Women see themselves as leaders in all spheres of life. Business leader, head of the family, taking care of children, the meals, the husband, the housework, and also, their business. It’s a lot. It’s hard to separate all that. Maybe there are some women who can. Sure, they may be able to separate them. But anyway, that’s not my case. — Julie, communications” (St-Arnaud &amp; Giguère 2018, p. 207).</p> <p>“The business project was an integral part of the family project, not the other way round; the business grew alongside the children. Working time and patterns were also adapted to</p>	

the family project. In fact, the women entrepreneurs continuously adjusted their work schedules to the needs of the family sphere” (St-Arnaud & Giguère 2018, p. 208).

“While they had nothing against substantial sales revenues, they nevertheless found it unfortunate that the importance they gave to successfully achieving work–family balance or reconciliation was not valued. This was a significant gain reported by the women (sometimes even the most significant gain) that allowed them to fully appreciate the freedom afforded them by being entrepreneurs and having control over the organization of work” (St-Arnaud & Giguère 2018, p. 210).

“Despite some progress made in terms of task sharing, compared to men, women still assume greater responsibility for domestic and care tasks (Méda, 2010; Nicole-Drancourt, 1989), and these differences appear to persist in the case of the entrepreneurs under study” (p. 211).

[Consistent results on] “women’s entrepreneurship revealing the strategies adopted to reconcile the work activities of the family and entrepreneurial spheres, Women entrepreneurs 211 where women make the necessary arrangements to reconcile these spheres in terms of work time, and the places and patterns of work (Bourgain and Chaudat, 2015; Díaz-García and Brush, 2012; Kirkwood and Tootell, 2008; Lewis et al., 2015; Loscocco, 1997)” (p. 211).

“...our study results show that women entrepreneurs pay the economic cost in terms of opportunities to develop their business, which tends to grow at the same pace as the children. In other words, economically, their business grows at the same pace as the social and human development of their children and family, as the pace is adjusted to this growth” (St-Arnaud & Giguère 2018, p. 212).

“...the work activities of the family sphere nevertheless did not disappear, even though some activities were delegated, the women remained generally responsible for them and had to coordinate the work to be done. This outsourcing appeared to shift the power relationships to other women, ... This shifting of reproduction appears to simply maintain the feminist standpoint within individualistic feminism without effecting real social change” (St-Arnaud & Giguère 2018, p. 212).

“...new desire among young people for a world of work that takes into account the numerous facets of their lives in accordance with a polycentric conception of existence, that is, a conception of life and values organized around several activity spheres wherein many projects can be conducted at the same time (Mercure and Vultur, 2010; Vendramin et al., 2008). Young people appear to seek to construct a plural identity that is no longer shaped by a division of labour, but effectively by a life at work that integrates all the facets of their life projects” (St-Arnaud & Giguère 2018, p. 214).

“The contribution of this study lies in the potential emancipation of women entrepreneurs, who have the autonomy and authority to reconcile and integrate the work activities of the family and entrepreneurial spheres within the collective dynamics and social relations of work. Thus, it is not so much a question of doing things differently, as raised by some feminist perspectives of difference, but rather of acting freely. (St-Arnaud & Giguère 2018, p. 215)”.



“The mode of organization developed by these women entrepreneurs fits into an “alternative vision” (Alvesson and Billing, 2009) which encourages women to turn to entrepreneurship and create businesses in their own image rather than seeking to integrate into existing ones” (p.215).

**Reference**

Xu, H.(B), Zhan, H.J., James, C.E.-E., Fannin, L.D., & Yin, Y. (2018). Double bind in loan access in China: the reification of gender differences in business loans. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 10(3), 182-197.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper aims to examine gender differences in credit access and credit default.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Using panel data drawn from 917 valid credit borrowers covering the period 2012 to 2015 drawn from among 6,849 study subjects and a national household financial survey (n = 29,500) conducted in China, this study focuses on gender differences in small and micro entrepreneurs’ financial behavior, specifically with respect to credit access and credit default.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The study revealed the following: Women expressed having more barriers to obtaining a business loan than men; gender had a significant effect on women’ credit default; and women were less likely to default a loan than male loan borrowers did. An exploration of the reasons for credit access and default found that female loan applicants were more likely to display a lack of knowledge and confidence in loan application.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The study contributes to literature by using the Marxian concept of reification in explaining women and their financial behaviours in China.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• China</li> <li>• Double bind</li> <li>• Gender differences</li> <li>• Credit access - whether the borrower got the loan needed</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• China</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-29 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women expressed having more barriers to obtaining a business loan than men</li> <li>• Gender had a significant effect on women’ credit default</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women were less likely to default a loan than male loan borrowers did.</li> <li>• Female loan applicants were more likely to display a lack of knowledge and confidence in the loan application.</li> <li>• Empirical data show</li> <li>• 1. the lower confidence in women the lower credit access - self-fulfilling prophecy of gender inferiority of women in the Chinese business world.</li> <li>• 2. Feminists argue stereotype of women means less confidence in laon application, let loan provider with more negative reasons to reject the loan.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Three strands of feminist theories-</li> <li>• social feminist</li> <li>• liberal feminist</li> <li>• neo-Marxist feminist</li> </ul> <p>3a. symbolic interactionist approach</p>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“In business, women often face the dilemma of fitting into entrepreneurs’ masculine identity while asserting women’s existential authenticity (Lewis, 2013; Lewis, 2009)” (p.183).</p> <p>“Social feminism not only appears to acknowledge gender differences in socialization but also places a measure of the blame on women for entering traditionally non-feminine fields and receiving limited funding” (p.183).</p> <p>“Gender-role investment theory, for example, examines male and female roles in families (Orser et al., 2006). Women are more likely to engage in household work, while men do so in the paid workforce” (p. 183).</p> <p>“...women are socialized to enter feminine industries where they are less likely to seek more funds. When they do seek funding, their fund sizes are smaller than those of men are (Coleman and Robb, 2010)” (p.183).</p> <p>“[Women] face unequal treatment at the hands of lenders or other business organizations because they are less likely as compared to men to have had the necessary education (Hisrich and Brush, 1983; Watkins and Watkins, 1983). They are also less likely to have relevant business experience (Belcourt et al., 1991; Stevenson, 1986)” (p.183).</p> <p>“While gender discrimination does continue to exist in most capitalist societies, recent studies from Canada [e.g. Orser et al., 2006], and the USA[e.g. Buttner and Rosen, 1989] and UK [e.g. Wilson et al., 2007]have displayed little gender bias in loan officers’ treatment of women and loan decision-making” (p.184).</p>	

“Classic Marxist feminist believed that ultimately, women’s liberation could not be achieved simply through piece-meal reforms; it has to be accomplished by overthrowing the patriarchal system” (p. 184).

“Married women are sometimes discriminated against in the credit market, with the assumption that women with families might not prioritize their business in the same way as men (Agier and Szafarz, 2013; Li et al., 2013). Spousal influence on women may enhance credit inaccessibility for women (Bellucci et al., 2010; Akpalu et al., 2012; Kabeeer, 2001), while this negative influence is not found among men” (p.185).

“As the credit market has always been a male-dominated sphere, men are far more likely to have had credit experiences and, therefore, better knowledge of it. Limited knowledge and experience may have led to women’s fear and caution in the credit application process (Agier and Szafarz, 2013; Akpalu et al., 2012)” (p. 185).

“...researchers found that women were less likely to default on a loan than men were (Adanu and Boateng, 2015). ... Some scholars suggest that the gender effect arises from women’s increased sense of responsibility toward their families (Aggarwal et al., 2015; Boehe and Cruz, 2013)” (p.185).

“Women in some Asian countries could be pressured by their husbands to undertake riskier investments than they otherwise would, resulting in an Double bind in loan access in China increased likelihood of credit default (Kassim and Rahman, 2009; Mayoux, 2001; Hashemi et al., 1996). The findings suggest spouse influence also plays a role in women’s credit default” (p. 185-6).

“Being a male dominated field, the banking industry in China has been particularly restrictive to women in China. For example, Li et al. found that women are frequently required to have their husbands cosign any application to even receive a loan (Li et al., 2013)” (p. 186).

“...the Chinese women studied expressed greater levels of difficulty in obtaining the amount of loans needed for their businesses. This finding is consistent with various earlier studies on issues related to gender and credit access (Akpalu et al., 2012; Asiedu et al., 2013)” (p. 190).

“Women entrepreneurs in China reported that more credit barriers gave them lower levels of confidence during the credit application process. This lack of confidence, in turn, decreases their chances of securing loans. ... This refers to the “act of transforming human actions”, in this case, perceptions of gender discrimination, “into properties, relations and actions of man-produced things”, i.e. actions of discrimination, “which have become independent of women and govern his/her life”, that is the self-fulfilling prophecy of gender inferiority of women in the Chinese business world” (p. 191).

**Reference**

Langevang, T., Hansen, M.W., & Rutashobya, L.K. (2018). Navigating institutional complexities: The response strategies of Tanzanian female entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 10(3), 224-242.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to examine how female entrepreneurs navigate complex and challenging institutional environments. It draws on institutional theory and the concept of response strategies to institutional pressures to explore the institutional barriers that female entrepreneurs encounter and highlights the strategies women employ to overcome them.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This paper builds on a case study of female entrepreneurs engaged in food processing in Tanzania. It draws on semi-structured interviews with nine female entrepreneurs, one focus group discussion with six female entrepreneurs and two semi-structured interviews with representatives from women’s business associations (WBAs).</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>This paper reveals a repertoire of active strategies enacted by women entrepreneurs, including advocacy through WBAs, bootstrapping, semi-informal operations, co-location of home and business, spouse involvement in the business, downplay of gender identity, reliance on persistence and passion and networking through WBAs. While these strategies involve various degrees of agency, the findings indicate that collective efforts through WBAs offer women the most promise in terms of influencing institutional structures.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>While there is a growing body of literature examining how institutions influence female entrepreneurs, there is a dearth of knowledge on how women experience institutional complexities and actively react to institutional barriers, complexities and contradictions.</p>

	This paper shows the value of analytical attention to female entrepreneurs' agency by highlighting women's active responses and documenting a repertoire of strategies.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tanzania</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship (agency)</li> <li>• Institutional theory</li> <li>• Developing countries</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tanzania</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-30 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Active strategies enacted by women entrepreneurs, including</li> <li>• 1. advocacy through WBAs,</li> <li>• 2. bootstrapping,</li> <li>• 3. semi-informal operations,</li> <li>• 4. co-location of home and business,</li> <li>• 5. spouse involvement in the business,</li> <li>• 6. downplay of gender identity,</li> <li>• 7. reliance on persistence and passion and</li> <li>• 8. networking through WBAs.</li> <li>• Findings indicate that collective efforts through WBAs offer women the most promise in terms of influencing institutional structures.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p>• <b>Theory Name:</b></p> <p>Institutional theory (North, 1990; Scott,1995) and response strategy Oliver (1991)</p> <p><b>Concept used:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• focuses on both the formal regulatory and informal normative and cultural-cognitive measures of institutions</li> <li>• Peng (2000) three strategies entrepreneurs enact in transition economies to respond to institutional complexities: “prospecting”, “networking” and “boundary blurring”;</li> <li>• Welter and Smallbone (2011) added “diversification” and “financial bootstrapping” to this list.</li> <li>• Hansen et al. (2018) disclose value chain integration, diversification and network strategies as key strategic responses by firms to address institutional barriers in Tanzania.</li> <li>• Oliver (1991) proposed the following five categories of strategic responses that organizations can enact in response to institutional pressures: acquiescence, compromise, avoidance, defiance and manipulation. (p.227)</li> </ul>

### **Key citations from the article**

“Female entrepreneurs in developing regions are currently hailed as “rising stars of the economies” and an “untapped source of economic growth” (Vossenber, 2013)” (p.224).

“Female entrepreneurship is especially promoted in Sub-Saharan Africa, where female entrepreneurs are increasingly identified as “drivers of African prosperity” (Rutashobya and Spring, 2014)” (p.224).

“...women in Africa face a number of gender-related barriers to sustain, grow and formalize their business, stemming from institutional settings (Amine and Staub, 2009; Langevang et al., 2015; Rutashobya et al., 2009)” (p.224-5).

“...recent attention on examining the impact of institutions on female entrepreneurship (Ahl, 2006; Ahl and Nelson, 2010; Amine and Staub, 2009; Langevang et al., 2015; Welter and Smallbone, 2010)” (p.225).

“...capital is one of the most frequently cited barriers to business entry and growth for female entrepreneurs in developing countries (Amine and Staub, 2009; Naser et al., 2009)” (p.231).

“The process of starting a business in Africa is known to be notoriously cumbersome, time-consuming and costly (Amine and Staub, 2009); the situation is similar in Tanzania, and these difficulties represent a key factor behind the decision of many businesses to remain informal” (p. 232).

“...the respect and moral support that the current generation of female entrepreneurs receives is contingent upon them being able to handle their responsibilities as mothers and wives concomitantly with their business activities (p.233) ... Existing studies on female entrepreneurship have described the difficulties that women experience in handling the role complexity that comes with simultaneously being the navigating institutional complexities, primary homemakers and a business owner (Smith et al., 2011)” (p. 233-4).

“As other studies in developed (Ekinsmyth, 2013) and developing countries (Gough et al., 2003; Bianco et al., 2017) have also found, operating home-based enterprises allows women to combine their reproductive and productive roles. It reduces the time spent on transport and allows the women to take care of children and attend to domestic chores alongside their business” (p. 234).

“Food processing thus appears as a relatively safe territory for women to venture into, as they do not defy or manipulate deeply ingrained stereotypical gender roles and expectations” (p. 234).

“...to engage their husband in the business as a business partner. ... This collaboration ensured the moral (and in some cases financial) support of the husbands and lessened some of the normative obstacles of being a sole female business owner. ... Godwin et al. (2006) proposition that one strategy for female entrepreneurs to avoid some of the stereotypes and discrimination that they face is to proactively partner with a male. A male presence is important, as it helps create accepted social connections and acquire social legitimacy in business transactions” (p. 235).

“While there are many women-owned micro-enterprises in Tanzania, tellingly, the women participating in the FGD had difficulties naming any local “successful female entrepreneurs” and complained that they lack role models who could mentor and inspire them. According to Lafuente et al. (2007), the presence of entrepreneurial role models strongly influences the cognitive representation of economic agents. A positive example of successful entrepreneurship can lead to an increase in the probability that other individuals also become entrepreneurs because “the internal reaction of an individual influenced by a role model is that ‘if she/he can, why can’t I?’” (Lafuente et al., 2007, p. 782)” (p. 236).

“The findings regarding female entrepreneurs’ experience of the institutional environment point to a high degree of institutional uncertainty, discrepancy and conflict between different aspects and domains of the institutions” (p. 237).

“...membership in WBAs can be a key conduit for business information, services and mentorship. Many of the training activities available to female entrepreneurs in Tanzania are offered through WBAs, and the associations arrange networking meetings with the aim of exchanging knowledge and experiences. Similar to the findings of McDade and Spring (2005) members of the WBAs highlighted that they appreciate sharing experiences with other women through the network and they expressed that they actively used their membership in the associations to gain access to training programs and other services” (p. 236).



**Reference**

Kim, G. (2018). Entrepreneurial financing relationships: how does gender matter?, *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 10(1), 39-60.

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p><b>Purpose</b></p> <p>Financing is cited as the major obstacle for entrepreneurs. However, data limitations have prevented study of entrepreneurs’ own impact on their financing relationships. Gender-based studies have concerned lender constraints and discriminatory outcomes. Others which are generally examined are borrowers’ fear of denial and non-pursuit of credit. To more fully explain the financing obstacle, the purpose of this study is to uniquely examine entrepreneurial borrowers’ evaluation of and actions in their existing financing relationship. This study also captures those businesses with equal ownership gender concentration, to contribute to a deeper understanding of gender impact.</p> <p><b>Design/methodology/approach</b></p> <p>This study uses a cross-sectional sample of several thousand US small enterprises from the NFIB’s proprietary credit survey. The data set offers links between owners’ perceptions and financing behavior. Robust univariate analysis examines differences across gender ownership groups. Multivariate regression analyzes how gender, business environment and other factors determine the entrepreneurs’ financing relationships.</p> <p><b>Findings</b></p> <p>This study highlights how entrepreneurs affect their own financing outcomes. Findings suggest that switching lenders, seeking multiple relationships and other actions determine financing satisfaction. Growth intent, business performance and characteristics of the entrepreneur are among significant posited factors influencing perception and behavior of entrepreneurs in their financing relationships that drive business performance. Furthermore, equal ownership concentration firms appear to be similar to those primarily owned by men. This study indicates that researchers need to further</p>

	<p>delineate among entrepreneurs. The results of this study also have implications for policy-makers in their assessment of gender discrimination and government entrepreneurial financing initiatives.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Financing is cited as the major obstacle for entrepreneurs. However, data limitations have prevented study of entrepreneurs' own impact on their financing relationships. Gender-based studies have concerned lender constraints and discriminatory outcomes. Others which are generally examined are borrowers' fear of denial and non-pursuit of credit. To more fully explain the financing obstacle, this study uniquely examines entrepreneurial borrowers' evaluation of and actions in their existing financing relationship. This study also captures those businesses with equal ownership gender concentration, to contribute to a deeper understanding of gender impact.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Switching</li> <li>• Relationship lending</li> <li>• SME finance</li> <li>• Bank credit</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USA</li> </ul>	
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-31 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This study highlights how entrepreneurs affect their own financing outcomes.</li> <li>• Findings suggest that switching lenders, seeking multiple relationships and other actions determine financing satisfaction.</li> <li>• Growth intent business performance and characteristics of the entrepreneur are among significant posited factors influencing the perception and behavior of entrepreneurs in their financing relationships that drive business performance.</li> <li>• Equal ownership concentration firms appear to be similar to those primarily owned by men.</li> <li>• This study indicates that researchers need to further delineate among entrepreneurs.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enterprise's growth-cycle stages of financing (Boot and Thakor 2000).</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p>	

“Female-owned small enterprises have greatest concerns about credit availability, processing speed, service charges and manager stability. Indeed manager continuity has been found to reduce bank switching (Saparito et al., 2004). Collectively, these concerns indicate that FE may be experiencing more difficulty than male-owned small enterprises and equally owned small enterprises in obtaining credit” (p. 48).

“FE have greatest concerns about credit availability, processing speed, service charges and manager stability” (p. 48).

“...the female-owned enterprises generally are more concerned about credit availability and have greater financing relationships concerns about banking services, findings similar to Binks and Ennew (1997a) for small enterprises overall” (p. 55-56).

“...female-owned enterprises have heterogeneous attitudes about bank relationships, but their ability to switch, as determined by credit risk, is rather similar” (p.56).

**Reference**

Roomi, M.A., Rehman, S., & Henry, C. (2018). Exploring the normative context for women’s entrepreneurship in Pakistan: a critical analysis. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 10(2), 158-180.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The role of women in Pakistani society – largely embedded in its patriarchal socio-cultural environment – has important implications for women’s entrepreneurial activity in the country. This study aims to investigate and analyse the influence of informal institutional factors on women’s entry into entrepreneurship in Pakistan, and determine how women exercise agency to cope with the constraints posed by such factors.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A qualitative approach is used to explore the normative context and lived experiences of women entrepreneurs in relation to the influence of socio-cultural beliefs and attitudes on their entrepreneurial career choices.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings suggest that women’s entrepreneurial career choices both revolve around and are shaped by a complex interplay of socio-cultural influences. Pakistani women entrepreneurs exercise their agency as a means of negotiating gender roles within both household and society, using religious descriptions as a means to justify their entrepreneurial activity.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>While every effort has been made to ensure that the data were objectively interpreted, and the derived findings were robustly analysed, the research team acknowledges the many difficulties associated with adopting a social constructionist approach. As articulated by Fletcher (2011), the key issues of contextual objectivity (i.e. where the researcher judges what is important), reflexive turn (the need for</p>

	<p>the researcher to constantly reconnect with the subject) and potential multiplicity of contexts (the various contextual and potentially conflicting influences on the researcher) presents ongoing challenges for researchers in this field.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study offers valuable insights into the impact of the informal (socio-cultural) institutional factors on women's entrepreneurial activity, opening up new avenues for further research. The study also contributes to the women's entrepreneurship literature from the perspective of an Islamic developing country.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pakistan</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Islam</li> <li>• Institutional theory</li> <li>• Institutional factors</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pakistan</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-32 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women's entrepreneurial career choices both revolve around and are shaped by a complex interplay of socio-cultural (informal institutional factors) influences.</li> <li>• Pakistani women entrepreneurs exercise their agency as a means of negotiating gender roles within both household and society, using religious descriptions as a means to justify their entrepreneurial activity.</li> <li>• Izzat and Purdah - culture-specific in Pakistan affect greatly to women</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Institutional theory</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“The role and status of women in Pakistan’s traditional and patriarchal society has been the subject of controversy and has attracted the attention of several scholars and international agencies. It is important to note that the society is diverse and holds contradictory views with no consensus as to the definition of women’s rights (Roomi and Harrison, 2010)” (p.159).</p> <p>“Some feminist scholars now advocate the use of socio-cultural/institutional approaches as more appropriate analytical frameworks to studying women’s entrepreneurship in particular contexts (Aidis, 2005; Jamali, 2009; North, 1990; North et al., 2001; Roomi, 2013; Urbano, 2006; Welter, 2005)” (p. 159).</p>	

“...entrepreneurship is an inherently gendered phenomenon, explaining gender as a social construction of sex through which particular (masculine) characteristics are ascribed to men and particular (feminine) characteristics are ascribed to women (Ahl, 2004; Oakley, 1973)” (p.160).

“...noted by Marlow and Patton (2005, p. 709), associating stereotypical behaviours with either the masculine or the feminine often serves to privilege the former over the latter, thus supporting a hierarchical valuation of traits and characteristics” (p.160).

“...deeply rooted, societal discrimination will influence the choices and career progression of women throughout their lives. Indeed, women’s choice of career path may well be established early on in their lives, with young girls often deliberately steered towards courses of study that are deemed to be more feminine, less achievement-oriented than that of their male counterparts and more in keeping with perceived traditional roles of women (Weinraub and Brown, 1983)” (p.160).

“...little is known about the nature of women’s entrepreneurship in developing countries (Jamali, 2009; Tambunan, 2009). (p.161). ... called for more work focusing on women entrepreneurs in non-Western contexts (Blackburn and Kovalainen, 2009; De Bruin et al., 2007a; Henry et al., 2016) that consider contextual, socio-cultural factors to advance knowledge and deepen understanding of the socially constructed phenomenon of women’s entrepreneurship (Ahl, 2006; Brush et al., 2009)” (p.161).

“...women entrepreneurs generally are offered less favourable credit conditions in comparison to their male counterparts (Harding, 2004; Marlow and Patton, 2005), and tend to be excluded (either directly or indirectly) from both formal and informal networks (Carter, 2000). As a result, women tend to spend less time networking, which impacts on their access to sources of finance and valuable business contacts (Roper and Scott, 2009). ... negatively affect women’s social capital (De Bruin et al., 2007a) and impede the entrepreneurial opportunities available to them” (p. 163).

“Inadequate knowledge and experience of business have been cited as key constraining factors for women entrepreneurs (Brush and VanderWerf, 1992; Brush et al., 2001; Buttner and Moore, 1997; Carter et al., 2001)” (p.163).

“Shabbir and Di-Gregorio (1996) found that women who did start their own business limited their financial risk to their own funds because they were afraid of failure, which, in turn, could cause them social embarrassment” (p.163).

“Anna et al. (2000) and Loscocco et al. (1991) noted that the majority of business start-ups by women are in sectors traditionally associated with high levels of female employment, with women less likely to start a business in non-traditional/male dominated” sectors” (p.163).

“...drawing on institutional theory, have argued that women’s career choices are largely shaped by society’s expectations of the roles they should play, perceiving them primarily as wives, mothers and carers (Rehman and Roomi, 2011)” (p.163).

“Brush et al. (2009) ... support to the view that women perceive entrepreneurship as a part of rather than apart from their family activities. ... when women decide on

entrepreneurship as a career option, they do not make their decision in isolation; rather, they need to consider how such decisions impact their family. ... the very constraints imposed by family and related caring responsibilities can act as an extrinsic “pull factor” towards entrepreneurship as women seek flexibility and control through the pursuit of opportunities that allow them to work for themselves (Carter, 2000; Winn, 2005). ... entrepreneurship does not always provide such flexibility (Jennings and Brush, 2013), often placing additional pressures on women as they struggle to achieve work–family balance and fulfil the role society expects of them” (p.163-4).

“...societal beliefs and norms about gender roles not only have a negative impact on the success of women’s business ventures but also steal many entrepreneurial opportunities from them (author, p. 164) ... For example, Aidis (2005) found that in the Ukraine informal the institutional influences of marriage and family, perceived as women’s social goals and the discrimination of women in the labour market, also had negative influences on the success and growth of women’s businesses” (p. 164).

“...[the research result shows] quite a few women have either continued the family business or identified business opportunities in partnership with their husbands. Not only did these women appear to find this easy and exciting, they also felt that working in partnership with their husbands greatly helped them reconcile their duties in relation to both work and family (Jennings and McDougal, 2007). It would appear that such partnership arrangements also allow women to negotiate through the negative cultural perceptions of female business ownership in Pakistan” (p.166).

“...half of the women in our study used their personal savings to finance their businesses, while others relied on friends, family or investments from their husbands. Some of the women entrepreneurs who came from privileged family backgrounds invested the money they received from inheritances” (p. 167).

“Jennings and McDougal (2007), and De Bruin et al. (2007a), amongst others, family environment is also likely to influence the entrepreneurial intentions of women” (p.168).

“Such orthodox societal and cultural beliefs and expectations significantly disadvantage women, again creating additional barriers for them to negotiate” (p.169).

“Pakistani society has several established orthodox beliefs, tribal customs and cultural practices in the name of religious (i.e. Islamic) teachings towards working women, which are contrary to actual Islamic teachings. Many scholars have explained that it is not Islam but the prevailing social practices, tribal traditions and cultural beliefs embedded in Pakistani society, which restrict women from working outside (Ahmad, 1992; Roomi and Harrison, 2010)” (p. 171).

“...religious beliefs, most of the women did not borrow money from the banks, as this is associated with the interest system, which is contrary to Islamic practice. As a consequence, the largest group of women relied on investments from their personal savings” (p. 171).

“...enlisting the help of a man to ensure better prices from suppliers, using their extended family within the joint family system as a supporting rather than a constraining mechanism, drawing inspiration from an entrepreneurial parent and viewing their dual

family/business role as an opportunity to develop better managerial skills than their male counterparts, thus negotiating their way through the various cultural and institutional barriers imposed upon them (Fletcher, 2011; Jamali, 2009)” (p. 172).

“...the role model effect from early childhood (Arenius and Minniti, 2004; Dhaliwal, 2000) contributes a great deal towards business opportunity recognition and the desire to run a business” (p.173).

“...gender bias, as reinforced by societal expectations, Izzat and Purdah traditions and the joint family system is still perceived to be a barrier for many women entrepreneurs in Pakistan, which is consistent with the findings in many other developed and developing countries (Bird and Brush, 2002; Jamali, 2009; Marlow and Patton, 2005; Tambunan, 2009; Rehman and Roomi, 2011)” (p.173).

... a “feeling of guilt”, which essentially constructs a mental and emotional barrier to pursuing an entrepreneurial career, despite high levels of personal determination” (p. 173).



**Reference**

Outsios, G., & Farooqi, S.A. (2017). Gender in sustainable entrepreneurship: evidence from the UK. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 32(3), 183-202.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Existing research highlights gender as an important dimension for entrepreneurship theory and practice. This study aims to explore the differences between female and male sustainable entrepreneurs in the areas of previous professional experiences, their performance and growth, their use of financial resources and their overall attitude to risk.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Through a feminist perspective and on the basis of empirical evidence gathered through a series of 20 in-depth, semi-structured interviews with male and female sustainable entrepreneurs in the UK, the authors analyse differences between male and female sustainable entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings suggest that female role models play a significant role in the emergence of women sustainable entrepreneurs who start from the same experience levels as men, show strong feminist attitudes and are conscious of their contribution to global sustainability. Sustainable entrepreneurship offers women professional development and a limited flexibility to balance work and family commitments. Lack of funding appears to be a major constraint applying to both female and male participants, while the authors argue that business pragmatism in a difficult investment environment triggered women's reluctance to take on debt. Nonetheless, female sustainable entrepreneurs were found to have developed and used their professional and social networks to a greater extent than their male counterparts.</p> <p>Originality/value</p>

	This study offers a new gender perspective to the research of sustainable entrepreneurship and, at the same time, contributes with findings from research on sustainable entrepreneurs to the study of gender in management.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Performance and growth</li> <li>• Social networks</li> <li>• Role models</li> <li>• Backgrounds</li> <li>• Financial resources</li> <li>• Gender differences in sustainable entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-33 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Female role models play a significant role in the emergence of women sustainable entrepreneurs who start from the same experience levels as men,</li> <li>• Show strong feminist attitudes and</li> <li>• Conscious of their contribution to global sustainability.</li> <li>• Sustainable entrepreneurship offers women professional development and a limited flexibility to balance work and family commitments.</li> <li>• Lack of funding appears to be a major constraint applying to both female and male participants,</li> <li>• Business pragmatism in a difficult investment environment triggered women’s reluctance to take on debt.</li> <li>• Female sustainable entrepreneurs were found to have developed and used their professional and social networks to a greater extent than their male counterparts.</li> <li>• Female empowerment in sustainable enterprises founded by female entrepreneurs, aimed specifically at female consumers.(p. 197)</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social constructionist feminist perspective</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“Dean and McMullen’s (2007, p. 58) paradigm, who define sustainable entrepreneurship as “the process of discovering, evaluating, and exploiting economic opportunities that are present in market failures which detract from sustainability, including those that are environmentally relevant” (p.184).</p>	

“Gender differences in motivation, preferences and expectations explain the low engagement of women in entrepreneurship (Fielden et al., 2003; Sarri and Trihopoulou, 2005)” (p.185).

“Carter et al. (2007) found no substantial evidence to support the notion of discrimination by UK bank officers against female entrepreneurs” (p.186).

“The European Commission Observatory of SMEs (2003) concluded that the lack of bank loans for female entrepreneurs is due to women’s tendency to ask for lower sums, which leaves a smaller profit margin for the banks” (p. 186).

“Expectations, initial motives, opportunities sought and business types show gender-related variations, and these influence the type of the enterprise” (p. 186).

“Evidence on entrepreneurial finance suggests that women face challenges in accessing finance and have a propensity to establish their enterprise in low-growth sectors (Coleman, 2000)” (p. 186).

“...risk as one of the factors which poses a challenge to female entrepreneurs, who were found to be more risk averse than their males counterparts (Sexton, 1989a; Chung, 1998; Slovic, 2000; Jianakopoulos and Bernasek, 1998). ... reported by Sexton and Bowman-Upton (1990, p. 34), who reflect that female entrepreneurs are “less willing to get involved in situations with uncertain outcomes where financial gain is involved” (p. 186).

“Cumulatively, gender socialisation, prior experiences, cognitive cues and a bias portraying women as “risk averse” position women as a structurally disadvantaged group, lacking in masculine traits, reflected in the normative male entrepreneurial model (Marlow and Swail, 2014)” (p. 186).

“Braun (2010) approached business sustainability from a gender perspective and analysed the difference in attitudes and behaviour in the Australian context. The study concluded that the greening process of ventures run by women is driven by broader ethical concerns regarding sustainability to a higher degree compared to their male counterparts” (p. 187)

“Female sustainable entrepreneurs in our [Outsios & Farooqi, 2017] study are suitably experienced in vocational business skills and affluent in professional experiences” (p. 189)

... the role of previous professional experiences remains highly significant in their development, especially for female entrepreneurs and the effect on their self-confidence and self-efficacy (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994)” (p. 189).

“Sustainable entrepreneurship appears to be a means for female (entrepreneurs and consumers) empowerment. Additionally, female entrepreneurs appeared to have been motivated towards entrepreneurship and sustainability by female role models” (p. 195).

“...factors identified by Rosa (1988), who highlighted limitations among UK entrepreneurs in business skills such as marketing, enterprising, raising capital for growth and human resource, are still relevant” (p. 195).

“[The UK] female respondents’ reluctance to take on debt has not been triggered by a deeper psychological gendered trait, but by business pragmatism in a difficult investment environment” (p. 196).

## Reference

Perez-Quintana, A., Hormiga, E., Martori, J.C., & Madariaga, R. (2017). The influence of sex and gender-role orientation in the decision to become an entrepreneur. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 9(1), 8-30.

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to explore the relationship between sex, gender-role orientation (GRO) and the decision to become an entrepreneur. Because of the fact that gender stereotypes have influences on the preferences and choices of individuals in their career, this research proposes the following objectives: to determine the existence of gender stereotypes that have an influence on human behaviour and specially in this research context; to measure the GRO of each individual; and, finally, to analyze the relationship between the entrepreneurial intention, the sex and the GRO of participants.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Based on a questionnaire, this study follows the Bem Sex-Role Inventory methodology to perform an analysis by means of the multiple regression model. This study uses two different samples of 760 students who attend business administration and management undergraduate programs.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The outcomes show that GRO is a better predictor of the decision to become an entrepreneur than biological sex. Moreover, the results for the whole sample confirm the relationship between masculine and androgynous GRO with entrepreneurial intention, whereas there is also evidence of feminine GRO when we consider only women.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>In line with previous studies that link GRO and entrepreneurship, in this paper, the authors have analyzed business administration students' view to draw conclusions. The next step is to apply the gender perspective to advance in the analysis of the features</p>

	<p>that characterize business managers. Likewise, it is interesting to continue the study of gender social construction in entrepreneurship focusing on the discourse used by entrepreneurs or in the media.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The conclusions of this study are relevant for educators and trainers of future entrepreneurs. The entrepreneurial archetype evolves from masculinity to androgyny. This may help women entrepreneurial intentions. Emphasizing androgynous traits is a way to disable male stereotype domination and threat. This possibility is open, not only for educators who have the ability to improve this perception but also for media, advertising companies and women to push and value female entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>The implicit dynamism in GROs leads to the possibility of changes in workplace views and especially in entrepreneurship as a career option. In this way, it is possible that the general belief that the company owners are men may change. Improving women entrepreneurs' social visibility, which acts as "role models" may increase female entrepreneur intention. Moreover, emphasis on the androgynous entrepreneur traits in forums at different levels of education, in entrepreneur training activities, will certainly increase the women entrepreneur intention if they perceive they have positively valued traits for entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Selecting 31 items related with the entrepreneur person, this work tests empirically their gender categorization. This procedure allows to measure participants' GRO following the four gender categories and classify them by sex. Finally, the authors analyze the influence the GRO and sex exert over entrepreneurial intention and provide empirical evidence in favour that GRO is a more robust variable to predict entrepreneurial intention than sex, and androgynous GRO is the most influential category on entrepreneurial intention.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender stereotypes</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial intention</li> <li>• Androgyny</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Gender-role orientation</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-34 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GRO (gender-role orientation) is a better predictor of the decision to become an entrepreneur than biological sex.</li> <li>• Confirm the relationship between masculine and androgynous GRO with entrepreneurial intention, whereas there is also evidence of feminine GRO when we consider only women.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1. Gender stereotypes: instrumental-agent traits and expressive-communal traits; Descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes</li> <li>2. Gender-role orientation - <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2a. gender schema theory (Bem, 1981); gender social role theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002)</li> <li>2b. Stereotype threat theory (Steele, 1997) - entrepreneurial intention</li> <li>2c. psychological androgyny (Bem, 1981)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“The gender schema theory suggests the interrelatedness of gender-related phenomena: gender-personality type, gender attitudes and gender-related behaviours (Katsurada and Sugihara, 2002). The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) was the tool proposed by Bem (1974) to classify individuals into different gender categories and to measure their GRO (gender-role orientation). ... offers an alternative critique of a single bipolar dimension... between sex – men/women – and gender – masculine/feminine – (Watson and Newby, 2005). ... She defined four gender categories, resulting from diverse combinations of the individual’s levels of masculine and feminine traits: masculine, feminine, androgynous and undifferentiated” (p. 10-11).</p> <p>“...there are still female- and male-labelled professions (Martin et al., 2015). ... Some jobs define their necessary traits in terms of gender and become “men’s jobs” or “women’s jobs” (Ahl, 2006; Gupta et al., 2009; Shinnar et al., 2012; Sanchez and Licciardello, 2012)” (p. 11).</p> <p>“Goktan and Gupta (2015) provide evidence that they are more frequently androgynous. ... Because entrepreneurial activity is undertaken in an uncertain environment, adaptive capacity and flexibility are needed. Androgynous roles that share some male and female traits may be better suited for these purposes” (p.12).</p> <p>“The female gender stereotype continues to be associated with individuals who are kind, attentive, gullible, flexible, loyal, humble, shy, discreet, submissive and sensitive to the needs of others. In other words, femininity remains characterized by expressive-communal traits (Bem, 1981; Abele, 2003; Ryckman and Houston, 2003; López-Sáez et al., 2008; Gupta et al., 2009; Gartzia and Van Engen, 2012; Vafaei et al., 2014).</p>	

Meanwhile, the male stereotype is associated with those who are self-confident, individualistic, independent, ambitious, predisposed to risk-taking and with leadership capacity, who easily take decisions. That is, masculinity is still associated with instrumental-agent traits (Bem, 1981; Heilman, 1983; Gartzia and Van Engen, 2012; Vafaei et al., 2014)” (p. 20).

“...identification of six androgynous items linked directly to entrepreneur stereotypes (Bem, 1981; Ahl, 2006; Hernandez-Bark et al., 2014; Hancock et al., 2014), that is, items that are considered as socially desirable in men and women (innovative; creative; analytical; unpredictable; active, energetic and capable of sustained effort; and optimistic). Finally, six items, including assertive, obedient or yielding, are not gender-related traits (Twenge, 2001; Abele, 2003)” (p. 20).

“...degree of identification of individuals with gender appears as a best predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour compared to biological sex (Gupta et al., 2008, 2009; Mueller and Conway Dato-on, 2013; Nwankwo et al., 2012; Javadian, 2014; Ramam, 2014).(p. 21) ... empirical evidence for this statement and show that androgynous and masculine GRO is a better predictor for entrepreneurial intentions than biological sex” (p.21).

“The new generation of students is exposed to new stereotypes of entrepreneurs, individuals who care for the community, which is clearly exemplified by social entrepreneurs (Mair and Marti, 2006). Indeed, in the past few years, entrepreneurship has been more frequently considered an activity that promotes local, regional and communal development (Campos-Sánchez et al., 2012)” (p. 21).

“Some studies have shown that in the USA, the masculinity of the entrepreneur is blurring towards androgyny (Hancock et al., 2014; Mueller and Conway Dato-on, 2013)” (p. 21).



## Reference

Cabrera, E.M., & Mauricio, D. (2017). Factors affecting the success of women's entrepreneurship: a review of literature. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 9(1), 31-65.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Women entrepreneurship has grown significantly all over the world, and it is widely established that entrepreneurship is important for economic growth and wealth. Despite those facts, women's participation in entrepreneurship is lower than men's in almost all societies. Those phenomena get the attention of scholars from diverse disciplines, all of them interested in the behaviour and profile of female entrepreneurs and their business success rates. Several isolated factors were studied, with positive and negative effects on each stage of the entrepreneur process, for women entrepreneurs, so the purpose of this research is identify, classify by their impact and organise those factors in relation to the stages of the entrepreneur process.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The literature on factors affecting female entrepreneurship produced since January 2010 until October 2015 is analysed to define entrepreneurial success, identify factors affecting success at each stage of the entrepreneurial process and propose and organise those factors at individual and environment levels.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Several factors affecting female entrepreneurial success at each stage of the entrepreneurship process were found and organised at the internal (individual), micro, meso and macro environment level. In the literature reviewed, the most considered factors are: at the internal level, human capital, education and experience, with effects on the opportunity identification stage of the entrepreneurial process, and at the micro environment level, access to resources with effects on the opportunity recognition, acquiring resources and entrepreneurial performance</p>

	<p>stages, both with influence on quantitative and qualitative indicators of success.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This paper proposes an integrated classification and an array for all those factors that have an influence on women's entrepreneurship and its success, relating those to the entrepreneurship process.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-employment</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-35 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Factors affecting female entrepreneurial success at each stage of the entrepreneurship process:</li> <li>• 1 internal (individual), micro, meso and macro environment level.</li> <li>• 1a. human capital, education and experience, with effects on the opportunity identification stage of the entrepreneurial process, and</li> <li>• 2. at the micro environment level,</li> <li>• 2a.access to resources with effects on the opportunity recognition,</li> <li>• 2b. acquiring resources and entrepreneurial performance stages, both with influence on quantitative and qualitative indicators of success.</li> <li>• 3. Cultural, macroeconomic situation affect women's venture, negative effects of socio-cultural rules and regulations, values and perceptions</li> <li>• 4. Meso: negative effect to women's venture if the predominant economic sector or sectors are masculinised e.g. very high-tech sectors</li> <li>• 5. Institutional framework (formal) positive or negative - legal and governmental policy framework</li> <li>• 6. resources e.g. finance is usually negative to women's venture</li> <li>• 7. Micro environment: family and personal contact more significant in motivation, opportunity identification and resource acquisition phases. More important than cultural and institutional contexts. Relationship/ contact network is the asset in close and lasting relationships with customers, suppliers and collaborators</li> <li>• 8. Family demands motivate women but also limit the entrepreneur's time and dedication</li> </ul>

<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> •
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“...female entrepreneurship is a driving force for economic growth, particularly in developing countries (Terjesen and Amorós, 2010)” (p. 42).</p> <p>“De Bruin et al. (2009) propose the 5M model in which the first three “Ms” are “management”, referring to human and organisational capital; “money”, which alludes to financial resource availability and access; and “market”, which concerns market access and the possibility for opportunity identification. The others are “motherhood”, which refers to the micro environment (the female entrepreneur’s social context ... home and family, contact networks ... and the “meso/macro” environment, in which the meso environment refers to the region, sector and facilities and networks in them that have an impact on opportunity identification and learning (Welter and Smallbone, 2010), and the “macro” environment, encompassing culture (Shinnar, 2012; Hechevarría, 2015), the legal and regulatory framework and the social values and attitudes that determine the collective and individual perception of women’s entrepreneurship (Luke and Munshi, 2010, Gupta, 2014)” (p. 42).</p> <p>“Cultural features and government policy decisions are key for making women’s ventures highly productive or increasing their aspirations; otherwise, they will continue to choose small ventures, self-employment or subsistence entrepreneurship” (p.52).</p> <p>“...negative effects of the socio-cultural rules and regulations, values and perceptions generally influenced by gender-based stereotypes that result in undervaluing women’s business activities and judging them differently to those of men” (p.52).</p> <p>“...the institutional framework (formal) can have a positive or negative influence, as it is filled with cultural features through which women are generally attributed a certain value. Furthermore, it is also true that the institutional rules and regulations in many countries correspond to a legal and governmental policy framework for the promotion of women’s entrepreneurship that could favour motivation and business opportunity identification and successful business performance” (p.59).</p> <p>“...the differences in women’s access to resources that are key for the development and growth of their business ventures can be traced back to their reduced presence in decision-making positions in the financial and investment sectors” (p. 59).</p> <p>“...family and personal contact networks are the factors that are most decisive for success in the motivation, opportunity identification and resource acquisition phases” (p. 59).</p> <p>“...the greatest impact highlight the need for sweeping changes in national education systems to enable women to access education for their empowerment. Changes in national education systems could also help alter the socio-cultural perceptions, rules and regulations and values that underpin stereotypes and make it difficult for women to access the resources they need to sustain and grow their businesses” (p.60).</p> <p>External factors explaining the success of women’s entrepreneurship (p. 46)</p>	

- o Values and attitudes of the society that determine the collective and individual perception of entrepreneurial women, stereotypes, gender roles
- o Culture
- o Politics and government
- o Macro-economic situation
- o Rule of law
- o Women situation
- o Conditions for businesses
- o Attitude towards women inside the formal financing system,
- o Lack of alternative and unemployment,
- o Personal networks
- o Professional and entrepreneurial networks,
- o Family demands
- o Resources
- o Predominating economic activity
- Internal factors explaining the success of women's entrepreneurship (p.47)
- o Opportunity costs of leaving a dependent job
- o Entrepreneurship competencies
- o Business skills
- o Personal competences and relationship
- o Experience, work-related and life background
- o Formal education, education level
- o Career
- o Personality
- o Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations including growth expectations and work satisfaction
- o Self-efficacy

**Reference**

Henry, C., Orser, B., Coleman, S., & Foss, L. (2017). Women's entrepreneurship policy: a 13 nation cross-country comparison. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 9(3), 206-228.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	Government attention to women's entrepreneurship has increased in the past two decades; however, there are few cross-cultural studies to inform policy development. This paper aims to draw on gender and institutional theory to report on the status of female-focused small and medium-sized enterprises/entrepreneurship policies and to ask how – and to what extent – do women's entrepreneurship policies differ among countries?
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender theory</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Policy</li> <li>• Feminist theory</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 13 nation cross-country comparison</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-36 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An institutional approach to examining country-level entrepreneurship policy data is described.</li> <li>• Others contend that there are distinct gender differences and that these differences have a profound effect on the ways in which men and women approach and practice entrepreneurship. Differences are typically grouped into five categories that include education, experience, networks, access to capital and context.</li> <li>• Although the majority of women work outside the home, as noted, women continue to have primary responsibility for care of the home, children and other family members (Piacentini, 2013). Thus, women may have less time to devote to entrepreneurial ventures, particularly when children are young. Different circumstances, therefore, affect decisions to launch lifestyle rather than growth-oriented entrepreneurial firms as a strategy for balancing work and family demands (Cliff, 1998; Coleman and Robb, 2012).</li> <li>• Several studies have examined the state of women's entrepreneurship policy (Global Women Entrepreneur Leaders (GWEL) Scorecard, 2015; Kvidal and Ljunggren, 2014; Lundstrom and Stevenson, 2002; Stam, 2015; Welter and Smallbone, 2011). Scholars have also reported on the types of gender-focused entrepreneurship policies (Mayoux, 2001; Orser</li> </ul>

	<p>and Riding, 2006); modelled gender effects on the start-up decision, independent of country-specific circumstances (Minniti and Nardone, 2007); and described the provision of women’s entrepreneurship policies in specific countries (for example, in Poland, see Zapalska, 1997; in the UK and the USA, see Marlow, Carter and Shaw, 2008; in Canada, see Orser, 2011). National task forces have sought to inform policymakers about the state of women’s entrepreneurship and the need for gender-focused policy interventions. By way of specific examples, we refer readers to the Canadian Taskforce for Women’s Business Growth (2011) (Orser, 2011); European Union (EU) Enterprise and Industry (2008); UK Enterprise Strategy, HM Treasury and BERR, 2008, 2009; OECD, 2014; and Women’s Enterprise Scotland (2015)[3].</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A review of the above task force report conclusions and recommendations finds that women’s entrepreneurship policies focus primarily on individual-level challenges (“do-it-yourself solutions”) rather than institutional (cultural and normative) level interventions; [4] gender disaggregated data are lacking with respect to access and utilization of small business support services (e.g. incubators, start-up garages, technology transfer facilities); few countries integrate women’s entrepreneurship policies across key economic ministries; policymaking about women’s entrepreneurship is located outside the core economic policy process; and women’s entrepreneurship policies are ghettoized in agencies tasked with women’s safety and social welfare.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A common methodological approach is used to identify gaps in the policy-practice nexus.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“This paper highlights findings from the initial phase of the Global Women’s Entrepreneurship Policy (WEP) research project. Text-analysis of country-level policy documents found significant differences in support for women entrepreneurs among the 13 economies surveyed” (p. 220).</p> <p>“Applying Scott’s (2014) framework to our analysis revealed that the majority of the policies in our sample address the regulative and/or the cultural/cognitive pillar. This was illustrated by policies designed to prevent overt forms of discrimination against women in general as well as women entrepreneurs specifically. In other instance, policies and policy actions targeted the skills and attitudes of women entrepreneurs (cultural/cognitive).</p>	

Examples of these include the development of women's business centers that provide a combination of training, mentoring and networking with key resource providers" (p. 222).

"The gender barriers discussed earlier in this paper suggest that women entrepreneurs, despite their growing numbers and contributions, are still not valued and recognized as an integral part of the entrepreneurial ecosystem and environment. This weakness in the normative pillar, in particular, highlights the need for an entrepreneurial ecosystem that encompasses and embraces women entrepreneurs as well as public policies that address normative as well as regulative and cultural/cognitive factors" (p. 222).

**Reference**

Ramadani, V., Hisrich, R.D., Anggadwita, G., & Alamanda, D.T. (2017). Gender and succession planning: opportunities for females to lead Indonesian family businesses. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 9(3), 229-251.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper aims to identify the opportunities for them to manage this type of company within the Indonesian context.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This paper features descriptive multi-case analyses with a qualitative approach being used to gather and analyze data through in-depth interviews with several Indonesian family business owners having experience of succession.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The participation of women in family business management in several major Indonesian cities is quite extensive, especially for those who are highly educated. Similarly, the benefits of involving women in the management of family businesses are quite high because of their personal traits of patience, fastidiousness, tenacity and thriftiness. What is required is to provide wider access for Indonesian women to corporate management positions, broaden their participation in family businesses, secure a controlling role for women and increase women's knowledge and skills so as to increase the benefit to family company management and its ability to face global competition.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>A conceptual framework demonstrating the various stages of succession planning related to gender equality, which provide women with an opportunity to form the next generation of family business leaders is provided.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Family business</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Indonesia</li> </ul>



<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-37 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This research has revealed some new insights about gender-based succession planning. The succession planning stages intended to integrate family members into management and succession processes.</li> <li>• A number of such successors revealed that far from being obliged to take over the family business, they had been strongly encouraged by their parents to carve out a career elsewhere.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• descriptive multi-case analyses with a qualitative approach being used to gather and analyze data through in-depth interviews with several Indonesian family business owners having experience of succession.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“From the survey conducted by The Jakarta Consulting Group (2014), it became evident that as many as 32.2 per cent of family businesses do not prepare the next generation to be corporate leaders through a process of succession planning. The research results also revealed that the majority of family companies prioritize the nominating of biological sons as successors” (p. 230).</p> <p>“...findings confirmed that Indonesia occupies a leading position within Southeast Asia in the planning and preparation of potential leaders and the succession process following incumbent leaders’ retirement or resignation (EIU, 2014)” (p. 231).</p> <p>“Moreover, these findings suggest that despite Indonesia being a market leader, the majority of family businesses within the country continue to use informal business management structures such as a family council to resolve conflict and overcome succession-related problems” (p. 231).</p>	

## Reference

Stošić Panić, D. (2017). Performance and financing strategies of female and male entrepreneurs in the Republic of Serbia. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 9(2), 136-156.

Required Element	AB Entry
Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The paper examines gender differences in the performance and financing strategies of female and male entrepreneurs in the Republic of Serbia. The aim of this study is to explore the gender dimension – a much under-researched aspect of entrepreneurship in the Republic of Serbia – and to link the findings with those of other environments.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>To explore gender-based differences in entrepreneurial activity, a random sample of 327 units was drawn from the Serbian Business Registers Agency's Register of Companies. In total, 101 completed questionnaires were received. The chi-square test of association was used to assess the relationship between two categorical variables, while the non-parametric Mann–Whitney U test was used to assess the statistical importance of the differences between groups of female and male entrepreneurs. The relationship between the performance and different sources of financing was assessed by multiple regression analysis.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results confirm the existence of a gender gap in the net profit, employment growth rate, return on assets (ROA) and in use of various types of alternative financing sources. The evidence shows that those male entrepreneurs who use personal funds achieve lower levels of net profit and ROA compared to those who use internal business sources. Lower ROA is also achieved by those male entrepreneurs who use alternative sources of financing, relative to those who do not use these sources. Female entrepreneurs who applied for bank loans realized higher net profit value compared to those who did not apply for a loan.</p>

	<p>Moreover, female entrepreneurs who use some kind of state-supported funding achieve higher ROA than those who do not. Other gender differences found regarding the various aspects of the financing practices lacked statistical significance.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Although the generalizability of part of the findings is weakened due to the lack of statistical significance, most of the expected gender differences were found to exist at the sample level. This encourages further studies of similarities and differences between female and male entrepreneurs' financing strategies and their impact on business performance. This is particularly important for the environments in which the gender aspect of entrepreneurial activity is under-researched.</p>
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Performance</li> <li>• Gender gap</li> <li>• Financing strategies</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Serbia</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-38 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Paper focuses on external funding and the gender gap, i.e. female entrepreneurs are less likely to seek external funding.</li> <li>• There are gendered base differences regarding the preferred source of financing</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“None of the participants stated that the reason for not applying for a bank loan was the lack of a good business plan or his/her gender. When observed separately, female entrepreneurs, in relatively greater numbers, state that the reason for not applying for a bank loan is a desire to retain control over their business, as well as having an unwillingness to accept the risk of funding from this source” (p. 142).</p> <p>“Not only is it that Serbian female entrepreneurs achieve lower profits, but this difference is not compensated by lower levels of assets of women-owned businesses. In this sense, it seems that women-owned businesses in Serbia are really less effective than those owned by men” (p. 148).</p>	

## Reference

Bianchi, M., Parisi, V., & Salvatore, R. (2016). Female entrepreneurs: motivations and constraints. An Italian regional study. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 8(3), 198-220.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>  Purpose  This paper aims to identify the specific contextual constraints that women might face in becoming entrepreneurs; to correlate these constraints with the motivations that have determined this choice; and to ascertain how strongly constraints and motivations are correlated with individual rewards in terms of personal satisfaction and economic payoffs.  Design/methodology/approach  The empirical base is a survey that the authors conducted among female entrepreneurs in a Southern province of Italy in 2012. Data are analyzed through a correspondence and cluster analysis. The socio-economic context of the province within which these female-led firms operate is taken into account by means of a correspondence canonical analysis.  Findings  In terms of results: first, two-thirds of female entrepreneurs in the province are positively motivated, and this is a determining factor in their choice to become entrepreneurs. This translates into them also being satisfied with the choice they made. Second, contrary to the expectations, being positively motivated and satisfied holds both for firms operating in more dynamic and demanding sectors and for small firms using little financial or human capital.  Research limitations/implications  The chosen research approach has allowed to identify the most important decisional variables that affect female entrepreneurial choice. However, as most of the variables are categorical, the research's results remain descriptive.  Practical implications

	<p>Positive motivations and personal rewards are clearly relevant for women making an entrepreneurial choice. However, they are not enough to stimulate fully the potential for growth of their enterprises: education and a social environment conducive to female creative expression are also necessary. To this end, the authors suggest that an important function of change could be played in particular by universities by fostering a culture of creativity and entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>By stressing the connections between positive motivations and wellbeing, the authors suggest that the promotion of women’s entrepreneurial choices through networks and education generates more than purely economic benefits. It also has positive effects on their quality of life and on social welfare as well.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This paper responds to a need – not yet fulfilled in the literature – to better understand the relations between women’s motivation, satisfaction and the type of business selected.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• micro-businesses</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Italy</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-39 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There are two main factors influencing female entrepreneurs to make that choice: the constraints-opportunities they face, and the motivations, skills and satisfaction they enjoy in pursuing an occupation of their own choice. (p.211).</li> <li>• Access to capital, educational opportunities and training and knowledge of specifically applicable laws are the major obstacles that women generally encounter in their entrepreneurial activity.</li> <li>• Motivation and education play a very important role in the way women face these constraints.</li> <li>• 4 clusters of firms were identified:</li> <li>• 1 and 2, agriculture (mostly inherited) and retail (mostly new businesses) – business choice due to lack of better alternatives and economic reasons. Educational levels not</li> </ul>

	<p>high, low to medium financial turnover. Rare to have had prior training or conduct market analysis, and less active, discerning and bold in exploiting the existing opportunity.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cluster 3 entrepreneurs, mainly service sector, highly motivated and educated, find the activity rewarding, benefitted from financial and training opportunities.</li> <li>• Cluster 4 – low turnover and slow-growing (eg service to people) still show positive reward and motivation, high self-realization and independence.</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurs’ motivation goes beyond monetary reward. Measure success differently to male entrepreneurs.</li> <li>• Main areas of policy intervention suggested: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Address the constraints</li> <li>• Networking, advisory services and mentoring, especially if the mentor is another woman, may empower women with the necessary skills and knowledge to sustain their choices.</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Entrepreneurial education and training to women potentially interested in a start-up or ownership role.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Methodology: Correspondence and cluster analysis. Correspondence analysis (CA, Greenacre, 2010). Stratified approach, characteristics being firm’s legal form and business sector. Data collection via survey.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“...in all industrialized countries, the growth rate of female entrepreneurship in the past decade has exceeded that of males, even if the percentage of women entrepreneurs in the total is still lower than that of men (Budig, 2006; Parker, 2009; Muffatto et al., 2013). Secondly, this growth shows signs of being a sustained rather than a fleeting phenomenon (Carter et al., 2007). Thirdly, there remains clear gender differences both in the opportunities and the constraints women face and in their expectations and motivations” (p. 199).</p> <p>“Important motivators are choosing one’s own management style, collaborators, a positive work environment and social responsibility” (Buttner, 2001; Braun, 2010) (p. 200).</p> <p>“Our data show not only that higher educational levels and more positive motivations and satisfaction are positively correlated but also that they are the variables that most engage women to be active (...) Female entrepreneurs overcoming these constraints and to take advantage of existing opportunities or in creating new ones” (p. 211).</p> <p>“The positive attitude and satisfaction that the majority of female entrepreneurs in our sample have manifested towards their activity sends a positive message. It reveals that</p>	

there exists a potentially receptive and permeable terrain for further improving the creation and performance of female enterprises, especially those that are small-scale and fragile. These properties render them more exposed to the uncertainties of the economy” (p. 212).

“...female entrepreneurs expect a mix of economic and non-economic rewards from their business and, consequently, measure their success differently than do male entrepreneurs” (Rosa et al., 1996, Robichaud et al., 2013)” (p. 212).

”To allow women more freedom of self-expression and creative realization would also activate a virtuous circle of satisfaction and of self-confidence, thus supplying a further stimulus to creativity. This clearly has positive effects on both individual and social well-being” (p. 212).

“Networking and mentoring, as well as opening, women as they do to the reality of diverse talents and alternative solutions are also ways to tap their creative potential and achievements, which have been shown to flourish with teamwork and diversity (Sawyer, 2006)” (p. 213).

**Reference**

Watson, J., Stuetzer, M., & Zolin, R. (2017). Female underperformance or goal orientated behavior? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 9(4), 298-318.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to examine the mediating effect of an owner’s growth goal on the relationship between the gender of new venture owners and the growth outcomes of their ventures.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This is a quantitative study using a large, national database and structural equation modeling.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings indicate that the negative relationship between gender and growth outcomes is fully mediated by the growth goals of new venture owners, their available internal resources and the amount of time and money they are able (prepared) to invest in their new venture.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The research implications include the need to better understand the impact of goal setting on new venture performance outcomes.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The government policies (for example, to stimulate firm growth) need to be designed by having a proper understanding of the various motives/goals that entrepreneurs might have when launching a new venture. Similarly, anyone providing advice to individuals involved in establishing a new venture should, before providing that advice, ensure that they have a clear understanding of the individual’s goals.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>Social implications include a need to better understand the negative impact that lower available human and financial capital can have on the goals set</p>



	<p>by female new venture owners and the outcomes achieved by those ventures.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This research makes an original contribution to the literature by demonstrating: the impact of gender on human, social and financial capital; the influence of these resources on new venture goals; and, in turn, the influence of goals on new venture performance outcomes.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New venture performance</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Goals</li> <li>• Resources</li> <li>• Human capital</li> <li>• Social capital,</li> <li>• Financial capital</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-40 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This study contributes to entrepreneurship theory relating to the female underperformance hypothesis by taking into consideration the impact of available internal resources on the goals set by new venture owners and, in turn, the impact of their goals on the resources they invest in their new ventures and, ultimately, the growth outcomes of those ventures.</li> <li>• Therefore, because goals direct action, we argue that the addition of growth intentions as a mediating variable (between gender and new venture growth outcomes) could help researchers and policy makers better understand the potential causes of reported differences in the growth outcomes of male- and female-owned new ventures.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b> This is a quantitative study using a large, national database and structural equation modelling</p>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“While the growth goal of an owner is likely to be the key driver of new venture growth outcomes, there are two additional factors that should also be considered. Firstly, how are owners’ internal resources (human, financial, and social capital) likely to affect the growth target they set for their new ventures? Secondly, how does an owners’ growth goal impact the resources (money and time) they invest in their new ventures and, in turn, how does this impact the performance outcomes of those ventures” (p. 4).</p>	

“It is argued that through networking owners can (cost-effectively) gain access to resources not under their control and this, in turn, can potentially increase their firms’ chances of success (Carter et al. 2003; Watson 2007). This proposition is supported by recent research highlighting the importance of networking (social capital) to both firm survival and growth, for both female and male SME owners (Watson 2012)” (p. 9).

**Reference**

Kengne, B. D. S. (2016) Mixed-Gender ownership and financial performance of SMEs in South Africa, a multidisciplinary analysis. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 8(2), 117-136.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to investigate whether the presence of women among owner-stakeholders affects firms' financial performance. particularly, it extends the corporate governance literature by linking stakeholder theory and gender differences to explain why gender composition of membership matters for firms' performance. As the management of small and medium-scale enterprises (SMEs) revolves around owner-managers and their individual characteristics that are likely to affect their achievements, the study further investigates the relationship between the gender composition of ownership and the firm [sic] survival.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Using survey data on SMEs for 2007 and 2010, this study uses a panel-level heteroskedasticity technique and a probit methodology to assess the effect women's presence among owners may exert on SMEs performance and survival, respectively.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Results indicate that firms jointly owned by men and women appear to perform better than those owned by men although the presence of women among owners does not correlate with firm survival.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>While the findings of this study shed some light on the performance impact of gender composition of firm ownership, reports based on the presence of women among owners may not present the full picture. Whether the ownership is shared equally between different genders might provide further insides (sic) on the magnitude and/or robustness of such effect. Moreover, a small sample period (T=2) was used to analyse a single industrial sector (manufacturing), and even though the Hausman test</p>

	<p>confirmed the use of random-effects specification, caution should be taken when generalizing the findings to other cases.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The findings suggest that the leadership in mixed-gender context propels a perspective of women as a valuable resource within SMEs, but relying on it to sustain the survival would be unwise.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>South Africa scores particularly high on positive actions towards women entrepreneurship, and this is compounded in the SMEs sector by managerial attitudes that could offer positive developments for women.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The positive and significant relationship between women’s presence among owners and SMEs financial performance in South Africa complements the almost exclusively reported negative impact of gender diversity on firm performance. Consequently, mixed-gender owners’ team can be used as a fulcrum to promote SMEs growth in South Africa.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Financial performance</li> <li>• Gender theory</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> <li>• South Africa</li> <li>• SMEs</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• South Africa</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-41 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This study aims to test whether mixed gender leadership improves the financial performance of SMEs in South Africa by linking stakeholder theory and gender theory as a means to elucidate the importance of gender composition of ownership to the financial performance of the business. Additionally, the study aims to assess if there is a correlation between ownership gender composition and business survival.</li> <li>• Motivations for starting a business in South Africa are similar across both genders (Michel 2004). Despite historic differences in educational levels across genders, increasing numbers of women are achieving higher</li> </ul>

	<p>education qualifications in traditionally considered male subject areas like engineering. Additionally, the Women Entrepreneurship Programme (WEP) was created to encourage South African women into business by providing education and training and the Women Empowerment and Gender Equity Bill has been proposed by the Department for Trade and Industry to address prejudice and sexism. Consequently, firm performance in South African women's businesses confound previously recorded assumptions.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Data in this study is drawn from the World Bank Enterprise Survey for South Africa. The survey focused on urban businesses in different sectors but this study is concerned with manufacturing. The sample consists of firms with less than 100 employees.</li> <li>• The study found that mixed gender firms performed better than those owned by men. The presence of women as owners was not, however, an indication of firm survival.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p>Theory Name:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stakeholder theory</li> <li>• Gender theory</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“While risk perceptions play a prominent role in start-up decision, it is documented that emerging women entrepreneurs perceive more risks than men, and their risk preferences partial our any potential effect of their passion and self-efficacy on their start-up decision (Dalborg <i>et al.</i>, 2015)” (p. 118).</p> <p>“In South Africa, small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) contribute around 40 per cent to the gross domestic profit and absorb more than half of the private sector workforce” (p. 118).</p> <p>“Though women owning and actively managing a business are estimated to be around 45 per cent in 2007 and 58 per cent in 2010 (FinScope South Africa, 2010), the percentage of female business owners is higher in the informal than the formal sector (52 per cent versus 31 per cent in 2007). Among possible reasons is the gender discrimination in term of bank access. Female small business owners are more likely to be financially excluded (43.7 per cent of female owners versus 39.2 per cent of male owners) and therefore rely on the informal financial sector to meet their financial needs (FinScope South Africa, 2010)” (p. 118-9).</p>	

“Generally, more resilient to entrepreneurship than men, many South Africa women are self-employed entrepreneurs (46 per cent), as they start from a very small base, given the lack of capital and also have to keep the home fires burning (DTI, 2008)” (p. 119).

“Rijkers and Costa (2012) investigate the gender differences in non-farm entrepreneurship in selected developing countries including Ethiopia and find that women are less likely to be non-farm entrepreneurs than men. While these authors do not find any evidence of strong correlation between women’s non-farm entrepreneurship with either household composition or educational attainment. Aterido *et al.* (2013) show that there is an unconditional gender gap in Sub-Saharan Africa in terms of access to finance” (p. 121).

“Michel (2006) investigates the cross-gender motivation of entrepreneurs in starting a business in South Africa and finds that both genders are primarily motivated by the need for independence, material incentives and achievements. However, women entrepreneurs are found to be driven by the need to keep learning and the need for more money to survive than their male counterparts, who are more motivated to provide family security and to make a difference in their business” (p.121).

“The recent SME Growth Index survey has conclusively shown that the average turnover of women-owned firms is significantly lower than those owned by men...This survey also revealed a strong correlation between owners’ gender and the size of SME. Consistent to the turnover difference, women-owned firms tend to employ a small number of employees compared to men-owned firms” (p. 122).

“...the SME Growth Index reports that South African women owners are 6 per cent more likely than men to indicate an aspiration for firm growth and highlight the importance of their business being recognized for their achievements. Generally, more optimistic about the future, they, however, show a slightly little interest than men in participating in export markets. Moreover, a self-described attitude towards risk indicates that both genders tend to be moderately open to risk. Although a large proportion of women characterize themselves to be “cautious”, only fewer are found to be risk-averse (SBP, 2013)” (p. 123).

**Reference**

Kungwansupaphan, C., & Leihaothabam, J.K.S. (2016). Capital factors and rural women entrepreneurship development: A perspective of Manipur state, India. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 31(3), 207-221.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	The purpose of this paper is to investigate the roles of four specific capital factors, namely, human, social, institutional and financial capitals, in rural women entrepreneurship. The focus was on the handloom sector in Manipur, India.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Social capital</li> <li>• Human capital</li> <li>• Financial capital</li> <li>• Institutional capital</li> <li>• Rural women</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• India</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-42 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rural women have increased their involvement in entrepreneurship because of lack of income and poverty conditions. Harnessing the entrepreneurial potential of women is likely to capacitate in creating jobs for half the world's population (Healey, 2012).</li> <li>• There is strength in the relationships embedded in the support provided by women entrepreneurs' family and the community. Without family support in household work, looking after the children, providing transportation to markets, etc., they might face difficulties in managing household duties and businesses. They also received support from their communities that enabled them to gain social capital advantages, such as community members lending a hand in weaving and providing financial assistance. Entrepreneurs with family-owned handloom businesses highlighted that they gained an advantage from their family business platforms, particularly business contacts and the network of handloom businesses.</li> <li>• The results indicated differences in institutional capital between participants with and without prior exposure to entrepreneurial experience in the handloom business.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Qualitative research methodology with a multiple case study approach. Data were</li> </ul>

	collected using in-depth interviews to study seven cases of rural women entrepreneurs.
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**Key citations from the article**

“The literature reveals that several capital factors play significant roles in entrepreneurial development of women. Acquisition of capital is a challenge for women entrepreneurs and they face many barriers, including gender inequality, lack of confidence, lack of family and spousal support, weak business networking and negligence of women entrepreneurs in this cottage industry (Teoh and Chong, 2014)” (p. 209).

“Another dimension of social capital is the structural dimension or the degree of direct and indirect ties individuals have among the members of a network (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). Social capital facilitates certain actions of individuals, in terms of the exchange of information, sharing of capital and reduction of risk and leads to business contacts and advisors that are considered to be essential in performing the entrepreneurial activity. Therefore, social capital acts as a critical source of support for rural women to pursue entrepreneurial activities” (p.210).



**Reference**

Simo Kengne, B. D. (2016). Mixed-gender ownership and financial performance of SMEs in South Africa: A multidisciplinary analysis. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 8(2), 117-136.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to investigate whether the presence of women among owner-stakeholders affects firms' financial performance. Particularly, it extends the corporate governance literature by linking stakeholder theory and gender differences to explain why gender composition of ownership matters for firms' performance. As the management of small and medium-scale enterprises (SMEs) revolves around owner-managers and their individual characteristics that are likely to affect their achievements, the study further investigates the relationship between the gender composition of ownership and the firm survival.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Using survey data on SMEs for 2007 and 2010, this study uses a panel-level heteroskedasticity technique and a probit methodology to assess the effect women's presence among owners may exert on SMEs performance and survival, respectively.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Results indicate that firms jointly owned by men and women appear to perform better than those owned by men although the presence of women among owners does not correlate with firm survival.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>While the findings of this study shed some light on the performance impact of gender composition of firm ownership, reports based on the presence of women among owners may not present the full picture. Whether the ownership is shared equally between different genders might provide further insides on the magnitude and/or robustness of such effect. Moreover, a small sample period (T = 2) was used to analyse a single industrial sector (manufacturing), and even though the Hausman test</p>

	<p>confirmed the use of random-effects specification, caution should be taken when generalizing the findings to other cases.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The findings suggest that the leadership in mixed-gender context propels a perspective of women as a valuable resource within SMEs, but relying on it to sustain the survival would be unwise.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>South Africa scores particularly high on positive actions towards women entrepreneurship, and this is compounded in the SMEs sector by managerial attitudes that could offer positive developments for women.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The positive and significant relationship between women’s presence among owners and SMEs financial performance in South Africa complements the almost exclusively reported negative impact of gender diversity on firm performance. Consequently, mixed-gender owners’ team can be used as a fulcrum to promote SMEs growth in South Africa.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Financial performance</li> <li>• Gender theory</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• South Africa</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-43 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Results indicate that firms jointly owned by men and women appear to perform better than those owned by men although the presence of women among owners does not correlate with firm survival.</li> <li>• This study focuses on all manufacturing sectors, including food, textiles, garments, chemicals, plastics and rubber, non-metallic mineral products, basic materials, fabricated metal products, machinery and equipment, electronic and others.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Using survey data on SMEs for 2007 and 2010, this study uses a panel-level heteroskedasticity technique and a probit methodology to assess the effect women’s presence</li> </ul>

	among owners may exert on SMEs performance and survival, respectively.
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**Key citations from the article**

“Considering specific barriers that impede movement from extrinsic to intrinsic growth platforms, the transfer from one growing platform to another requires different types of advice and support depending on the life cycle stage the business belongs to. These findings point to gender differences regarding entrepreneurial behaviours and activities” (p. 118).

“Although women owners are less likely than their male counterparts to secure a bank loan, women managers have higher monitoring skills than men. Researchers conclude that women have lower risk preferences than men, and these induce the poor performance of women-led firms while improving their survival likelihood”. (p. 130).

**Reference**

Adom, K., & Asare-Yeboah, I.T. (2016). An evaluation of human capital theory and female entrepreneurship in sub-Saharan Africa: Some evidence from Ghana. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 8(4), 402-423.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The study aims to evaluate critically how the elements of human capital theory such as level of education, area of education, training and prior work experience influence female entrepreneurship in sub-Saharan Africa, with focus on Ghana. Though it is very critical that the elements of human capital are known and assessed, there is currently very little known about the elements of human capital as pertains to female entrepreneurship in Ghana. This situation has called for a study such as this one.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A phenomenological paradigm was adopted for the study. This includes in-depth interview, documentation and observation. Unlike narrative research that reports on lived experiences of an individual, phenomenological study focuses on describing the lived experiences of several individuals. It is mainly a descriptive account of shared experiences of those individuals located near universal lived experience(s).</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Reporting data from a 2014 qualitative in-depth interview of 25 women entrepreneurs in Accra who work in service delivery, manufacturing and trading, it was revealed that level of education, business training and knowledge gained during the course of their work were crucial factors for their success. As a consequence, this study calls for effective policies that will encourage the education and training of women entrepreneurs, especially those with low levels of education, on a sustainable basis.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The study focused on some of the elements of human capital and women's entrepreneurship in Ghana.</p>

	<p>However, there exist other issues that are critical to the development of female entrepreneurship in the sub-Saharan region that can be explored to provide more insight on this subject or different context.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The human capital dimensions which were evaluated for this study included level of education, area of education, business training and experience gained from prior employment. The outcome is that these elements are crucial for the success of women entrepreneurs in Ghana, but there is the need for wider research in other global regions on women entrepreneurs and human capital factors and whether similar variations prevail.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Evidence from the literature reveals that little is known until now to evaluate the elements of the human capital of female entrepreneurs in Ghana, and this study seeks to bridge this gap. Results are examined comparing what is pertaining in other international communities, thus avoiding a merely national viewpoint.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender theory,</li> <li>• Ghana, Business performance,</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship,</li> <li>• Human capital, Women entrepreneurs,</li> <li>• Sub-Sahara Africa</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ghana</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-44 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In Sub Saharan Africa (SSA) most economies are underdeveloped or developing; entrepreneurship plays a vital part in economic growth, and SSA has the greatest proportion of entrepreneurs globally. Entrepreneurism is on the increase, especially among women, who tend to own and run micro and small businesses providing good and services, for financial income, often to support the family (GEM, 2015; Vossenberg 2013). Women run businesses tend to grow more slowly than those of men (Morris et al., 2006).. In this region, the primary role of women is still seen as family and childcare (Adom, 2015). , and the general population is growing (Amine and Staub, 2009) .</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women in SSA face challenges due to poverty, culture (including patriarchy and societal expectations of women) and infrastructure including access to road networks, water and electricity. Successful women are not always viewed favourably, and can be further marginalised as they are not seen as potential for marriage and family responsibilities. To succeed, women must be very determined. This point was made in the literature review, however, in the research, women said that their education had helped raise their status in society and helped their business.</li> <li>• Globally, women’s entrepreneurial activity tends to be in agriculture and services; access to start-up finance is harder for women than men, so they tend towards low capital-intensive activity. Women tend to lack the technical skills to start businesses in technology and manufacturing. Business growth tends to be slower than for male entrepreneurs. Lack of gender equality impacts women’s ability to succeed, this can be for a number of reasons including societal, cultural, tradition and religion.</li> <li>• In Ghana women’s entrepreneurial activity is often driven by necessity rather than opportunity and is predominately Micro SME. Women have less access to basic education and to HE than men.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Phenomenological approach used in the research (in depth interview, documentation and observation)</li> <li>• Human capital theory.</li> <li>• “the concept of human capital, as Daeboug (2009) explains, is based on “something like knowledge and skills” acquired by an individual through learning activities. For Blundel et al. (1999), the concept can be categorized into two main components with strong complementarity. First, the early abilities of an individual which are either acquired or innate, and second, skills acquired through formal education and training on the job. Rastogi (2002) conceptualizes human capital as “knowledge, competence, attitudes and behaviour embedded in an individual”. Albeit human capital at times seems to be linked with the number of years of a person’s education (Becker, 2009), it also includes</li> </ul>

	<p>experiences that are obtained from practical learning that takes place on the job and any other non-traditional technical training regimens that augment skill development (Davidsson and Honig, 2003)”. (p407)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “human capital is a factor of production that can be made more efficient once investments are made in it (Kwon, 2009)”. (p407)</li> <li>• “the three main sources of human capital for an individual are the early innate and acquired abilities which are either genetic or gained through the socialization process, schooling and training”. (p407)</li> <li>• Both the level and area (focus) of education make a difference to human capital</li> <li>• Training which modifies people’s behaviour to follow for example processes or procedures and which develops and enhances skills is also critical in developing human capital.</li> <li>• Skills developed during training may include eg language and technology.</li> <li>• “This study uses human capital elements to understand the variations in performance and profitability among women entrepreneurs in Ghana. The framework explains that one’s level of education, area of education, business training and experience from previous employment predict the performance and/or profitability of the business.” (p409)</li> </ul>
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**Key citations from the article**

“The SSA region has been identified as having the greatest proportion of entrepreneurs globally (GEM, 2015)” (p. 403).

“Women own and manage various micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) that not only provide goods and services but also employment, as well as financial and social support, for their families, communities and countries at large (GEM, 2015; Vossenber, 2013). However, women-owned and women-managed businesses have been identified as growing at a slower rate than their male counterparts’ businesses (Morris et al., 2006). Foss et al. (2013) believe that women’s ideas are less frequently implemented as opposed to men’s, and this may well be part of the low productivity perceptions of women entrepreneurs” (p. 403).

“Ghanaian women entrepreneurs believe that among the four dimensions indicated in the study, their level of education plays an important role in their ability to manage their businesses. Most of these women believe that their ability to write, read, keep records, draw up a budget, communicate with customers and relate to their employees have been a result of the education they have acquired in school. Women with higher educational levels, such as bachelor and postgraduate degrees, further stated that they can critically analyze, have a wide spectrum of ideas, understand their business environment, introduce

their business to the global village via internet and can even draw up business proposals because of their educational level, all of which gives them a competitive edge over other (less-educated) women entrepreneurs in similar businesses to theirs” (p. 418).

“The study also revealed that education was a means of improving their status in society and also enabling them to compete with their male counterparts in similar businesses” (p. 418).

“Adom (2015) acknowledged that there are some business activities that are naturally the preserve of men. However, this study challenged this taken-for-granted reality, because previously, women rarely ventured into businesses outside of the agricultural sector, especially in rural areas. However, in recent times, things have changed. Women own and manage businesses in varied sectors, making them breadwinners, property owners and community builders occupying positions and taking on responsibilities that were previously ascribed to only men. Entrepreneurship has, therefore, provided a platform to empower women in Ghana and is gradually dismantling the stereotype of the role of a woman being home carer; it is giving them a pathway to develop themselves” (p. 419).



**Reference**

Aidis, R., & Weeks, J. (2016). Mapping the gendered ecosystem: The evolution of measurement tools for comparative high-impact female entrepreneur development. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 8(4), 330-352.

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>There is a growing understanding that gender-blind business support measures do not assist women’s enterprise development to the extent that they assist its male equivalent. Focusing efforts specifically on women’s enterprise development, and measuring the impact of those efforts, is paramount. This paper aims to assess the evolution of two indices that analyze high-impact female entrepreneurship development: the Gender-Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI) and the 2015 Global Women Entrepreneur Leaders Scorecard. Both utilize data from reliable data sources, yet are limited by the quality and availability of sex-disaggregated data. However, they differ in terms of variable choice, methodology and results.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>In this paper, the authors assess the evolution of two indices that analyze high-impact female entrepreneurship development. High-impact female entrepreneurship is defined as firms headed by women that are market-expanding, export-oriented and innovative. The assessment is focused on two new indices, the 2013 and 2014 Gender-GEDI and, the newly created measurement tool, the 2015 Global Women Entrepreneur Leaders Scorecard.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Both indices rely on existing data from reliable, internationally recognized data sets, yet are limited by the sex-disaggregated data that are currently available. However, they differ in terms of variable choice, methodology and results.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>There is an increasing need by researchers and policy makers alike to consolidate existing data to better</p>

	understand the existing barriers for women entrepreneurs and to be able to benchmark change. This paper assesses two indices that provide insights into the conditions for high-impact women entrepreneurs in a country comparative way.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Female entrepreneur leaders</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurship ecosystem</li> <li>• Female leadership</li> <li>• Growing female businesses</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USA</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-45 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It may then come as no surprise that none of the countries ranked in the top ten with respect to small business climate overlap with the countries ranked in the top ten on gender equality.</li> <li>• Often, female entrepreneurs have been assessed in terms of their individual characteristics or in terms of gendered institutional impediments in one framework in a cross-country comparative context but not both factors at the same time.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• development of a scorecard system</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“The severity of gendered impediments also determines the increasing or decreasing rate of the pool of promising and potential entrepreneurs. In some countries, the gendered impediments for women’s entrepreneurship are so severe that few promising or potential women entrepreneurs are actually engaged in a startup or operating a business” (p.335).</p> <p>“Often, a key source of gendered impediments for women’s entrepreneurship is found in cultural or religious traditions” (p.335).</p> <p>“Depending on the circumstances, these six types of women entrepreneurs can transition from one group to the next. For example, during an economic downturn, more women who are reluctant entrepreneurs may start businesses, but as the economy improves, some of these women entrepreneurs may transition into potential entrepreneurs. Changes in personal circumstances may also play a key role. For example, marrying into the ruling elite will transition a potential woman entrepreneur into a privileged woman entrepreneur” (p.336).</p>	

**Reference**

Bastian, B.L., & Zali, M.R. (2016). Entrepreneurial motives and their antecedents of men and women in North Africa and the Middle East. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 31(7), 456-478.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>This study aims to investigate how educational attainment and entrepreneurial competencies affect entrepreneurial motives of women (vs men) in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA). This study shows that education has a more positive effect on women’s entrepreneurial motives compared with men. On the other hand, there is a greater positive effect of competencies on men’s motives. Moreover, the moderating effects of culture are compared. The results of the multiple regression analysis show that, within the MENA region, the cultural value of self-expressionism engenders increased opportunity-motivated entrepreneurship by men. Yet, it has no significant effect on women’s entrepreneurial motives.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Motivation</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Motives</li> <li>• Middle East and North Africa</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<p>13 MENA countries, notably,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Algeria, Egypt, Iran, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, United Arab Emirates and Yemen.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-46 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Draws on literature to examine the impact of education on competencies and entrepreneurship culture.</li> <li>• Links gender differences in self-confidence with engagement in entrepreneurial activities</li> <li>• Self-perception can impact attitudes despite the high level of education.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“The level of female participation in entrepreneurship is also one of the lowest across all world regions – two-thirds of all businesses are founded by men, and, in some countries,</p>	

like Egypt and Palestine, less than one-fifth of all business founders are female (GEM, 2013)” (p. 462).

“However, our results reveal that the effects on the correlation between “education” and “entrepreneurial motives” are stronger for women than men, meaning that women report opportunity motives when they attain higher levels of education compared to men. In our opinion, this points to the important correlation between gender and self-efficacy for entrepreneurial behaviour: self-efficacy, or a person’s belief to be able to perform a certain task successfully, is based on the individual’s perception of mastery based on previous education and skills (Boyd and Vozikis, 1994; Wood and Bandura, 1989). Women seem to be more affected in their career choices by their own perceptions of self-efficacy than men (Wilson *et al.* 2007). Research shows that a low confidence level in their own capabilities remains a constraint for most established women entrepreneurs, which also has significant negative effects on venture growth (Kirkwood, 2009a, 2009b). In other words, it is not the actual educational level but rather self-perceptions of that level that shape certain female entrepreneurial expectations. In several qualitative studies, female entrepreneurs in the MENA region confirmed this as they cited the perceived lack of skills and knowledge as a major obstacle to their growth and expected success (Hatab, 2010; Itani *et al.*, 2011; Tlaiss, 2013)” (p. 465).

**Reference**

Hodges, N., Watchravesringkan, K., Yurchisin, J., Karpova, E., Marcketti, S., Hegland, J., Yan, R.-N., & Childs, M. (2015). Women and apparel entrepreneurship: An exploration of small business challenges and strategies in three countries. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 7(2), 191-213.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study was to explore strategies used by successful female entrepreneurs to manage the challenges of running a small apparel business.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A qualitative research design was used. Primary and secondary data were collected on small businesses in three countries: Russia, South Africa and Thailand. In-depth interviews were conducted with a total of 11 female small apparel business owners. Businesses ranged from tailoring and custom clothing shops, to small-scale design and production, as well as small apparel retail stores.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Three emergent themes highlight the similarities and differences that surfaced across the participants' narratives. Key issues within the thematic areas point to the need for these women to be creative in finding resources to start and grow their small apparel businesses, and to manage the competition that they face within this industry.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>It is difficult to generalize the findings of this study beyond the sample. Implications of the findings for understanding the needs of female apparel entrepreneurs and small business owners are considered.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Despite the significance of women to the apparel industry as well as small business ownership, thus far, the role of women as apparel entrepreneurs and small business owners has been under-examined in the</p>

	literature. This study offers insight into what it is like for women seeking to succeed as apparel entrepreneurs and small business owners.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship,</li> <li>• Apparel industry</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Russia, South Africa, Thailand</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-47 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Based on the literature reviewed, three challenges for women entrepreneurs are examined –1) financial support and access to finance, with different approaches to support from male and female finance officers, as well as different requirements, asked of male and female entrepreneurs when asking for support. 2) Social resources such as mentoring, networking and professional development. Networking helps overcome other barriers. 3) work and family considerations. Maintaining a balance between work and family is more of a challenge for women than men.</li> <li>• Analysis of research data identified 3 themes:</li> <li>• “(1) figuring out how to do more with less, particularly relative to growing the business;</li> <li>• (2) finding ways to deal with the competition; and</li> <li>• (3) meeting time constraints and demands, including career and work-related considerations as well as those of a personal and/or family nature.” (p199).</li> <li>• Lack of initial financial support means that women work without salary in the early days of the business, with some working at other jobs in parallel to earn an income. Lack of finance also impact the ability to employ others, meaning women need to ‘wear multiple hats’ within their business. Teaching themselves a range of business skills in the process. Lack of finance also impacts ability to do marketing and therefore impacts business growth.</li> <li>• Competition is a challenge, especially the setting of prices and standing out from others who target the same customer base... ie cheap imports. China is a source of cheap products and competition.</li> <li>• Differentiators are eg customer service and tailor made products for each customer, and attention to detail and quality.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Research is qualitative, data collection through in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 11 women across the three countries. All businesses had been open and successful for four years or more and were female-owned. Transcriptions were content coded and analysed thematically.</li></ul>
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**Key citations from the article**

“The women with families found it challenging to balance work and family obligations. Interestingly, most indicated that the motivation to pursue entrepreneurship was due to the flexibility it offered them as wives and mothers or that it allowed them to help others within the family. However, the reality is that they find it difficult to draw boundaries between the two. Participants talked about how easy it is to bring work problems home or to have to deal with a family emergency during work time” (p. 204).

“Thus, major strategies used by female small business owners to cope with lack of financial resources were: • resourcefulness and creativity in doing more with less; • flexibility in risk-taking and assuming multiple and diverse responsibilities in running the business; and • acquiring new knowledge and skills to support business development” (p. 207).

“To address this challenge, these women seek to hire the right employees and foster a team mentality at work. This approach helps them to not only manage family demands on work time but also to feel confident that the business is in good hands when they have to attend to family issues” (p. 207).

**Reference**

Berggren, C., & Olofsson, A. (2015). Self-employment and field of education understood from current entrepreneurship research. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 7(3), 291-302.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to look at how results from a large-scale study can be understood in the context of contemporary gender and entrepreneurship research.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This study is inspired by a mixed methods methodology. To gain a qualitative understanding of the general patterns in a large-scale study, research results in articles from the International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship (IJGE) were used. To make such a heterogeneous research field as appears in IJGE comparable, a model was created that helped us to focus our attention when reading the articles. The core of each article was identified.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The categorisation of the articles in IJGE resulted in three perspectives: liberal, functional and structural. The liberal and functional perspectives improved our understanding only partially because these perspectives usually focused on a certain aspect in the society. The structural perspective more readily lent itself for interpretation of our large-scale results.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The dissonance between our perspective and the perspective of others has been a challenge; it has been a delicate task.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This could be a way to improve communication of research not only within a perspective, but also between perspectives. It is important that scholarly journals provide the possibility to express different</p>



	perspectives on, as in this example, gender and entrepreneurship.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Higher education,</li> <li>• Gender,</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship,</li> <li>• self-employment,</li> <li>• mixed methods</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Analysis done in Sweden, papers sourced from IJGE</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-48 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• See section below</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “In this article, we use entrepreneurship and self-employment as interchangeable concepts.” (p292)</li> <li>• “To create this model, we combined two theoretical sources for our analysis: Ahl (2006) and Holmquist (2002). The choice of Ahl (2006) is based on her international reputation, particularly her discourse analysis of women’s entrepreneurship. Ahl (2006) called for an expanded analysis on women’s entrepreneurship; she analysed the variation in discursive practices of women’s entrepreneurship expressed in 81 articles published in international journals, the majority of them in four leading journals. She summarised gender research into three all-embracing categories: liberal feminist theory, social feminist theory and social constructionist/post-structural feminist theory. First, liberal feminist theory perceives women and men as being equal and equally as able to run businesses. Men make up the uncontested norm to which women should adapt. 293 Self employment and field of education Second, social feminist theory perceives women and men as being different; their contributions to society are equally valued, but are different. The way men run businesses is uncontested; whereas, women’s ways of running businesses are seen as complementary. Third, social constructionist/post-structural feminist theory perceives gender as a social construction that varies depending on time and context. This type of research challenges seemingly natural gender behaviour and examines how gender is created.” (P294)</li> <li>• “Holmquist raised four topics: first, the range of the theory, what it is about; second, the purpose of the theory, for example, how to discover the true entrepreneur or how to understand entrepreneurship as a phenomenon; third, level and object, for example, the individual or the society; and fourth, the</li> </ul>

methodology, for example, questionnaires or ethnography. To summarise, we had three analytical categories and four key issues that helped us to focus our attention when reading the articles” (p294)

**Key citations from the article**

“Research suggests that one of the biggest challenges for most small business owners, but particularly female business owners, is obtaining financial resources, in as much as access to financial resources impacts the long-term success of the business. For example, Miller et al. (2003) found that a lack of available financing might lead to decreased financial performance among small retail and service firms. The fact that women-owned businesses fail more often than those owned by men may in part be due to the fewer opportunities they have to secure financial support as compared to men (Alsos et al., 2006; Fielden and Dawe, 2004)” (p. 193).

“In the structural perspective, the purpose was not to identify support strategies for self-employed women so they could become successful within a market defined by traditional male norms; instead, the purpose was to illuminate gender discrimination and to show that what is commonly perceived as objective and neutral is in fact based on traditional male norms, values and behaviours. Critical research along this line can form the basis for discussions about current policies and regulations, ensure that gender loses its relevance, initiate discussions about the development of new forms of coexistence and encourage new economic and societal organisations to appear” (p. 298).

“From the liberal perspective: “Articles written from this perspective make up examples of Acker’s (1990) theory of how gender is reproduced on a symbolic level. Ignorance of the fact that “neutral” policies and regulations are in effect androcentric (Bourdieu, 2001), act to preserve men’s advantages. If the type of self-employment that men, to a large extent, try to attain corresponds to the “general” expectations of what entrepreneurship is, that will likely improve men’s success rate. This perspective helps us to understand some of the unexplained differences in the prevalence of self-employment among women and men that was shown in our study” (p. 299).

## Reference

Cheraghi, M., & Schött, T. (2015). Education and training benefiting a career as entrepreneur: Gender gaps and gendered competencies and benefits. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 7(3), 321-343.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b> <p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to account for gender gaps owing to a lack of education and training. Gender gaps pervade human activity. But little is known about forces reshaping gaps across career phases, from education to running a business. Such gaps may accumulate over one's entrepreneurial career and widen or narrow due both to environmental forces that reconfigure the gap across career phases and to the gendering of competencies and benefits from education and training.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A representative sample of 110,689 adults around the world was surveyed in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. Gender-related effects were ascertained by odds ratios estimated by hierarchical modelling, controlling for country and attributes of individuals.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Education and entrepreneurial training, both during and after formal schooling, are highly beneficial in developing competencies and during career phases – i.e. intending to start a business, starting a business, and running a business. Early gaps in human capital are reproduced as gaps in careers, and continuous disadvantages in the environment repeatedly widen gaps throughout a person's entrepreneurial career. That said, gender gaps are reduced slightly over time as women gain greater benefit from training than men.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The cumulative effects of early gender gaps in education and training call for research on gendered learning, and recurrent gender effects across career phases call for research on gendering in micro-level contexts such as networks and macro-level contexts such as institutions.</p>

	<p>Practical implications</p> <p>Understanding the gendering of human capital and careers has implications for policy and education aimed at developing human resources, especially for mobilising women. The finding that women gain greater benefit than men from training is informative for policies that foster gender equality and empower women pursuing careers.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Conceptualising the entrepreneurial career as a sequence of several stages enables the assessment of gender gaps owing to initial disadvantages in education and to recurrent disadvantages on the career path.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Competencies,</li> <li>• Education,</li> <li>• Training,</li> <li>• Careers,</li> <li>• Gaps</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Global</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-49 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The theory of continuous disadvantages may apply in entrepreneurship, in relation to men having greater access to finances both at start-up and throughout their career; women also have less social capital and network less than men do.</li> <li>• Fewer women than men had university education (0.92), training during schooling (0.8), training after schooling (0.75), intention to start a business (0.65), were in the process of starting a business (0.6), or were owner/running an established business (0.52). The gender gap widened at each of these stages of the entrepreneurship process.</li> <li>• Personal networking is gendered in that men tend to network in a public sphere while women network in a private sphere of friends and family. This is also affected by culture</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The research is hypothesis based using cross sectional data using data from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. Gaps were analysed at stages of entrepreneurship using an odds ratio. The sample was 53% women, 47% men.</li> </ul>

• “A stream of research has conceptualised the career of an entrepreneur as comprising a sequence of increasing levels of engagement (van der Zwan et al., 2010, 2012, 2013; Verheul et al., 2012): • never thought about starting; • thinking about starting; • taking steps towards starting; • starting a business; and • running a business.” (p323)

Does a gender gap in the early stages of this sequence widen or narrow in later stages?

• Two models provide a theoretical framework: “Above all, gender matters: being male increases the probability of moving from one stage to the next (Verheul et al., 2012; van der Zwan et al., 2010, p. 2188). This suggests that gender gaps tend to widen along the way, at least in Europe.” (p323) This is referred to as the theory of cumulative disadvantages (for women), also manifested in cumulative advantage (for men).

• “Broader literature on careers has focused on gender gaps emerging from disadvantages in women’s working life and has led to a theory of a cumulative initial gap (Bielby and Bielby, 1992) and a theory of continuous disadvantages (Fernandez-Mateo, 2009).” (p323)

• “a model of continuous disadvantages posits that women are recurrently exposed to detrimental forces such as the devaluation of their work, and are thereby under-rewarded. Disadvantages may be created at entry, but in this model they pose a constant source of disadvantage throughout one’s career (Bielby and Bielby, 1992)” (p324)

### **Key citations from the article**

“...findings bolster the theory of initial disadvantage, as they indicate that the initial gaps in education and training carry over into and are reproduced in the stages of the entrepreneurial career. The analyses produced further findings supporting the theory of continuous disadvantages as well. Gaps not only persisted in careers but also widened from one stage to the next, even when education and training were taken into account. This shows that there are forces other than education and training that recurrently widen gender gaps along the career path” (p. 335).

“Overall, the evidence indicates hardly any difference between women and men in terms of the impact of education on training and career path. However, the impact of training during schooling upon training after schooling is greater for girls than for boys. Specifically, the benefit from training after schooling for both intending to start and actually starting a business is greater for women than for men. Moreover, the benefits from training during, and again after, schooling for running a business are greater for women. Thus, the benefits from training tend to differ between the genders in that women benefit more in terms of pursuing a career. An interpretation of this greater benefit for women is that girls and women who pursue training do so with a greater voluntary

commitment and entrepreneurial spirit of doing exceptionally well. Boys and men, in contrast, may receive training more often because of a normative expectation that originates in their socialisation into business life. This may be especially true in family businesses in which the son is expected to continue the work of his father. We do not have measures of these characteristics, but our interpretation is quite consistent with the subsequent finding that women are slightly more innovative as entrepreneurs than men” (p. 335).

“Therefore, if women perform less well than men, their under-performance may explain the widening of the gap. Performance can be ascertained with a measure of innovativeness in the GEM survey. Entrepreneurs’ innovativeness is slightly higher among women than IJGE 7,3 336 men, even when other conditions are controlled for (Schøtt and Sedaghat, 2014; Schøtt and Cheraghi, 2015). This indicates that there is no under-performance by women and thus that performance cannot explain any gap in careers. This finding complements other investigations challenging the under-performance hypothesis (Zolin et al., 2013; see also Alsos et al., 2013)” (p. 337).

“So gender gaps are scarcely modified by age, country, education and training. However, when competencies are taken into account (last row), the distinct effect of gender is dramatically diminished. This shows that gender gaps in the entrepreneurial career may be attributed, in substantial part, to women’s lesser investment in competencies. This may be because those who drop out of entrepreneurial careers tend to have invested less in competencies, and since those who invest less tend to be women, women may drop out more frequently, thus widening the gap” (p. 337).

“...findings support the theory of continuous disadvantages emanating from the institutional environment, which cause gaps to recurrently widen. This effect was partly mediated by women’s under-investment in competencies” (p. 339).

## Reference

Sköld, B., & Tillmar, M. (2015). Resilient gender order in entrepreneurship: the case of Swedish welfare industries. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 7(1), 2-26.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>
	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this article is to use quantitative empirical data to analyse the degree of resilience, as well as change or reproduction of the gender order, in the era of New Public Management. The propositions are constructed based on liberal- and socialist-feminist perspectives, and discussed in light of the empirical results.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>We report from a longitudinal quantitative study of female-dominated welfare industries. Data, available from Statistics Sweden, include the total population of entrepreneurs available on the individual level. However, the level of analysis that was used in the study was in accordance with the industry level. Data were processed from an aggregated level to the most detailed level of classification.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings reveal resilience in the prevailing gender order. The order is being reproduced in the entrepreneurship context, in most of the industries that were studied.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The results may potentially have profound impact on entrepreneurship policy, equality policy and public sector restructuring.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This quantitative longitudinal study shows a complex pattern on the detailed industry level, which can be understood in terms of male gender labelling of entrepreneurship. The results thus support previous qualitative studies that have observed this phenomenon. Methodologically, this paper contributes to the field by showing that without</p>

	breaking down the analysis into the different female-dominated industries on a five-digit level, the various results of the public sector reforms and the attendant gendered effects would not have been revealed.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender theory</li> <li>• SME</li> <li>• Sweden</li> <li>• Womens entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Public sector</li> <li>• Feminist theory</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-50 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Written in the context of the contribution of entrepreneurship to economic growth and job creation, and the under-representation of women as entrepreneurs.</li> <li>• “This study, therefore, provides quantitative data supporting propositions and theories which argue that the gender order is resilient and reproduced in new ways in new organisational contexts. The data available to date suggests that market forces and support directed at individuals, as advocated from the liberal perspective, have not achieved satisfactory results.” (p16)</li> <li>• It is interesting that there is still a gender gap in entrepreneurship, and in the nature of the businesses that are set up, even in Sweden where there is greater social support and equality for women.</li> <li>• The businesses where women start-up businesses tend to be related to areas such as child care.</li> <li>• It will take more than market changes to improve the balance in representation of women in business and entrepreneurship, there must be change in the basic assumptions and behaviours that are taken for granted.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Liberal and socialist feminist perspectives.</li> </ul> <p>•“In the 1960s and 1970s, socialist feminism emerged, influenced by the liberal feminism movement (Campbell and Wasco, 2000), yet marking a distinction between the two political strands (Pilcher and Whelehan, 2004). In brief, the difference between the two theoretical perspectives lies in the relatively greater focus on the individual in the liberal perspective, and the relatively greater focus on tangible and intangible structural features of society in the socialist perspective.” (p4)</p>



- The research is a longitudinal quantitative study, with descriptive data analysis. Data was identified from a data base (LISA).

### **Key citations from the article**

“...liberal feminists would argue that market-like solutions would strengthen the position, while socialist feminism dispute this due to the power dimensions of the gender order” (p. 3).

“Liberal feminism From a liberal perspective, the public and the private are separate settings where an individual’s freedom of choice and equal opportunities are both deemed important (Weedon, 1999). In organisational studies, liberal feminists assume that organisations are gender-neutral and that people are rational, autonomous actors who are working for effective, efficient and fair organisations” (p. 4).

“Ahl (2004), claims that liberal feminists do not problematise gender and merely accept the male norm” (p. 5).

“Socialist feminism sees the private and the public as being mutually dependent, and as the basis of patriarchy (Hartmann, 1981). Capitalism and patriarchy are regarded as being inter-linked systems, which marginalise women” (p. 5).

“The results of this study have profound implications for policy and practice, in particular for gender equality. Our study gives no support to the liberal feminist assumption that competition in the welfare sectors increases gender equality in relative terms. Instead, the market share of men entrepreneurs increases. Women’s entrepreneurship increases, only in very specific sectors, a fact, which has been discussed in terms of women’s “own rooms”. The segregation, and most likely also hierarchy, thus remains and the gender system is not altered by the quasi-market mechanisms” (p. 17).

“Based on the socialist feminism perspective, gender is seen as socially constructed and embedded in economic, political and social practices. Changing the male norm of entrepreneurship requires an awareness of the social norms and the power relations that maintain the gender order in both the private and the public spheres. Politicians must pay attention to, and deconstruct, economic and social systems that subordinate women, as a group, to men, whether this occurs in the home, education system, labour market or entrepreneurship. Organisations and individuals are thus given incentives to change assumptions and behaviours they take for granted” (p. 18).

## Reference

Dalborg, C. (2015). The life cycle in women-owned businesses: from a qualitative growth perspective. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 7(2), 126-147.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<p><b>abstract</b> Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to investigate women-owned businesses from a life cycle perspective and with a qualitative growth approach. Building on previous research that has identified qualitative growth platforms, this paper takes into account the time aspect and investigates perceived barriers and support needs inside different qualitative growth platforms.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study took place in Sweden and is based on 191 women entrepreneurs in a first survey and 101 women entrepreneurs in a follow-up questionnaire three years later. To answer the research questions, descriptive frequency analysis and logistic regression analysis techniques have been used.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The motivation of growth changes throughout the life cycle, and women entrepreneurs move between different qualitative growth platforms when required building blocks of previous platforms have been established and secured. In this transfer of growth ambition, a significant correlation between business age and intrinsic growth aspiration was identified. Initially, growth is extrinsically motivated and later on in the life cycle, it is intrinsically motivated. In the late life cycle, the motivation is extrinsically motivated again. The results discern barriers to growth that hinder movement from extrinsic to intrinsic business platforms, and the author argues that the transfer of growth ambition from one growing platform to another requires different types of advice and support from the surrounding community.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p>

	<p>By broadening the view of growth to include both a quantitative and qualitative approach, it is possible to identify a widespread growth ambition in women-owned businesses which experience various barriers and supportive needs. Business programs that encourage exchange of experience among entrepreneurs in various growth platforms might be a way to overcome the perceived barriers. As women's businesses only receive a low proportion of the government funding, they are prevented from developing their growth ambitions. To ensure that all forms of growth are stimulated, different measures are required depending on which stage in their life cycle the women-owned businesses belong to.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>By considering business growth from a qualitative perspective, barriers and needs that the traditional approach may overlook can be highlighted. For example, growth aspiration in terms of more employees will not be considered until the previously, qualitative growth platforms are established and secured. The support system, however, is designed to only favor growth in terms of employment, which results in difficulties to qualify for financial support.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Barriers to growth</li> <li>• Business life cycle</li> <li>• Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation</li> <li>• Qualitative growth</li> <li>• Supportive measures</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-51 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An interesting critique of life cycle models applied to businesses, and whether these may intrinsically contain gender bias as they make assumptions about the stages of growth and the associated measures, that may be more typical of male owned business than those of females.</li> <li>• Definitions of business growth can influence the ability for a business to access financial and other support, as these are often dependent on achieving levels of either employee number, or financial growth. Where women have other measures of growth, that may be intrinsic, access to support becomes limited.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Surveys were sent out to female entrepreneurs, 3 years apart, and the data collected were analysed and compared.</li> <li>• Mentoring younger, less experienced female entrepreneurs by those who have progressed to intrinsic motivational stages would be of benefit in overcoming barriers. This requires some way of bringing the two groups together (networking platforms?)</li> <li>• The life cycle in women-owned business is hierarchical, with the following stages:</li> <li>• Survive, Stability, Create work, Appreciation, personal development. As with Maslow, the motivation shifts from Extrinsic in the lower levels (survive and stability) transitioning to intrinsic in creating work and higher. These changes happen over time and have associated needs. To survive these are: equal distribution of housework and marketing. For stability, the needs are finances and cooperation/partnerships/networks.</li> <li>• Creating work requires more employees and product development.</li> <li>• Appreciation requires networking and alliances whilst personal development requires cooperation and partnerships.</li> <li>• There are implications in terms of politics and society for the creation of suitable conditions for business growth, together with the recognition that the needs and motivations of men and women are different when it comes to business creation and growth. This needs reflecting on the measures and metrics that relate to for example financial support for entrepreneurs.</li> <li>• Qualitative and qualitative measures are important in the support of entrepreneurs. A one size fits all approach is not sufficient.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b> Business life cycle and growth theory</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Life cycle theories are critiqued, and some comparisons made to Maslow.</li> <li>• ““How would you explain the concept of growth?”. The interpretation of the answers resulted, after several iterations, in a pattern where five different themes, or business platforms, could be discerned from the various definitions of growth, referred to as survive, stability, create work, appreciation and</li> </ul>

personal development (Dalborg et al., 2012, p. 304). In contrast to Gibb and Scott (1985) and Klofsten (2009), who propose one basic business platform as a base for business growth, Dalborg et al. (2012) instead suggest a hierarchy of qualitative growth platforms where the current situation and the past growth history form the basis for the level of growth ambition the entrepreneurs express. In accordance with Maslow (1943, 1954/1987), the authors argue that prerequisites of a previous level” (p.130).

- “As response options I proposed statements based on previously suggested qualitative growth platforms by Dalborg et al. (2012): to employ, to bring stability, to develop as a person, to survive financially, to be confirmed/appreciated as an entrepreneur. The following statements were also included in the question: to contribute to society, to increase sales, to increase profitability and other things, namely [...]. The respondents were asked to rank the various options based on a four-point scale where 1 strongly agree, while 4 strongly disagree.” (p.134).

#### **Key citations from the article**

“According to a time use survey in Sweden (SCB, 2012), the result indicates that women spend significantly more time on housework than men do. Women compensate for the increased load in the home by cutting down the paid acquisition time, this suggesting that women also have less time to add in their companies (Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Robb and Watson, 2012)” (p. 131).

“Previous studies show that women often “play a large (if unpaid) role in the partner’s business”, but, conversely, they do not receive the same. Women-owned businesses support in their own businesses. If the partner is involved in the business “it is in an “expert” rather than a supportive role” (Budig, 2006; Stevenson, 1986, p. 34)” (p.132).

“...a high proportion of current business support assumes that an employment growth should be demonstrated in order for the aid to be granted (Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional Growth, 2014), a growth ambition that is not always considered to be prioritized by women entrepreneurs (Morris et al., 2006)” (p.132).

“First, I showed that the growth platforms do not just have a hierarchical relationship, but also a significant temporal correlation. The results also indicated that the majority of the women entrepreneurs still, after three years, belong to the same qualitative growth platform and that it primarily seems to be difficult to establish and secure the building blocks required in the growth platforms survive and stability. The entrepreneurs within these platforms also express significantly more barriers to growth compared with those entrepreneurs who managed to move to the intrinsically motivated platforms” (p.140).

**Reference**

Kremel, A., & Yazdanfar, D. (2015). Business advisory services and risk among start-ups and young companies: a gender perspective. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 7(2), 168-190.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This study aims to investigate the demand for business advisory services by owners of start-ups and young companies by taking a gender perspective. The study also examines whether risk-taking is more characteristic of masculine than feminine behaviour in this context.</p> <p>Design/method</p> <p>A literature review examines business advisory services and risk aversion from a gender perspective. The empirical data are derived from interviews with owners of more than 2700 start-ups and young companies in Sweden. A number of key variables compare how the company owners (women and men) view business advisory services as a way to overcome risk and to gain access to information in networks. Several statistical tests are used to analyse these data.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Women owners of start-ups and young companies use more and different business advisory services than men owners. There are differences among the men owners and women owners as far as the amount of start-up capital, company size, and industry sector. Given the risks associated with start-up, business advisory services are important to women in helping them reduce their risk in the start-up and early stages of their companies.</p> <p>Research limitation</p> <p>Companies in Sweden's largest city, Stockholm, were not included in the sample. Financial data were not used as variables.</p> <p>Implications</p>

	<p>Policy makers should address women owners' greater demand for business advisory services in their companies' early stages.</p> <p>Value/originality</p> <p>This study's originality is its gender perspective on the demand for business advisory services by startups and young companies, and its challenge to previous findings about entrepreneurial behaviour and risk taking.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Business advisory services</li> <li>• risk</li> <li>• gender</li> <li>• network</li> <li>• start-up</li> <li>• young companies</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-52 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The focus of this research is risk and also advisory services available to business start-ups. There are studies mentioned in the literature review suggesting that advice is more focused on risk reduction than business growth.</li> <li>• Networks are important to entrepreneurs, these can include family and community/social networks.</li> <li>• Women use business advisory services more than men, and they use different services. Women tend to have more business experience than men before start up, whilst education levels are similar.</li> <li>• Men tend to have more start-up capital and therefore less risk than women in starting up. Women may seek more advice to limit this risk.</li> <li>• Men start up more limited liability companies and women more sole proprietorships.</li> <li>• Men employ more people than women do,</li> <li>• More women than men start-up businesses in the service sector.</li> <li>• Because women tend to have smaller networks than men, they may use more business advisory services to compensate.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No specific theory. Statistical tests were run on data collected from telephone interviews for a sample of 2763 business owners. Hypotheses were based on</li> </ul>

	findings from a literature review relating to business advisory services, business networks and risk-taking.
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**Key citations from the article**

“When certain stereotypes of women are perpetuated, it is difficult to create alternative role models in business (as well as in science) (Latu et al., 2013; Young et al., 2013). As Eccles (1994, 2010) found, women often are attracted to activities where they think they can succeed. As a result, without women role models for success in male-dominated domains, female stereotypes persist (Jacobs and Eccles, 1992; Jussim and Eccles, 1992; Diekman et al., 2010)” (p.7).

“Despite the claim that women and men are more alike than different, and that the within-sex variations are much larger than the between-sex variations (Carter, 1989; Ahl, 2004), some researchers argue that powerful differences exist between women and men as far as risk aversion related to financial and business decisions. For example, Wagner (2007) found that women’s fear of failure is one explanation why twice as many men as women start a business in Western industrialized countries. Researchers have also found that women, who are more conservative in their investment activities than men (Watson and McNaughton, 2007), make smaller and fewer financial (e.g., retirement) investments than men (Charness and Gneezy, 2011) although women’s lower incomes are also a factor” (p.8).



**Reference**

Yazdanfar, D., & Abbasian, S. (2015). Gender and the use of external business advice: a Swedish study. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 7(1), 105-124.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The aim of this study is to examine whether there are significant differences between female and male entrepreneurs' use of consultation during business start-ups.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Using several statistical tools, including ANOVA and seemingly unrelated regressions, empirical analyses are conducted on a unique and firm-level panel database of 837 female- and 1926 male-owned active small firms.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results indicate that gender may be an important variable in the use of advice among small business owners in Sweden. Female owners in this study are shown to be more eager than male owners to use external business advice, and do so to a higher extent.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>One implication of this study is that firms may not be able to use all business advice types simultaneously during their start-up stage, so an ordered list of consultancy services would help them prioritize and adjust their needs accordingly. Because the use of business advice is context-based, the findings of this study may not be generalized to firms in other countries. This paper shows some gender-based attributes/features relating to the use of business advice, which need to be better integrated into policymaking for the future assistance of small businesses.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This article focuses on an important issue and is unique partly because few studies have examined the relationship between gender and external business</p>

	advice. By explicitly and empirically examining this issue, this article makes a contribution to the small- and medium-sized enterprises' literature.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Networking</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship education and training</li> <li>• Micro businesses</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-53 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women may be more subject to fear of failure prior to start-up than men.</li> <li>• Women tend to start up in competitive areas of business, and therefore help with business plans and market analysis, financial and managerial advice can help to reduce risk. The research hypotheses in this paper relate to the different use of external support by women and men, and the different types of support used at startups, according to gender.</li> <li>• Women are more likely than men to use external advice in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advice on goals, strategy and mission</li> <li>• Business planning and market analysis</li> <li>• Marketing and sales</li> <li>• Tax</li> <li>• Business start-up training</li> <li>• Developing the business</li> <li>• Developing a web presence</li> <li>• Mentoring</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Female entrepreneurs need more support than their male counterparts.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender difference:</li> <li>• “Despite distinctions between the terms, in this paper, we use both “men” and “women”, respectively, as synonymous to social gender and construction and not as biological differentials.”</li> <li>• The research is statistical analysis of small/micro business from a Swedish data base. Initial variables included age, education, which were similar for male and female owned business. Male owned firms had more employees than female owned. Female owned firms were concentrated in services, restaurant and consultancy, under represented in manufacturing, construction and transport.</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	

“A classic gender theory based on de Beauvoire (1949) considers differences between men and women in society as not naturally or biologically given but based on a social construction that divides them in two categories/social genders with different social roles: the first gender (man) which is the dominated norm, and the second gender (woman), which is subordinated; the understanding is that the latter should adjust herself to the (dominated) norm. This relationship of order and subordination permeates the society’s entire structure from top to bottom; it favors the norm (men, the dominated gender) and allocates it more resources, attentions and visibility than the subordinated gender (women). Men, in other words, have more power in all circumstances “ (p.107).

**Reference**

Martín-Ugedo, J. F. & Minguez-Vera, A. (2014). Firm Performance and Women on the Board: Evidence from Spanish Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises. *Feminist Economics*, 20(3), 136-162.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	This study examines gender diversity on boards of directors in a sample of nonfinancial Spanish small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) for 2003–8, finding that the probability of women on the board increases with firm performance, defined as return on assets, and family ownership, but diminishes with corporate ownership and firm risk. It also finds, when examining the full sample, a positive effect of the presence of women board members on firm performance. The study also obtains a similar positive effect in most subsamples, including in firms with corporate ownership, where family connections play less role in the election of board members, and in firms in the secondary and tertiary sectors, which are characterized by having greater proximity to final consumers than those in the primary sector
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• women’s labor force participation</li> <li>• ethics</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-54 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “...this paper shows that the probability of women’s presence on the board of Spanish SMEs increases with firm performance and with the presence of a family member as the major shareholder, but diminishes with firm risk and when a corporation is the main shareholder. Our results also show that the presence of women on the board exerts a positive effect on firm performance” (p.138).</li> <li>• A link between women on the boards and business risk aversion is suggested</li> <li>• Women may have more career options in a family-run firm and will have more chance of returning to a meaningful job in a family firm after for example childbirth and care.</li> <li>• Results show that women seem more likely to choose to serve on boards of successful businesses, and also in lower risk firms.</li> <li>• Further, that women’s presence, and board diversity increases when there is a family member on the board and decreases when corporations are the main shareholder.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women are more likely to be appointed as directors in smaller firms, and less likely in larger firms.</li> <li>• Older firms have more women on the board (possible widows, daughters and granddaughters).</li> <li>• Firms with at least one women on the board tend to have better performance.</li> <li>• Smaller, younger firms are more profitable and more agile.</li> <li>• Although there are more women on the boards of family businesses, their presence has less impact on performance than in larger corporations where there are fewer women, but greater impact on performance.</li> <li>• Inclusion of women on boards should be for economic rather than affective reasons.</li> <li>• Qualified women are more likely to be listened to.</li> <li>• The impact of women on the board seems to be greater where the firm is in closer proximity to the consumer – therefore position of the firm in the supply chain matters.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “...in the empirical analysis, we employ System Generalized Method of Moments (System GMM) methodology, which makes it possible to control for heterogeneity and endogeneity. This methodology has rarely been used in the study of this topic” (p.138).</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Thus, we may conclude that it is important to include women on boards, but this inclusion must be based on economic rather than affective reasons. Qualified women, whose opinions will be listened to on the board of directors, thus improving its effectiveness, must be selected. Results also vary depending on sector. In the primary sector, results show no significant influence of gender variables on firm value. These firms usually employ few women and are characterized by their distance from the final consumer. Nevertheless, the secondary and tertiary firms present a positive and significant relationship with firm value. This evidence is in line with the argument about the relative importance of women’s presence in sectors where firms have greater proximity to final consumers. The evidence presented in this paper shows that the presence of women on the board leads to positive economic results. Thus, their presence on boards is beneficial for more than ethical reasons. As a consequence, politicians should follow the example of countries such as Norway and promote legislative changes to increase the presence of women on boards” (p.157).</p>	

## Reference

Matthew Scott, J., T. Harrison, R., Hussain, J., & Millman, C. (2014). The role of guanxi networks in the performance of women-led firms in China. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 6(1), 68-82.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>  <b>Purpose</b>  This exploratory study aims to examine how knowledge acquired via guanxi (networks and connections) is enabling women in China to overcome a number of significant barriers and challenges in order to start and grow successful businesses.  <b>Design/methodology/approach</b>  The authors undertook two in-depth interviews to qualitatively investigate the use of guanxi as a means of overcoming various barriers faced by Chinese women in establishing and growing their businesses.  <b>Findings</b>  The findings suggest that family background (and, in particular, support from parents and spouses), experience, training, education and finance are key success factors influencing the performance of women-led firms in China. The experiences of the two entrepreneurs in the study demonstrate the importance of mentors in helping to develop a woman's business acumen and providing the right contacts to help overcome potential barriers to developing a successful business.  <b>Research limitations/implications</b>  While this study provides a useful first step to better understanding the role of guanxi networks in supporting women-led ventures in China, further research is needed to test the generalizability of the findings.  <b>Originality/value</b>  This study contributes to the limited prior research focusing on the important role of guanxi networks in

	assisting Chinese women to successfully launch and grow new ventures.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Chinese women-led firms</li> <li>• Guanxi networks</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• China</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-55 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Guanxi = networks and connections</li> <li>• Older women in China have been called the unlucky generation, most affected by redundancies and privatisation of business.</li> <li>• Women seem more likely to work out of necessity for two incomes in a household and are more likely to be in lower-paid jobs.</li> <li>• Whilst family and friend support networks are available and willing, they may not have the experience required to support female entrepreneurs well. Therefore, fewer, more experienced mentors may be better.</li> <li>• Family standing (in society) and finances make a difference to female entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Quality rather than the quantity of networks is important</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social capital Bordieu (1986)</li> <li>• “This description is similar to the social capital typologies referred to in the networking literature, such as: bridging capital and bonding capital (Davidsson and Honig, 2003; Díaz Garcí’a and Carter, 2009; Klyver and Grant, 2010). In China, the strong emphasis placed on networking and the heavy reliance on family and kin has led to a “preference for the family firm, its relatively small size, and a focus on personal networking and management” (Chan 2010, p. 481).” (p72)</li> <li>• we have attempted to use a gender-neutral lens to avoid adopting the “masculine” as a benchmark or norm (Ahl, 2006). To explore these barriers we draw upon Elam’s (2008) practice theory-based analytical framework, which builds upon the earlier work of Bourdieu (1986) and others. (p73)</li> <li>• Explorative research analysis based on case study example.</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“Zhang et al. (2008) suggest that, in China’s cultural context, it is women who experience the greatest levels of inequality because they are the ones who are married with children</p>	

and who must balance housework and family duties (just as in the West – Jennings and McDougald, 2007)” (p. 70).

“Furthermore, there are few “career breaks” to cover maternity leave and child-rearing obligations, nor is part-time work widely practised (Cooke, 2004)” (p.70).

“Interestingly, although there is evidence suggesting that 91 per cent of businesses have women in senior management roles (Catalyst, 2008) this finding fails to indicate the percentage of women employed in such businesses, and it may be, as Cooke (2008b) suggests, simply a case of Kanterian tokenism where there is a guaranteed seat system for women, but often with only one female senior manager” (p.71).

“...there is also emerging in China a new generation of younger and highly educated women managers with a modern outlook, compared to the more “masculine” middle-aged female managers of the past (Cooke, 2008b)” (p.71).

“In effect, guanxi is “an extension of family norms to business settings” (Chua et al., 2009, p. 502)” (p.72).



**Reference**

Christopher Weber, P., & Geneste, L. (2014). Exploring gender-related perceptions of SME success. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 6(1), 15-27.

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Small and medium enterprise (SME) research into the meaning and perception of success is now reaching beyond (the somewhat stereotypical) extrinsic success measures such as sales, number of employees, and profit. Researchers now identify the goals and expectations of the owner(s) of a business as central to their likely performance and preferred success metrics. Therefore, this paper aims to overlay perceptions of success and gender to establish whether success is conceptualised in the same way across genders.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study analyses the responses from 375 male and female SME owners to a range of quantitative success metrics and also explores the responses provided to a number of qualitative questions surrounding the owners' perceptions of success.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Although the average female-owned business in the study is significantly smaller than the average male-owned business, they perform equally well on extrinsic measures that relate outputs (profit) to inputs (assets and hours worked). Further, the female SME owners appear to be more satisfied with both the success of their business and their lifestyle, than their male counterparts.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The findings suggest that the social feminists hold sway (men and women have different perceptions of success) and there is value in incorporating a feminine perspective when examining what business owners are looking for from their ventures. That is, measures of SME success need to adopt a person-centered perspective.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Performance measurement</li> <li>• Small business</li> <li>• Gender difference</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Perceived success</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>

<p><b>Key Highlights</b></p> <p><b>(3-5 – be brief in the summary)</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• although the average female-owned business in the study is significantly smaller than the average male-owned business, they perform equally well on extrinsic measures that relate outputs (profit) to inputs (assets and hours worked).</li> <li>• Female SME owners appear to be more satisfied with both the success of their business and their lifestyle (better work-life balance), than their male counterparts.</li> <li>• Female SME owners are more likely to perceive negative effects in relation to financial outcomes than male owners</li> <li>• Both female and male SME owners identified time flexibility as a positive outcome from being self-employed. But for female owners, they feel less uncomfortable being tied to the business 24/7.</li> <li>• Female SME owners are more likely to agree on the positive impact of their business on their family than male SME owners while a low percentage of the respondents from both groups express concerns about the negative impacts on family.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p> <p><b>(indicate if none)</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <p>-</p> <p><b>Brief Theory Summary</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p>	<p>“...a motivation (or goals) has valence commensurate with its own importance as well as its instrumentality in relation to other outcomes and the importance associated with those other outcomes.” (p. 17)</p> <p>“Watson (2010) alludes to this in reporting that women do not (as is often claimed) underperform compared to their male counterparts, rather they have different risk profiles (and goals that are more intrinsic in nature) suggesting that many measures (perceptions) of success found in the literature might not be appropriate when comparing the performances of male- and female-owned ventures.” (p. 17)</p> <p>“Vroom (1964) argues that people will prefer certain goals or outcomes over others and will anticipate experiencing feelings of satisfaction should they achieve their preferred outcomes. Vroom (1964) uses the term positive/negative valence to indicate whether an outcome is desired/not desired.” (p. 160).</p>

**Reference**

Logan, J. (2014). An exploration of the challenges facing women starting business at fifty. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 6(1), 83-96.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)</b>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The paper aims to investigate the motivations, goals, challenges, successes and needs of older women starting new ventures.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with ten successful female entrepreneurs who had created their businesses at age 50 or over. (all professionals from middle income families) The key areas of focus included the women's motivation for starting a business, their previous work experience, potential barriers/enabling factors (including their human, social and financial capital), and the performance of their ventures. Responses were taped, transcribed, coded, grouped and analyzed.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The primary trigger for older women to start a new venture appears to be the need to find a creative outlet (self-actualization). Further, more than half the women stated that because they now had significantly reduced family responsibilities, this was the time for them to pursue their own goals. Interestingly, a majority of the women had started new ventures in an area completely unrelated to their previous work experience. Family support, particularly from their spouse/partner, was acknowledged by virtually all the women as an important factor contributing to the success of their ventures. All the ventures were profitable and growing.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The findings suggest that well-trained mentors could make a significant difference to this older cohort of female entrepreneurs, particularly in terms of helping them to grow their businesses.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study fills a gap in the literature by providing an understanding of the motivations and needs of older female entrepreneurs.</p>

<b>Keywords</b>  (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship education and training</li> <li>• Older</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b>  (3-5 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivations for starting new venture – no need for flexibility to balance family and work after children has grown up but meet the desire for self-fulfilment (self - actualization).</li> <li>• Previous experience and the decision to start a new venture – start new ventures different from their professional area. Women who held professional roles in a bureaucratic organisation e.g. NHS (UK) show incentive to create new ventures to enjoy the autonomy that was lack in previous working experiences.</li> <li>• Role model (mostly male) in the family encourage female members to create new venture.</li> <li>• Potential barriers/enabling factors – family support – support from families is very important; particularly support from husbands or partners, enable the women to have new venture despite having their own full-time jobs. Together with less family obligation, older women can develop business with husbands or partners.</li> <li>• Potential barriers/enabling factors – human capital - the women did not feel disadvantaged in any way by their lack of formal business experience. Older women’s life experiences are their assets in running a business.</li> <li>• Potential barriers/enabling factors – social capital - The women entrepreneurs had largely female networks, which together with their spouses and family, were offering support. More formal external advice would be helpful in growing their businesses.</li> <li>• Potential barriers/enabling factors – financial capital – private saving, feel it was rather late in life to start taking on loans and mortgages. Concerned owing money to the bank should it “all go wrong”.</li> <li>• Potential barriers/enabling factors – difficulties and time commitment – surprised by the time commitment but did not find it difficult to run their ventures.</li> <li>• Potential barriers/enabling factors – external support and advice – good mentoring advice is important but difficult to find.</li> <li>• New venture performance – profitable business and organically growth their ventures.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>  (indicate if none)	<b>Theory Name:</b>  =  <b>Brief Theory Summary</b>

	• -
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p>	<p>“Almost all of the women interviewed stated that their reason for taking the plunge into entrepreneurship at this time in their lives was because their families needed them less” (p. 88).</p> <p>“...that a lack of autonomy in their previous jobs (rather than being a hindrance) might have influenced (motivated) these women to start their new ventures” (p. 89).</p> <p>“The women explained that spousal support was adding a new dimension (and new energy) to their relationships, which may also have contributed to their feelings of fulfilment” (p. 89).</p> <p>“The women entrepreneurs had largely female networks, which together with their spouses and family, were offering support” (p. 90).</p> <p>“In terms of potential barriers and enabling factors, the women generally felt that their previous experience with managing both their family and work commitments had been particularly useful in helping them to cope with the demands of starting a new venture” (p.93).</p>

**Reference**

Barrett, M. (2014). Revisiting women's entrepreneurship: Insights from the family-firm context and radical subjectivist economics. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 6(3), 231-254.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to study women's entrepreneurship from the family-firm context and radical subjectivist (RS) economics. While women's entrepreneurship is a long-standing topic of research interest, there have been calls for more theory-oriented research and research which takes context factors in women's entrepreneurship seriously. The paper responds to this by using an RS's view of economics as a theoretical lens to consider women's entrepreneurship in family firms.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper briefly reviews the potential of the family-firm context for examining women's entrepreneurship in a non-reductive fashion, then outlines radical subjectivism (RS). The three main elements of RS's "entrepreneurial imagination" are explained, then linked with other theories of family-firm behaviour and applied to casework on women entrepreneurs in family firms.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Each element of the entrepreneurial imagination, empathy, modularity and self-organization, generates new research questions which contest previous apparently settled views about women entrepreneurs. Protocols for investigating the questions are suggested. The third element, self-organization, while more difficult to operationalize for empirical testing, suggests how women's entrepreneurship might generate new industries.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>While this is primarily a conceptual study, its case studies invite further exploration of both women entrepreneurs and family firms. The RS perspective could also increase understanding of shared leadership and innovation in family firms. Specific</p>

	<p>research questions and protocols for investigating them are offered.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>Insights from the research have practical implications for entrepreneurship education, for understanding entrepreneurship at the level of society, the firm and the individual.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>The importance of both family firms and women entrepreneurs to society makes it important to understand both of them better. The RS perspective can help.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper highlights the value of combining attention to entrepreneurial context (family firms) and theory (RS) to reinvigorate some old research questions about women entrepreneurs. The combination of family firms and RS is also novel</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Radical subjectivism</li> <li>• Family business</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial imagination</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship theory</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the USA, the Middle East, the UK, Southeast Asia, Canada and Australia.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-56 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Case data were gathered from 16 entrepreneurs, data saturation was reached after analyzing data from 13 entrepreneurs associated with 12 family firms.</li> <li>• Empathy relates to creativity, novelty and innovation which has value to future/existing customers. This relates to risk-taking, though it incorporates knowledge of the potential end-user, rather than the risk-taking being completely subjective from the perspective of the entrepreneur.</li> <li>• In family firms, not only are successors generally identified within the family at a young age, skills and knowledge of the business are honed from a young age before the role in the business becomes formal.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Modularity – i.e. extending existing enterprises by using the current firm’s modular characteristics – it is suggested here that ‘familiness’ is a unique element of family businesses, and could be an additional dimension in the RBV, unique to family businesses. Modularity can be either complementary or substitutional.</li> <li>• Self-organisation – the third aspect of the RS entrepreneurial imagination.</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship is about what entrepreneurs do, rather than who they are.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Radical subjectivist economics</li> <li>• RS (Chiles et al., 2007, 2010a; 2010b; Lewin and Baetjer, 2011) is derived from Austrian economics, particularly the work of Ludwig Lachmann and George Shackle. Lachmann (1956, 1971, 1976a, 1976a, 1977, 1986) and Shackle (1967, 1970, 1979, 1983) offer non-equilibrium alternatives to equilibrium-based economic theories of entrepreneurship and market behaviour, and stress the process of imaginative choice inherent in these processes. Shackle emphasizes the “kaleidic” nature of non-equilibrium markets which lead to and follow from entrepreneurs’ imaginative choices. Both Lachmann and Shackle aim to redress the shortcomings of the dominant equilibrium-based perspectives which: [...] completely eliminate or severely circumscribe such central entrepreneurial phenomena as: (1) entrepreneurs’ choices, actions, and opportunities; (2) genuine uncertainty associated with capital investment and the passage of time; and (3) the continual emergence of novel ideas, resources, and products that drive competitive market processes (Chiles et al., 2010b, p. 138). (p233)</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“According to Chiles et al. (2010a) and other theorists who build on the insights of Shackle and Lachmann, the entrepreneurial imagination – the central concept of Lachmann’s RS view – consists of three main elements: empathy, modularity and self-organization” (p.236).</p> <p>“Empathy’ usually refers to the social competency of taking another’s perspective, suggesting an affective rather than a cognitive capacity to enter another person’s reality. However, radical subjectivist (RS) scholars of entrepreneurship such as McMullen (2010) use it to denote a rational rather than an affective capacity to enter into another person’s “perceptual point of view” (p.240, emphasis in the original).</p>	



“In the RS view of entrepreneurship, modularity refers to how managers organize their firms’ heterogeneous resources to respond to dynamic markets buffeted by continuous change, abrupt shifts and unpredictable competition (Chiles et al., 2010a). A module is “a unit whose structural elements are powerfully connected among themselves and relatively weakly connected to elements in other units”, that is, they have “common interface specifications” (Chiles et al., 2010a, p. 23)” (p. 242).

“The RS idea of self-organization differs from most Austrian economics, in that it does not assume that equilibrium is a somehow more desirable situation than disequilibrium, and that disequilibrium is inherently disordered. Rather, disequilibrium is taken as the normal state, and has its own form of order. This special form of “disordered order” is born of what Geldof (2002) sees as the natural affinity of disequilibrium with the complexity, uncertainty, and subjectivity of processes that perpetually generate novelty” (p. 246).

**Reference**

Teoh, W.M.Y., & Chong, S.C. (2014). Towards strengthening the development of women entrepreneurship in Malaysia. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 29(7), 432-453.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>                      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper aims to identify developmental issues associated with women entrepreneurship, with the Malaysian small and medium enterprises (SMEs) as a base. Subsequently, the paper also aims to devise certain stratagems and new policies for ensuring women entrepreneurial growth.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>An overview of the issues surrounding women entrepreneurship development in Malaysia is provided, drawing on the extant literature. The issues comprise cultural barriers, lack of spousal support, gender inequality, lack of confidence, weak social and business networking, few laws to support working families and neglected women entrepreneurs in the cottage industry, as well as domestic help and home-based childcare.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Based on the issues identified, strategies are proposed to address them, contextualising the gender aspect of women entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>A summary is provided on the research and practical gaps from the perspective of strengthening women entrepreneurship and with the aim of encouraging further research in this area. The paper posits that an understanding of the gender aspect on issues related to the development of women entrepreneurship in Malaysia is required if policy measures are to be constructive in assisting women entrepreneurs in achieving their full entrepreneurial potential.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Very limited studies have been undertaken in the past to assess the issues faced by women entrepreneurs in</p>

	the context of overall development of women entrepreneurship. This is of great value to an SME-dominated economy such as Malaysia where the paper provides a comprehensive summary of the strategies and policy measures required to strengthen women entrepreneurship development.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Malaysia</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Small and medium enterprises</li> <li>• Women entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Gender inequality</li> <li>• Identity</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Malaysia</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-5 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two main purposes of some of the government initiatives are to reduce poverty and increase employment opportunities for women.</li> <li>• Some of the initiatives include microcredit, microfinance, entrepreneurial workshops and training programmes.</li> <li>• Despite the support given, the trend of becoming an entrepreneur in Malaysia is rather low with only an increase of 55% over 25 years which is about 4.58% growth per year.</li> <li>• In terms of size, the majority of women-owned SMEs are micro in size (88%) followed by small (11.3%) and medium (0.8%)</li> <li>• Issues surrounding Malaysian women entrepreneurs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cultural barriers</li> <li>- Lack of spousal support</li> <li>- Gender inequality</li> <li>- Lack of confidence</li> <li>- Weak social and business networking</li> <li>- Few laws to support working family</li> <li>- Childcare issues</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> -
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“The world is witnessing a boom in women entrepreneurship where 25 per cent of the businesses are owned by women. Specifically, in the USA, 38 per cent of the businesses are owned by women (Rosmah, 2010. Russian women constitute over one-fourth of all</p>	

the owners of private businesses (Iakovleva and Kickul, 2011). In China, 25 per cent of businesses are possessed by women since 1978. About 23 per cent of the private companies owned by women have been established in Japan (Rosmah, 2010, whilst 31 per cent of European women involved in entrepreneurship as their career” (Jong, 2013, p. 433).

“Despite the support given, the trend of becoming an entrepreneur in Malaysia is rather low where there is only an increase of 55 per cent over 25 years which is equal to about 4.58 per cent growth per year, i.e. 1.2 million in 1982 and 2.2 million in 2008. A similar trend is also noticed across the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries where only 2.2 per cent of women participating in the labour market were employers in 2011, down from 2.8 per cent in 2000” (Piacentini, 2013, p. 436).

“Cultural values limit women entrepreneurs to expose themselves to the business world (Mordi et al., 2010; Piacentini, 2013). This corroborates the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) Project (2013) which reported that cultural norms regarding the role of woman in family and labour practices are perceived as major restricting factors for businesswomen in Malaysia” (p.438).

“Quoting Hashim et al. (2012, p.428): The stereotypical views that women entrepreneurs cannot balance their career and family seem to persist. This perspective is especially prevalent in many Malay novels that portray women engaged in professional or managerial positions. Successful Malay Muslim women, it would seem, have difficulty maintaining their marriages if they are overly committed to their work. They make irrational choices and learn the lesson the hard way. To reiterate, this construction of a Malay Muslim women entrepreneur shows the conventions women must follow regardless of how educated they are and how successful they seem to be. They must subscribe to certain values pervasive in the Malay Muslim worldview” (p.439).

“Related to the cultural barrier is the lack of spousal support. Women entrepreneurs experience unique difficulties and problems that limit their economic performance and jeopardise their personal feelings of achievement and satisfaction (Bowen and Hisrich, 1986; Hisrich and Brush, 1984, 1987; Loscocco et al., 1991)” (p.439).

“Another cultural issue is gender inequality. Most women in the workforce are in the category of low paid work and that women only own 15 per cent of business enterprises in Malaysia. As such, women entrepreneurs generally earn lower revenues and less income than males (Kelley et al., 2011)” (p.440).

“Systematic networking plays a vital role in providing entrepreneurs with a variety of information sources which assist them to accomplish their goals (Ripolles and Blesa, 2005; Welter and Kautonen, 2005) and enhance the participation of women in entrepreneurship (Ahmad and Naimat, 2010)” (p.441).

**Reference**

Rad, A., Yazdanfar, D., & Öhman, P. (2014). Female and male risk aversion. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 6(2), 121-141.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The aim of the paper is to analyse female and male loan officers' (LOs) risk aversion as they assess different types of small- and medium-sized enterprises' (SMEs) loan applications.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The data were gathered from a sample of 75 Swedish LOs, using the repertory grid technique and related questions. The data were analysed statistically.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings demonstrate that female LOs focus more on collateral (used as a proxy for risk aversion) in their evaluations of first-time loan applications than male LOs. However, the findings also suggest that there are no significant differences between the two groups as far as risk aversion when they evaluate additional loan applications. The other variables controlled for (age, tenure, insight, education, and location) did not significantly affect the LOs' risk aversion.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The study might have benefited from the use of complementary data collection approaches. Access to actual assessment and decision-making procedures could have increased the understanding of female and male LOs' attitudes toward risk. Practical implications – The findings suggest that by the use of female-male LO teams, banks may achieve more balanced assessments of SMEs' loan applications.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>To the authors' knowledge, the literature has not explicitly addressed risk aversion among female and male LOs with respect to different types of bank loans. Moreover, the authors investigated risk</p>

	aversion in the context of standardised assessments procedures used to reduce exposure to credit risk.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Risk aversion</li> <li>• Small- and medium-sized enterprises, Assessments procedures,</li> <li>• Bank loan</li> <li>• Female loan officers</li> <li>• Male loan officers</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-6 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are important for job creation and regional growth (Berger and Udell, 2005; Watson et al., 2009). Typically, SMEs require bank loans to start-up as well as to finance their business expansion or to support their underperforming operations (Deakins et al., 2010).</li> <li>• From an information asymmetry perspective, SMEs are generally viewed as riskier borrowers than larger companies (Berger and Udell, 2005).</li> <li>• Previous research suggests that LOs' degree of risk aversion influences their loan assessments. With regard to the difference in risk aversion between female and male LOs, the research results are mixed. On the one hand, Bellucci et al. (2010) concluded that female LOs are more risk-averse, while on the other hand, Beck et al. (2009) demonstrated that female LOs are not necessarily more risk-averse than male LOs. To our knowledge, however, the literature has not explicitly addressed risk aversion among female and male LOs with respect to different types of bank loans.</li> <li>• The setting of our study is Sweden, a country well known for its gender equality in society (Achtenhagen and Tillmar, 2013), and in the workplace (The World Bank, 2011). In the four banks that dominate the Swedish banking market, women comprise between 50 and 55 per cent of all personnel, and between 40 and 45 per cent of all managers.</li> <li>• Berry et al. (2004) interviewed ten LOs in the UK about different lending decisions. These LOs identified the business environment, asset base, debt/equity ratio, availability of collateral, future cash flows and past and current position as relevant information. In a</li> </ul>

	<p>follow-up study, Berry and Robertson (2006) reported on a survey of 54 LOs in the UK. Their statistical analyses identified liquidity, financial stability, profitability, consistency of trends, security (collateral) and cash requirements as important information that these LOs used.</p>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Banking theory</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“From the Lehman Brothers’ default in September 2008-December 2009, commercial bank loans in Sweden decreased by 20 per cent (Statistics Sweden, 2012)” (p. 123).</p> <p>“In a similar vein, Beck et al. (2009) reported that female LOs are not necessarily more risk-averse than male LOs. In their study of the performance statistics for 43,000 loans, they concluded that loans approved and monitored by female LOs tended to perform better than those approved and monitored by male Los” (p. 124).</p>	

**Reference**

Lourenço, F., Sappleton, N., Dardaine-Edwards, A., McElwee, G., Cheng, R., Taylor, D.W., & Taylor, A.G. (2014). Experience of entrepreneurial training for female farmers to stimulate entrepreneurship in Uganda. *Gender in Management: An international journal*, 29(7), 382-401.

Required Element		AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to evaluate the success of a scheme, supported by the Ugandan Agribusiness Initiative Trust, to fund gender and entrepreneurship training for women farmers in the north of Uganda (Gulu District and Lira District). Moreover, this paper reflects upon our experience of delivering training for women farmers and highlights key observations related to women’s entrepreneurship in Uganda.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A practitioner-based reflection which shares the experiences of the process of developing and delivering gender and entrepreneurship training for women in Uganda.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Through the experience of running gender and entrepreneurship training for women farmers in Uganda, a series of barriers to female rural entrepreneurs are highlighted: lack of access to credit, gender inequality, poor infrastructure, lack of access to knowledge and education, negative attitudes towards women and few initiatives to facilitate economic and business success.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This paper provides reflection of the experience gained from the delivery of training and interaction with women farmers and entrepreneurs in Uganda.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developing countries</li> <li>• Uganda</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship education</li> <li>• Rural entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Ugandan women farmers</li> </ul>	



Country	Uganda
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-7 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uganda is a largely agrarian economy where the population continues to depend on agricultural production as the main source of livelihood at the subsistence level.</li> <li>• most farming is non-commercial crop farming, with some very small-scale commercial farming.</li> <li>• Women dominate the agricultural sector, especially at the production level where the primary occupation of at least 80 per cent of rural women is in agriculture. However, whilst 80 per cent of women are occupied working on the land, only 7 per cent of women own the land they cultivate (Mbabazi and Taylor, 2005).</li> <li>• The agricultural sector in Uganda continues to be dominated by women, especially at the production level due to a range of social issues including: change of attitude towards agriculture as a source of livelihood by men; mass internal migration of men and youth from rural areas to urban areas in search of alternative job opportunities; insecurity, especially in northern, western and eastern Uganda that has led to the abduction of men and boys and the displacement of whole communities; and the incidence and growth of HIV/AIDS and other diseases.</li> <li>• The purpose of this paper is to highlight a scheme, supported by the Ugandan Agribusiness Initiative Trust, to fund gender and entrepreneurship training for women farmers in the north of Uganda (Gulu District and Lira District). And to address the challenges of introducing entrepreneurship within the challenging environment of the north of Uganda (Gulu District and Lira District), particularly the agricultural sector</li> <li>• Sub-Saharan Africa has around 875 million people located in 47 different countries, with a gross national product of USD1,266 trillion (World Bank, 2013a). There is USD1,258 gross national income (GNI) per capita, 36 per cent urban population, a life expectancy at birth of 55 years and 70 per cent primary education completion rate. Africa is by far the poorest inhabited continent; despite nearly three decades of development, it is now poorer</li> </ul>

	<p>than it was 25 years ago (Singh and Belwal, 2008). Singh and Belwal (2008, pp. 122-123)</p>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This particular training programme adapted and incorporated many aspects used in an entrepreneurship unit run by a University Business School in the UK, which aims to inspire and stimulate graduate entrepreneurship in the UK. In essence, the program is a three-year series of units called Ideas, Creativity and Entrepreneurship (ICE) that follows the constructivist approach to teaching and is guided by the use of multiple pedagogical techniques (Lourenço et al., 2013).</li> <li>• ICE is designed to allow students to experience the opportunity identification, opportunity validation and opportunity exploitation (actual start-up) stages within the entrepreneurial process. Active participation dominates the learning experience, helping to embed enterprising skills, allows students to experience the entrepreneurial process and promotes graduate entrepreneurship.</li> <li>• The material developed for the ICE units in the UK was used as one of the tools in Women Entrepreneurship Training, a scheme supported by Agribusiness Initiative Trust (2013) targeting women farmers in the north of Uganda (Gulu District and Lira District).</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“As Gatune and Najam (2011) note, as well as the many publicised hurdles and pitfalls, considerable opportunities are emerging in Africa. Innovation, entrepreneurship, technology, knowledge and education are areas that have generated positive news in recent development. In relation to entrepreneurship, agripreneurship is a key theme emerging from the debate about the future of Africa” (p. 384).</p> <p>“The role of female entrepreneurship in economic development and growth in both the developed and developing world has attracted growing attention in recent years (Minniti and Langowitz, 2007)” (p. 387).</p> <p>“Singh and Belwal (2008) suggest that women entrepreneurs in the medium-sized enterprise sector in Kenya is around 47.7 per cent, with a dominance in leather and textile, retail, entertainment and other manufacturing sectors. In Tanzania, women comprise some 36 per cent of entrepreneurs and over 75 per cent of female employment 387 Experience of entrepreneurial training for female farmers is created in the trade, restaurant or hotel category. In Ethiopia, small-scale enterprises employ 1.5 million people, and women entrepreneurs represent the majority of these enterprises” (p. 387).</p>	

“Dzisi (2008) indicates that indigenous Ghanaian women made substantial contributions to the economic growth and social development in terms of innovation, job creation, reduction in poverty and unemployment” (p. 388).

“Akudugu et al. (2009) investigate women farmers’ access to credit from rural banks in the Upper East Region of Ghana. This study found that factors such as education, application procedures, access to land, income level, farm size, membership to economic associations, savings, type of crop grown, interest rate and distance to rural banks can restrict or facilitate women farmers’ access to credit from rural banks” (p. 388).

“According to Akudugu et al. (2009), women overall represent around 41 per cent of the total workforce. In 2008, there were around 5.3 million women in the Ugandan labour market. Of these, 80 per cent were employed in agriculture. However, around 42 per cent of women in the labour force are unpaid family workers compared to only 16 per cent of men. In the private sector, women receive lower pay than men on average” (p. 390).

**Reference**

Henry, C., Warren-Smith, I., Martin, L., Scott, L., Ama, N.O., Mangadi, K.T., & Ama, H.A. (2014). Exploring the challenges facing women entrepreneurs in informal cross-border trade in Botswana. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 9(3), 206-228.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper aims to look at Botswana women entrepreneurs involved in informal cross-border trade (ICBT). It addresses the following questions: What is the nature of the entrepreneurship activities that the women engage in, the funding sources and profitability of the businesses? How has the business helped to enhance women's economic empowerment? What are the factors that influence participation of women in these businesses and their challenges?</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study used both qualitative and quantitative methods in studying the challenges faced by Botswana women entrepreneurs in ICBT. A sample of 319 women were identified for study using a combination of the systematic sampling method and snowball techniques. Questionnaires were administered on the sampled women by trained research assistants. In addition, key informant interviews and focus group discussion were conducted on selected women entrepreneurs and key personnel from the Ministry of Trade and Industry, Customs and Immigration Offices at the border posts.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The study revealed that the majority of the women (67 per cent) were under 35 years of age, 69 per cent had very little education (senior secondary certificate and below), 41 per cent were unemployed and 44 per cent were single (never married). The women traded mainly in agricultural products and industrial goods. Raising income for the families (49 per cent) ranked highest as the push factor for the women entrepreneurs. The average monthly profit made by the women was P5916.77409.86 (US\$657.4245.54). The major constraints faced by the women traders were delays at the borders, long hours of travel, time</p>

	<p>away from their homes and stiff competition with other traders. ICBT was shown to be highly profitable for the women entrepreneurs, with gross profit margin on imported goods at 59.5 per cent.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The study limitations included fear that the research assistants are agents of the income tax department disguised as researchers and that the collected information may be passed on to government authorities for the purpose of taxation. It was not possible to evaluate the impact of these feelings by the respondents on the responses. However, “anonymity” was the best strategy for getting information. They were assured in the consent form and orally that information provided was not going to be divulged to any other sources and that the questionnaire does not contain anybody’s personal information which could be used to track the person. Notwithstanding these limitations, the study design was appropriate for the purpose of the research. The instrument was adequate as can be seen from the high values of the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (0.90) and knowledgeable research assistants who collected the data under the supervision of the authors. Practical implications – The women entrepreneurs were able to generate substantial incomes and profits that enabled them to improve the livelihood of the families and empowered them to themselves take major decisions in their families. The educational status of the women needs to be improved, as this will be necessary to improve their entrepreneurial skills.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>Reduction in internal taxes on imported goods by the women can enhance the profitability of the businesses.</p> <p>Originality/value – The study is highly original, especially as no such study has been undertaken in Botswana before. The methodology used is very adequate and specially articulated to achieve the objective of the study. The research assistants were well-trained for this assignment.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Agricultural products</li> <li>• Industrial goods</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cross-sectional</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Botswana</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-8 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Our study also reveals that profit from the business and personal savings were the main sources of capital for business operation and expansion. Start-up capital was mainly raised through family members and friends. The lack of access to start-up capital and finance presented another barrier to business expansion. Joubert (2004), and Hamilton and Rivera (2003) describe these as some of the difficulties women SME owners encounter in their business.</li> <li>• It is also recognized that women are loath to ask for financing because they are reluctant to take responsibility for the money that does not belong to them (Kaufman, 2007). However, notwithstanding these difficulties, the women in this study were able to generate profits from their businesses, and these have improved the living conditions of their families, enhanced their family’s nutritional status and boosted the health-seeking behaviour of their households.</li> <li>• High taxes, high default rates in payment by debtors or customers, long delays in payment by customers and losses due to damaged or stolen goods were some of the problems experienced by the women entrepreneurs in this study.</li> <li>• The study identified initial start-up capital and years in the business as being both positively correlated and significant predictors of the profit realized from the businesses.</li> <li>• The study also revealed that many women traders do not have access to credit from financial institutions and rely mostly on relatives and friends (UNIFEM, 2008; Njikam and Tcshoussai, 2011) for their start-up capital. In such cases, the amount of initial capital that is likely to be raised is very limited and profits generated from the businesses tend to be small</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	Theory Name: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Multiple regression model</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	

“Between 2009 and 2010, 19.3 per cent of Botswana’s population lived below the national poverty line; in rural areas, this figure was 24.3 per cent, with the majority being women. Female-headed households proved vulnerable both in rural and urban areas (Statistics Botswana, 2013)” (p. 506).

“Ahl (2006), in discussing the findings of 81 research articles (73 empirical and 8 conceptual) on women’s entrepreneurship published between 1982 and 2000 in four leading entrepreneurship research journals (Ahl, 2004), concluded that research on women entrepreneurs suffers from a number of shortcomings, including a one-sided empirical focus (Gatewood et al. 2003); a lack of theoretical grounding (Brush, 1992); the neglect of structural, historical and cultural factors (Chell and Baines, 1998); and the use of male-gendered measuring instruments (Moore, 1990; Stevenson, 1990)” (p. 507).

“The OECD (2004) report emphasizes that women’s entrepreneurship needs to be studied separately for two main reasons. First, women’s entrepreneurship has been recognized during the past decade as an important untapped source of economic growth. Second, the topic of women’s entrepreneurship has been largely neglected by both society in general and the social sciences” (p. 508).

“Fielden and Davidson (2012) reported that the degree of discrimination experienced was as a result of gender, ethnic background or an intersection between the two. This was attributed to a number of factors, including stereotypical difficulties in accessing different types of formal social support, e.g. formal business and financial support. Informal support by respondents’ families was reported as a key source of both emotional and instrumental support” (p. 508).

**Reference**

Pablo-Martí, F., García-Tabuenca, A., & Crespo-Espert, J.L. (2014). Do gender-related differences exist in Spanish entrepreneurial activities?. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 6(2), 200-214.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Academic research has endeavoured to understand women’s behaviours in entrepreneurial activity, identifying the differences when compared to men. The main topics analysed show similar findings in relation to characteristics and motivations, leadership style, strategic choice, obstacles and results. This paper delves further into these differences by examining the personal characteristics of entrepreneurs, the motivation to enter the activity and the performance of their enterprises. The paper aims to discuss these issues.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The authors study Spanish entrepreneurial activity using a survey carried out in 2009 of 608 randomly selected entrepreneurs. The main methods used are descriptive analyses and logistic estimations.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>There were two groups of entrepreneurial women with different profiles and results: the first group comprises a variety of sectors reflecting the economy’s average, and the second mainly operates in those sectors traditionally considered as female. Male and female reasons for success and survival are found to be substantially the same, but personal characteristics and motivations were found to be different. Among the differences found, it is worth highlighting the amount of time devoted by entrepreneurial women to household chores, the higher proportion of women in the staff they employ, and their commitment to product and service innovation.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>The findings point to some ideas in terms of policies regarding entrepreneurial activity and gender. The</p>



	<p>women's greater commitment to innovation in goods and services suggests new approaches in policies aimed at promoting the entry of women in entrepreneurial activity.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The main findings of the paper are consistent with relevant existing literature, but the results offer new insights that contribute to improving the knowledge of the dynamics of entrepreneurial women.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Management</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Gender-related differences</li> <li>• Female enterprises</li> <li>• Spanish labour market</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Spain</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-9 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The findings point to some ideas in terms of policies regarding entrepreneurial activity and gender. The women's greater commitment to innovation in goods and services suggests new approaches in policies aimed at promoting the entry of women into entrepreneurial activity.</li> <li>• Jalbert (2000) estimates that barely 25 per cent of businesses are owned by women in the most advanced economies. However, these gender differences are decreasing (Coughlin and Thomas, 2002).</li> <li>• Three specific areas of focus are taken into consideration: personal characteristics, reasons for becoming an entrepreneur, and results of the entrepreneurial activity.</li> <li>• Gender stereotypes, vertical segmentation of the labour market and less experience in financial management all seem to contribute to creating a barrier to female entrepreneurs accessing the level of credit needed for their entrepreneurial activity (Muravyev et al., 2009; Coleman and Robb, 2009).</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender stereotype</li> <li>• Human capital theory</li> <li>• Vertical segmentation</li> </ul>

### **Key citations from the article**

“The various motivations influencing women to become entrepreneurs, as identified in Schwartz’s (1976) seminal work, are not notably different to the three groups of Gender-related differences 207motivations indicated by Hayter (1997 pg208) two decades later for all entrepreneurs (quality of life, labour satisfaction and obtaining of income). Findings in relation to these motivations for Spanish entrepreneurial women are as follows” (p. 207).

“Entrepreneurial women tend to belong to favoured social classes (Brush and Hisrich, 1991), have higher qualifications than men but with deficiencies in financial and technical areas (Verheul and Thurik, 2001)” (p. 201).

“With regard to the strategic choices adopted in the start-up, maturity and consolidation stages of their activities, entrepreneurial women tend to select different industries to those chosen by men (Coleman and Robb, 2009)” (p. 202).

“Gender stereotypes, vertical segmentation of the labour market and less experience in financial management all seem to contribute to creating a barrier to female entrepreneurs accessing the level of credit needed for their entrepreneurial activity (Muravyev et al., 2009; Coleman and Robb, 2009)” (p. 202).

## Reference

Abbasian, S., & Yazdanfar, D. (2013). Exploring the financing gap between native born women-and immigrant women-owned firms at the start-up stage. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 5(2), 157-173.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>
	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The main purpose of this study is to provide empirical evidence which identifies the impact of ethnicity and other relevant variables on external capital acquisition among Swedish women-owned businesses at start-up.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Several methods have been employed to analyze the sample including a binary logistic regression model. The sample consists of 836 women-owned businesses in southeast Sweden; 97 immigrant-owned, 739 native born-owned.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results indicate that there are partly significant differences between native women-owned firms and immigrant woman-owned businesses at start-up. Unlike the native-owned firms, the immigrant woman-owned businesses rely more on loans from family members and less on bank loans.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The results reveal that age has a positive impact on loans from family members, while the additional job outside one's own business, the amount of the owner's personal start-up capital and firm size positively influenced access to capital from banks. The owners' level of education, previous business experience, the legal form taken by the firm and the industry affiliation conversely played no significant role in explaining the women owners' attitudes toward loans from either friends or the bank.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>To the authors' knowledge, this study is the first empirical investigation addressing this issue in the Swedish context.</p>

<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ethnicity</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Small business</li> <li>• Startup Capital</li> <li>• Small enterprises</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Corporate ownership</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-10 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Research on immigrant women’s entrepreneurship in Sweden is still limited compared to countries such as the USA, the UK and Canada. One possible explanation is that this phenomenon is relatively new in Sweden compared to typical net-migration countries such as the USA, the UK and Canada.</li> <li>• Several studies on women entrepreneurship have been conducted in recent decades. These have been mostly of a descriptive or explorative nature, and without a deeper focus on the mechanisms behind gender inequalities in entrepreneurship. Ahl (2004, 2006), who criticizes such studies, suggests that they suffer from several shortcomings, including a lack of power, feminist perspective and critical analysis.</li> <li>• Other research (Sena et al., 2012) confirms that women, in general, are less likely than men to apply for external finance, and that gender differences/disadvantages in access to finance impact negatively upon women’s willingness to start a business.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Binary logistic regression</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“Blanchflower et al. (2003) did not hesitate to conclude that discrimination on the part of banks combined with certain characteristics of the concerned ventures and the associated parties – including the entrepreneurs’ age, previous bankruptcy history and general creditworthiness, as well as the size, sale and location of the firm, its industrial sector, etc. all of which might play some role in explaining the favouring of native born women entrepreneurs over women and men minority – mostly black – entrepreneurs” (p. 160).</p> <p>“Papadaki and Chami (2002), in their survey on growth determinants of micro-businesses in Canada (including the small businesses typical of immigrants) counted up to 13 potentially impactful factors affecting the growth of these businesses which might have some direct connection to the characteristics of the owner. The factors considered were</p>	

gender, age, immigrant status, education, risk taking, desire for independence, unemployment as their initial motivation, a job outside of the proposed business, previous businesses in the family, knowledge of the current industry, previous business ownership and access to advisors and partners” (p. 160).

“Previous research has confirmed, however, that women face greater difficulties than do men in raising venture capital or securing bank loans (Brush et al., 2004; Fuller-Love et al., 2006; Muravyev et al., 2007)” (p. 159).

**Reference**

Kovalainen, A., & Österberg-Högstedt, J. (2013). Entrepreneurship within social and health care: A question of identity, gender and professionalism. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 5(1), pp.17-35.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>                      <b>abstract</b></p> <p>(indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This article aims to look first at how entrepreneurial identity fits into the picture we currently have of social and health care professionals who most often work in paid employment in the public sector, and second, how entrepreneurial identity is constructed. We discuss whether professional identity and entrepreneurial identity can be separated, and how meaningful that question is. Is the role of entrepreneurship limited in the context of health and social care professional services, or can we see the emergence of a new kind of entrepreneurial identity with special features related to the complexity within the provision of services in social and health care?</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The materials from two previous studies by the authors are used in the article as empirical data to investigate the questions of identity and professionalism. The methodology is based on re-reading and re-interpretation of both empirical studies and theoretical literature.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>There are differences and different logics of work-related identity building among the entrepreneurial groups and among professional groups. Despite this and even if part of the research tradition emphasizes this difference and the separateness of these identities, we argue that identities are fluid, changing, layered and overlapping. As identities cannot be predetermined or classified according to economic earnings logic only, but that they are malleable, evolving, interconnected, and intertwined. In addition, the paper raises the contradiction of stereotypically “masculine” entrepreneurial goals and the stereotypically “female” ideology of care existing as tension within entrepreneurship in social and health care.</p>

	<p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The research limitations relate to the research design of not using ethnographical data. Practical implications – The article has no direct practical implications. The results might have relevance to education. Social implications – The article has social implications in the ways the identities are discussed through various discourses in the societies.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The article has both originality in the settings and value in bringing different discussions together, as well as in its ability to widen the theoretical discussions and empirical studies on identities, paid employment and entrepreneurship.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Social care</li> <li>• Health care</li> <li>• Professions</li> <li>• Identity</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Intersectionality</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<p>-</p>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-11 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Occupations in health care and social care are overwhelmingly gendered. The strong gender segregation of occupations, which typically assigns caring jobs to women and technical jobs to men, has been recognised as a major source of inequality worldwide. Within segregation, both vertical and horizontal segregation is gendered by nature. While some researchers perceive professionalism as a neutral phenomenon, writers from various feminist traditions have pointed out that men have set the standards through which work is defined (Davies, 1996; Witz, 1994).</li> <li>• Care itself is an essentially contested concept since its constituent features are – and have been – the subject of lively debate over time (Tronto, 1993, 2011; Hochschild, 2001; Beasley and Bacchi, 2007).</li> <li>• There is a stronger need to emphasise the business idea and package one’s own capabilities into a marketable format for semi-professions, such as nursing or other care-</li> </ul>

	<p>related occupations, than for strong professions such as lawyers and dentists.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There are differences and different logics of work-related identity building among the entrepreneurial groups and among professional groups.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identity</li> <li>• Intersectionality</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“It is both theoretically and methodologically problematic that most of the entrepreneurial research analysing identity questions focuses on established entrepreneurs, and that study material is gathered from them (Navis and Glynn, 2011; Aldrich and Ruef, 2006; Lounsbury and Glynn, 2001; Anderson and Hughes, 2010)” (p. 19).</p> <p>“For very different reasons, neither entrepreneurialism nor strong professionalism has been self-evident in health care occupations. Many of the occupations within health care and social care, such as nursing, have historically been considered as “naturally” feminine (Wrede, 2010; Sandall et al., 2009), and for that reason, not considered as real professions among other professions, such as doctors and lawyers” (p. 20).</p> <p>“We consider gender to be a pervasive element in terms of entrepreneurship (Eddleston and Powell, 2008; Hughes, 2003; Orhan and Scott, 2001; Sundin, 1997; Kovalainen, 1995; Sundin and Holmquist, 1989; Tillmar, 2004; Kovalainen and O”sterberg-Ho”gstedt, 2008), and especially with regard to the kind of work where the majority of those in paid employment and in entrepreneurship roles are women” (p. 20).</p> <p>“The concept of identity (Hall, 1999; Williams, 2000 pg22), the construction of identity (Berger and Luckmann, 1995/1966 pg22) and the construction of identity within entrepreneurship have all attracted considerable attention over the last decade (Cohen and Musson, 2000; Down and Warren, 2008; Gustavsson and Ro”nnqvist, 2006; Hytti, 2003; Lindgren and Wa”hlin, 2001; Nadin, 2007; Sundin, 2004, 2006; Vesala et al., 2007; Warren, 2004)” (p. 22).</p>	



**Reference**

Zolin, R., Stuetzer, M., & Watson, J. (2013). Challenging the female underperformance hypothesis. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, (2), 116-129.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The question of whether female-owned firms underperform male-owned firms has triggered much research and discussion. Klapper and Parker’s review concluded that the majority of prior research suggests that female-owned firms underperform relative to male-owned firms. However, using performance measures that control for size and risk (and after controlling for demographic differences such as industry, experience and hours worked) Robb and Watson found no gender performance difference in their sample of newly established US firms. The aim of this study, therefore, is to replicate Robb and Watson’s study to determine whether their findings can be generalized to another geographical location, Australia.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The authors test the female underperformance hypothesis using data from the CAUSEE project, a panel study which follows young firms over four years. They use three outcome variables: survival rates, return on assets and the Sharpe ratio. Findings – Consistent with Robb and Watson the results indicate that female-owned firms do not underperform male-owned firms.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>While replication studies are rare in entrepreneurship, they are an important tool for accumulating generalizable knowledge. The results suggest that while female-owned firms differ from male-owned firms in terms of many control variables (such as industry, owners’ previous experience and hours worked) they are no less successful. This outcome should help dispel the female underperformance myth; which if left unchallenged could result in inappropriate policy decisions and, more importantly, could discourage women from establishing new ventures.</p>

<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship education and training</li> <li>• Female-owned firms</li> <li>• Business performance</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-12 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Klapper and Parker (2011) conclude that the majority of prior research has found that female-owned firms underperform male-owned firms and, further, this finding appears to hold true even when controlling for key firm demographic differences (such as age and industry). However, Robb and Watson (2012) argue that much of this prior research has been based on inappropriate performance measures that do not take into account the level</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social feminist theory</li> <li>• Liberal feminist theory</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“Robb and Watson (2012) point out that when it comes to speculating about likely gender differences in firm performance there appears to be two schools of thought that prevail: liberal feminist theory and social feminist theory (Fischer et al., 1993)” (p. 117).</p> <p>“Anna et al. (2000, p. 279) suggest that one possible explanation for any systematic difference in firm performance by gender might be because: [...] female business ownership is concentrated primarily in the retail and service industries where businesses are relatively smaller in terms of employment and revenue as opposed to high technology, construction, and manufacturing” (p. 119).</p> <p>“Hutchinson et al. (1938) note that ventures requiring little capital can be expected to have higher closure rates because when large amounts of capital are at stake the owners are likely to make a more thorough investigation of the new venture’s prospects” (p. 119).</p> <p>“Kalleberg and Leicht (1991) point to research showing that larger firms are more likely to survive, while smaller firms are likely to be more profitable” (p. 119).</p>	

**Reference**

Johansen, V. (2013). Entrepreneurship education and start-up activity: a gender perspective. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 5(2), 216-231.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Abstract</p> <p>Purpose</p> <p>This article seeks to evaluate whether entrepreneurship education (EE) in upper secondary schools promotes male and female start-up activity. The Company programme (CP) reaches more than 200,000 European youths annually.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The control-group design is methodologically strong, and the empirical data are from Norway. Telephone interviews were conducted with 1,171 24-25 year olds; 50 per cent of the respondents had been involved in CP in the period 2004-2006, and 50 per cent had not. The analyses also control for other factors of relevance to start-up activity.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Results from econometric analyses indicate a positive correlation between participation in CP and start-up activity. The analyses also indicate that CP has more impact on male start-up activity as compared to women.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>A lot of other influences occur between the participation in CP and the start-up activity. Although CP may be associated with more start-ups, these are not necessarily start-ups of a higher quality, survival rate or growth potential. The analysis also conceals variations in start-up activity among CP-participants with regard to time spent on CP, position in the CP, and obligatory vs voluntary participation.</p> <p>Practical implications</p>

	<p>To promote start-up activity among women more effectively, CP could be more focused on shaping confidence and increasing perceived competency among girls participating in the programme.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>One solution for how to increase start-up activity among young men and women could be to offer EE within upper secondary schools.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The study measures experience with start-up activity 6-8 years after EE-participation in upper secondary school, it compares the impact of EE on male and female business start-ups, and the control-group design is advantageous compared to previous studies.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship education</li> <li>• Company programme</li> <li>• Junior achievement – young enterprise</li> <li>• Start-up activity</li> <li>• Upper secondary school</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Business enterprise</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Norway</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-13 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship education (EE) is seen as key to the promotion of a stronger culture of entrepreneurship among young people (Stevenson and Lundstrom, 2001).</li> <li>• The underrepresentation of women in the creation of new businesses is consistent across cultures and countries (Minitti et al., 2005), and empirical data demonstrates that women’s entrepreneurship represents an important source of economic growth (OECD, 2004).</li> <li>• Previous studies have identified various significant barriers to female entrepreneurship, such as lack of support, fear of failure and lack of competency (Verheul and Thurik, 2001; Wagner, 2007; The’baud, 2010; Tsyganova and Shirakova, 2010; Shinnar et al., 2012).</li> <li>• Although the level of female entrepreneurship appears to be on the rise in many countries, women entrepreneurs are still underrepresented compared to male entrepreneurs (Minitti et al., 2005; Brush et al., 2012).</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Several factors or barriers account for disparities between male and female entrepreneurial activities. The first set of barriers includes difficulties in obtaining institutional support, family support and/or securing financing. Lack of support seems to be a significantly greater problem for women than for men (Heilman and Chen, 2003; Shinnar et al., 2012). The second type of barrier relates to fear of failure, with empirical studies indicating that this has a smaller negative influence on the entrepreneurial propensity for start-up activity for men than for women (Langowitz and Minniti, 2007; Wagner, 2007). A third factor concerns women holding themselves to a stricter standard of competence and being less likely to perceive themselves as able to be entrepreneurs, as compared to men (Kirkwood, 2009).</li> <li>• A fourth factor relates to the question of whether societal values and the gendering of same implicitly interpret women's entrepreneurship as less desirable, and that, consequently, society provides less normative support. In turn, women have less desire to participate in start-up activity (Veciana et al., 2005; Baughn et al., 2006; Langowitz and Minniti, 2007). Other reasons cited in the literature include claims that women are less motivated to pursue self-employment, that there are fewer female role models (Stewart et al., 1998), motherhood and personal goals are found to be inhibiting factors for women entrepreneurs (Fleck et al., 2011), and that entrepreneurship has more disadvantages than being an employee in relation to issues such as pregnancy and role stress (Wincent and Ortqvist, 2009).</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Contrafactual questions</li> <li>• Company Programme (CP)</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“It is thought that long-term solutions to reduce gender differences in entrepreneurship can begin in the education system (Dí'az-García and Jimé'nez-Moreno, 2010)” (p. 219).</p> <p>“In a study from Norway, Johansen and Clausen (2011) conclude that CP stimulates start-up intentions” (p. 219).</p>	

“In a Portuguese study with 74 respondents, do Pac,o et al. (2011) conclude that EE could contribute to the development of entrepreneurial competences and start-up activity” (p. 219).

“EE is one of the fastest growing areas in higher education in Europe (Finkle, 2009), with a significant increase evident in the use of EE in secondary schools” (Martinez et al., 2010)” (p. 227).

“Empirical studies have sought to develop a broad range of indicators for levels and types of start-up activity as well as for the performance of entrepreneurial ventures” (Audretsch, 2003; OECD, 2009)” (p. 222).

**Reference**

Fielden, S., & Davidson, M.J. (2012). BAME women business owners: how intersectionality affects discrimination and social support. *Gender in management: An international journal*, 27(8), 559-581.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The aim of this paper is to explore the intersection between gender and ethnicity in relation to discrimination and the problems encountered in accessing social support (including emotional and instrumental support) experienced by Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) women business owners.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Qualitative data were collected through in-depth interviews with 40 BAME women small business owners based in North West England. The main aims and objectives of the study were to: investigate the discriminatory experiences of BAME women small business owners related to the intersection between their gender and ethnicity, and to identify the forms (formal and informal) and types (emotional/instrumental) of social support available in relation to their entrepreneurial activities that enabled them to cope with and overcome, the discrimination they may encounter.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The degree of discrimination experienced was reported as a result of gender, ethnic background or an intersection between both. This was attributed to a number of factors, including stereotypical difficulties in accessing different types of formal social support, e.g. formal business and financial support. Informal support by respondents' families was reported as a key source of both emotional and instrumental support.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>This paper is just a starting point for this area of research and, because the sample covers women from a variety of BAME backgrounds, it is not possible to</p>

	<p>generalise the findings to the wider population of BAME women. However, it does give an indication of what issues need to be considered in the provision of instrumental support for BAME women small business owners.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The paper shows that a key element in the development of a strategy for addressing the needs of the BAME women small business owners is the necessity to appropriately re-design mainstream business support systems and financial services, in order to provide these women effective access to formal social support.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The experiences of BAME women small business owners have received little attention and this paper offers a unique insight into the relationship between how the intersection between gender and ethnicity impact on experiences of discrimination and social support. Whilst it highlights many intra group differences, it has also demonstrated the lack of homogeneity between and within women from different ethnic backgrounds.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Black Asian and minority ethnic</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Small business owners</li> <li>• Discrimination</li> <li>• Social support</li> <li>• Intersectionality</li> <li>• Ethnic minorities</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-14 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Over the years, the academic literature investigating the small firm sector has covered a range of disciplinary perspectives, such as start-up patterns, characteristics and motivation of entrepreneurs (Fielden and Davidson, 2005). However, until very recently the UK literature almost universally regarded business owners as White men, with women business owners of any background receiving much less attention (Carter et al., 2001).</li> <li>• The experiences of BAME female small business owners have received little attention</li> </ul>



	<p>(Ram and Smallbone, 2003), although US studies have suggested that in terms of occupational choices and entrepreneurial resources, women were more disadvantaged than men and minority women more disadvantaged than White women, implying that they “had a high level of persistence in the face of their relative disadvantages” (Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2004, p. 19).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The intersection between gender and ethnicity suggests that discrimination is not just limited to one aspect of the lives of BAME women business owners, i.e. their business, personal or community lives.</li> <li>• Access to financial capital is critical during business start-up and undercapitalization during enterprise formation and development leads to underperformance during the life of the business (Shaw et al., 2009).</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intersectionality</li> </ul>

**Key citations from the article**

“Since the 1980s, the promotion of small business ownership amongst BAME groups in the UK has been an important feature in the government’s policy agenda for small and medium enterprises. According to Ram and Smallbone (2003, p. 152), “this increasing engagement with BAME business owners is a part of the “competitive agenda”, as ethnic minority-owned firms constituted an important segment of the small business ownership” (p. 560).

“Findings seemed in line with the few studies that have focused previously on South Asian women (Dhaliwall, 2000; Dawe and Fielden, 2005) and men (Ram and Sparrow, 1993; Ram et al., 2002 pg570) in self-employment in the UK” (p. 570).

“In a study on the business start-up experiences of Asian women in the UK, Dawe and Fielden (2005, p. 241) revealed that these kinds of cultural BAME women business owners 573traditions were still significant, with Asian women “demonstrating an unquestioning degree of acceptance” of the cultural expectations imposed upon them” (p. 573).

“Indeed, according to Ram and Smallbone (2003), the low level use of mainstream business support agencies by BAME businesses cannot be solely attributed to the lack of interest on the part of these business owners” (p. 574).

**Reference**

van Hulten, A. (2012). Women's access to SME finance in Australia. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(3), 266-288.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to test whether Australian female and male entrepreneurs differ in their growth aspirations and demand for finance; denial, discouragement and financial constraint rates; and sources of finance.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This paper applies logistic regression techniques to data drawn from a comprehensive survey of Australian small- and medium-sized businesses, which was conducted in 2010.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>After controlling for a wide range of firm, owner and risk characteristics, female entrepreneurs are found to have lower growth aspirations than males but do not differ in their demand for business finance. Gender does not influence the probability of reporting denial, discouragement or financial constraint. Females and males do not differ significantly in the types of finance that they use.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The online survey had a low response rate.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>First, the paper tests the proposition that gender mediates demand for finance whilst controlling for a wide range of firm, owner and risk variables. Second, the paper tests whether female entrepreneurs are more likely than males to be financially constrained, that is, to have foregone viable investment opportunities due to inadequate access to finance. In doing so, it endeavours to reconcile the financial discrimination and financial constraint literatures. Third, the paper tests whether gender produces its effects in interaction with owners' migration status.</p>

<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Financial constraints</li> <li>• Discouraged borrowers</li> <li>• Financial discrimination</li> <li>• Small to medium-sized enterprises</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Australia</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-15 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In Australia, there are no gender-based differences in the demand for finance. Possibly, there are gendered-based differences in growth aspirations and risk aversion which have the greatest impact on firm start-up, for example, influencing business plans and the types of firms that women start.</li> <li>• There are no gender-based differences in the sources of business finance. There are no gender-based differences in levels of self-reported financial constraint; that is, women are no more likely than men to report foregoing investment opportunities due to inadequate access to external finance.</li> <li>• Female migrant entrepreneurs in Australia do not differ from other groups in their access to business finance. Interestingly, female migrants are significantly less likely than other groups to regard access to external finance as important for achieving firm goals.</li> <li>• The main policy implication is that Australia’s financial markets do not appear to discriminate against established female-owned firms. This does not mean, however, that the Australian financial system does not respond to inherited inequities. As Carter et al. (2007) and Shaw et al. (2010) argue, the techniques used in this paper render indicators of a systemic disadvantage as exogenous risk factors. Indeed, our results demonstrate that small, young and home-based firms face particular difficulties accessing finance and that these types of firms are more likely to be owned by women</li> <li>• More research is required to test how gender, migrant status and ethnicity interact to influence access to business finance. Such research is particularly important in the developed world where studies that focus on</li> </ul>

	<p>women or migrants in isolation tend to find few statistically significant effects. It may be the case, however, that important sub-groups, such as Asian migrant females in Australia (Collins and Low, 2010), face unique difficulties accessing business finance that are overlooked by previous studies. Put differently, different migrant communities have unique social constructions of gender which may influence their attitudes towards, and access to, external business finance.</p>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This paper addresses several gaps in the literature. First, while studies recognize that gender may influence the demand for finance, few studies test this proposition directly. Gender-based differences in risk aversion and growth aspirations, which receive some empirical support, are “one step removed” from the question of demand for finance.</li> <li>• This paper addresses this gap, albeit partially, by testing whether an entrepreneur’s gender has an independent effect on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The priority is given to firm growth; and</li> <li>• The importance of access to business finance.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“A significant amount of research explores whether males and females differ in terms of their access to start-up capital. Studies from the USA (Carter et al., 1997; Coleman, 2000; Treichel and Scott, 2006; Coleman and Robb, 2009), the UK(Carter and Rosa, 1998; Roper and Scott, 2009; Sena et al., 2010), and The Netherlands (Verheul and Thurik, 2001) demonstrate that women tend to start their firms with less external capital” (p. 268).</p> <p>“Several US studies that control for a wide range of firm, owner and risk variables find no significant relationship between gender and the probability of credit denial (Cavalluzzo and Cavalluzzo, 1998; Blanchflower et al., 2003; Cavalluzzo and Wolken, 2005; Treichel and Scott, 2006; Coleand Mehran, 2011). However, Cavalluzzo et al. (2002) find that females are denied credit more often in concentrated markets, suggesting Becker-type discrimination. In Canada, Fabowale et al. (1995) and Riding and Swift (1990) find no difference between men and women in loan and line of credit denial rates. Muravyev et al. (2009) provide strong evidence that gender plays an important role in mediating access to finance in developing countries” (p. 268).</p> <p>“Studies from the USA (Cavalluzzo et al., 2002 Robb and Wolken, 2002; Cole and Mehran, 2011), the UK (Fraser, 2004; Freel et al., 2012)and Australia (Watson et al., 2009) find that women are no more likely than men to be discouraged from applying for business finance. Using a US data set for 1987-2001, Treichel and Scott (2006) find that women are more likely than men not to apply for business loans, although the issue of discouragement is not addressed directly” (p. 269).</p>	

“With regards to credit volumes, Treichel and Scott (2006) find that women in the US receive smaller loans than men. Agier and Szafarz (2011) find a similar effect for customers of a Brazilian micro-finance institution. Coleman and Robb (2009) find those female entrepreneurs raise less external debt than men in the second and third years of firm life” (p.269).

“There is significant evidence that female and male entrepreneurs differ in the types of finance that they use. Women are less likely than men to source external finance in the form of bank loans (Fay and Williams, 1993; Riding and Swift, 1990; Carter et al., 1997; Coleman, 2000, 2002; Treichel and Scott, 2006), venture capital (Brush et al., 2002; Carter et al., 2003; Greene et al., 2001) and equity (Orser et al., 2006). Female entrepreneurs are more likely than men to rely on personal and family sources of finance (Haynes and Haynes, 1999; Coleman, 2000; Arenius and Autio, 2006)” (p.270).

**Reference**

Orser, B., Elliott, C., & Findlay-Thompson, S. (2012). Women-focused small business programming: client motives and perspectives. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(3), 236-265.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to draw on feminist ethics of care theory to examine motives for accessing a women-focused, small business programme (Centre). Perceived differences between women-focused and other small business advisory agencies are discussed.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>An online survey captured verbatim responses from 212 respondents. Qualitative data were subjected to content analysis using NVivo8.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Most respondents were growth-oriented, well educated and employed prior to start-up. Clients employed the Centre for three reasons, including acquisition of managerial, social capital and gender-related motives. The Centre was perceived as being “different” to other agencies such that staff implicitly understood their needs as businesswomen, services were targeted specifically to women and clients felt empowered and comfortable seeking business advice in an inviting, low risk learning environment.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Contradict studies and argument that targeted (gender-based) programming offers few advantages.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Future research might investigate how “gendered” client motives and learning needs are reflected in mainstream and gender-based entrepreneurship policy and programme design. The geographic scope is limited to Nova Scotia (eastern Canada).</p> <p>Practical implications</p>

	<p>The study helps to explain observations that women-focused small business training centres are modifying mandates from a focus on start-up to growth, modifications that reflected client aspirations.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The study provides insights about the genderedness (Calás and Smircich) of small business programming and helps to define feminine ethics of care within the small firm training context.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Small business</li> <li>• Motivation</li> <li>• Ethics of care</li> <li>• Training</li> <li>• Ethics</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Canada</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-16 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This study has examined the perceptions of a sample of clients of a Canadian women-focused small business centre.</li> <li>• This study provides a theoretical perspective to explain how women-focused Programmes perceived competitive advantage. Client perceptions suggest that the Centre’s staff share a “women’s perspective”. This is accomplished through relationship reciprocity that leads to empowerment. Again, clients were seen to relate more easily to the experiences of other women business owners, as noted by Hadary (2010) in feminist theory. Clients also perceive value (competitive advantage) in the knowledge acquired, know-how that may ultimately enhance enterprise performance.</li> <li>• While education and training are seen to enhance entrepreneurs’ self-efficacy, skills and competencies (Ehrlich et al., 2000), there remains a lack of consensus about the need for and legitimacy of women-focused small business programmes and entrepreneurship policy (Byrne and Fayolle, 2010; Walker and Joyner, 1999; Welter, 2004). Understanding client motives may inform policy and help to refine service delivery.</li> <li>• Most of the programming now offered through the public sector and much of the private sector is dated and focused on individuals who want to start a</li> </ul>

	<p>business. While these programs are important and meet a need, there are few solid programmes that actually generate information and knowledge and engage entrepreneurs – especially women and minorities – to grow their businesses. The programs that do exist have little, if any, evaluative research behind their claims (Pordeli and Wynkoop, 2009).</p>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the theoretical underpinning of small business training programmes and policy is elusive. In response, this study draws on social feminist theory and specifically “ethics of care” (Burton and Dunn, 1996; Machold et al., 2008) to inform the research questions.</li> <li>• the objective of this study is to examine client motives for accessing a women-focused small business programme. Perceived differences between women-focused and other small business advisory agencies are also discussed.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Research has suggested that female business owners benefit from training support in at least five knowledge domains: networking activities, mentoring opportunities; financial literacy, technology adoption, and access to markets (Byrne and Fayolle, 2010; Canadian Taskforce for Women’s Business Growth, 2011; Forson, 2006; Orser and Riding, 2006; Puechner and Diegelmann, 2007), most small business training programme evaluation studies are primarily descriptive and/or report on criteria such as incremental job creation and loan default rates (Rindova et al., 2009). It is not clear if demand or client focused motives and needs align with supplier definitions of programme success, including non-pecuniary outcomes of programme participation” (p. 237).</p> <p>“The business case was evidenced in Roomi and Harrison’s (2010) study of the University of Bedfordshire Business School’s Centre for Women’s Enterprise (England). Programmes that were most in demand focused on business development, including innovation and opportunity recognition, business evaluation and growth considerations, developing strategic customers and customers care, customer relationship management, selling, networking and negotiation skills. Roomi and Harrison (2008, p. 687) also reported that only 28 percent of clients received training related to enterprise growth” (p.239).</p> <p>“Given the lack of evidence-based policy, entrepreneurship programme evaluation criteria are also typically defined from the supplier (government, funder) perspective rather than client need. This is further evidenced by the absence of research about gender-streamed training and assistance programme design and delivery (Byrne and Fayolle, 2010). Cala’s and Smircich (1989, p. 5)” (p. 239).</p> <p>“Some women business owners perceive value in gender-segregated small business training. This conclusion provides evidence that entrepreneurial training agencies should</p>	



be alert to learning needs and different types or modes of knowledge acquisition by entrepreneurs. These suggestions are consistent with the work of Wilson et al. (2007) who have observed that compared to men, entrepreneurial training was particularly effective for women in raising self-efficacy. Wilson et al. (2007) also reported that access to entrepreneurial training may not be sufficient and that gender-focused entrepreneurial training must be specifically designed to increase women's self-efficacy" (p. 256).

**Reference**

Pettersson, K. (2012). Support for women's entrepreneurship: a Nordic spectrum. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(1), 4-19.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to analyse national state support programmes for women's entrepreneurship, in the Nordic countries, from a gender perspective.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>From an analytical gender perspective based on a combination of Mayoux's framework of paradigms in support of women's entrepreneurship, Rees' approach to gender equality and Bacchi's analysis of what the problem is represented to be, the author performs a systematic comparative analysis of the varying policy goals, underlying paradigms and approaches in state support programmes for women's entrepreneurship in the Nordic countries.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The author concludes that all Nordic countries, with the exception of Iceland, have a programme or an action plan to support women's entrepreneurship, but vary in their underlying paradigms and rationales. The author places Norway at one end of the spectrum because its policy programme is most clearly influenced by a feminist empowerment paradigm intended to transform and/or tailor the existing support system through various measures. At the other end of the spectrum is Denmark, which most clearly focuses on economic growth in line with a neo-liberal paradigm. Between these extremes, are Sweden, Finland and Iceland. The analysis reveals that state support programmes, in the name of supporting women entrepreneurs, tend to put women in a subordinate position to men and thereby risk sustaining a male norm.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper contributes a much-needed systematic comparative analysis of support for women's entrepreneurship in the Nordic countries. This</p>

	analysis is important in order to further the discussion of how policy actors can refrain from putting women in a secondary position to men, and thus avoid sustaining a male norm in entrepreneurship support.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Government policy</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Women's entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Policy support</li> <li>• Nordic countries</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nordic countries-Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-17 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A brief workshop report on supporting women's entrepreneurship in the Nordic countries indicates differences among countries regarding these policies. Denmark had no policy for women's entrepreneurship at the time, whereas Sweden invested comparatively large amounts of funding in these policies (DAMWAD/NICE, 2007). However, a more systematic comparative analysis of the varying policy goals and underlying paradigms regarding support for women's entrepreneurship in Nordic countries is still lacking, and that is the contribution of this paper.</li> <li>• To analyse the support programmes for women's entrepreneurship, I designed an approach that builds on a framework developed by Mayoux (2001) and applied by Wilson et al. (2004) and Braidford and Stone (2008). This framework analysed three distinct paradigms underlying current debates on best practice for supporting the development of women's micro and small enterprises employing up to 50 people. According to Mayoux, the three paradigms differ in their approaches to gender and the ways in which gender issues have been inserted into male and mainstream arguments. These paradigms are The neo-liberal market paradigm, feminist empowerment paradigm and neo-liberal market paradigm.</li> <li>• The analysis reveals that the Nordic countries vary in their underlying paradigms and rationales for supporting women's entrepreneurship. Norway at one end of the spectrum because its policy programme is most clearly influenced by a feminist empowerment paradigm seeking to tailor and/or transform the</li> </ul>

	<p>existing support system through measures aimed at women.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I have found that Norway can be placed at one end of a spectrum because its policy programme is most clearly influenced by a feminist empowerment paradigm seeking to tailor and/or transform the existing support system, although it is also influenced by other paradigms</li> <li>• Denmark is focused most clearly on economic growth in line with the neo-liberal paradigm. The Danish denial of any problems with the existing system facilitates only cosmetic changes in the support programmes for women’s entrepreneurship.</li> <li>• Sweden, Finland and Iceland have a mix of neo-liberal and feminist empowerment paradigms. Programmes in these countries have few transforming gender equity measures and their efforts appear to merely tailor existing systems.</li> <li>• Iceland’s initiatives focus on providing microcredit for women entrepreneurs, which is well in line with a neoliberal paradigm and a tinkering approach to gender equality.</li> <li>• Analysis finds that the most typical problem implicit in the goal formulations of the programmes and action plans is that women contribute too little to economic growth. Another problem is represented as women comprising too small a proportion of entrepreneurs and being over-represented in the public sector, instead of being entrepreneurs in the private sector.</li> <li>• This study concludes that none of the programmes and/or actions plans analysed in this paper builds on a thorough understanding of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs as gendered, conceptually or practically.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Applying a social constructionist feminist perspective in research implies that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs, in concept and practice, are understood as gendered (Ahl, 2006; Ahl and Nelson, 2010; Brush et al., 2009; Pettersson, 2004). “Doing entrepreneurship” is hence “doing gender” (Bruni et al., 2004). However, few studies on (women’s) entrepreneurship have applied this kind of approach, and Ahl (2006) therefore calls for this as a new research direction in women’s entrepreneurship.</li> <li>• In this paper, I respond to the suggestion of an expanded research objective and a shifted epistemological position by studying the gendering of social orders in the form of support systems for women entrepreneurs.</li> </ul>

### **Key citations from the article**

“Researchers such as Braidford and Stone (2008) indicate that distinct women-focused support is necessary because many more women than men perceive starting a business as a way of obtaining a job that fits their domestic responsibilities” (p. 6).

“Tillmar (2006) also argues that special programmes for women entrepreneurs are needed, but sees that these are best promoted in addition to gender awareness among mainstream business providers” (p. 9).

“Wilson et al. (2004) find the interventionist poverty-alleviation paradigm to be strongly present in UK policy because there is a focus on the heterogeneity of women (diverse backgrounds, ethnicity and business desires such as part-time self-employment), social enterprise and “lifestyle” small businesses. In line with this, Rouse and Kitching (2006) find that the arguments for supporting business start-ups by women and people from disadvantaged backgrounds are that they promote social inclusion by enabling excluded groups to take paid work and reduce the social security bill and child poverty” (p. 7).

“A brief Nordic workshop report, DAMWAD/NICe(2006), finds that the challenges in enhancing women’s entrepreneurship are financial insufficiency or lack of financing, lack of advisory systems and mentors, a risk-averse culture among women, work-life balance, heterogeneity of women entrepreneurs, labour market and macroeconomic structures such as a large public sector mainly employing women affecting the “pool” from which women entrepreneurs may be drawn and that further analysis and data collection is needed. A study of support for women’s entrepreneurship in Denmark, The Netherlands, the UK and the US concludes that the most important measures have been accessed to business support, microcredit financing, mentoring and networking activities (Berglund, 2007)” (p. 7).

“In the Nordic countries, it is difficult to imagine a large “pool” of non-economically active women because labour market participation for women is high (Nordic Statistical Year Book, 2008). In addition, the problem of a low proportion of women entrepreneurs in the labour market is implicitly formulated as too many women being employed by the public sector, and claims are made that the country would be better off if they worked in the private sector as entrepreneurs” (p. 13).

**Reference**

Dabic, M., Daim, T., Bayraktaroglu, E., Novak, I., & Basic, M. (2012). Exploring gender differences in attitudes of university students towards entrepreneurship: An international survey. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(3), 316-336.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to understand gender differences in entrepreneurial intentions as measured by perceived feasibility and perceived desirability, and to explore gender differences in perceptions of entrepreneurship education needs – in terms of programmes, activities or projects – to succeed in an entrepreneurial career from the university student's point of view.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Using data gathered from 3,420 university students in more than ten countries, and applying the Mann-Whitney non-parametric test, differences between genders and different intention groups were examined. To reduce the items regarding educational needs, factor analysis was used. Gender differences in educational needs were also examined via Mann-Whitney Test.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The results confirm that compared to males, female students are less willing to start their own businesses. There are significant gender differences in terms of perceived feasibility and perceived desirability such that although they feel more supported by their families, females are less self-confident, more tense, reluctant and concerned about entrepreneurship. In terms of entrepreneurial intention, there are fewer gender differences among students; however, differences relating to self-confidence and family support still exist. Furthermore, students cited establishing entrepreneurial mentoring and an appropriate tutoring structure as the most needed entrepreneurial educational activity/program/project at an academic institution; this was rated higher by females compared to males.</p> <p>Practical implications</p>

	<p>The findings of this paper could help guide educators and policy makers in designing effective entrepreneurship programmes that are customized to respond to gender specific needs to increase entrepreneurial participation.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study reveals the gender differences in perceived desirability and perceived feasibility which impact entrepreneurial intentions. Gender differences in the entrepreneurial programmes/activities/projects required at an academic institution to promote entrepreneurial participation among university students is also explored.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Education and training</li> <li>• Perceived feasibility</li> <li>• Perceived desirability</li> <li>• Students</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Israel, France and Austria, Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia, Croatia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-18 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The first finding of our study regarding perceptible differences in terms of feasibility and desirability is that there is a significant gender difference in every statement.</li> <li>• This study suggests that female university students are less willing to start their own business after graduation compared to the male respondents.</li> <li>• Our finding that female respondents have lower self-efficacy levels, even among the willing students, is somewhat consistent with the results of Mueller and Dato-on (2008), who suggested that respondents with higher masculinity would have higher entrepreneurial self-efficacy.</li> <li>• Another significant finding was the feasibility statement F4: “I know enough to start a business” has the highest mean score in every analysis, meaning regardless of their intentions and gender, students are aware of their entrepreneurial knowledge deficit.</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship oriented education and entrepreneurial networking and tutoring</li> </ul>

	<p>structure were found to be needed more by female students.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>female students lack self-confidence and are more concerned about their entrepreneurial knowledge, it would seem that they would have more of a need for entrepreneurship education as well as networking and tutoring structures.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>From the early 1980s, many entrepreneurial intention models have been developed (Shapero, 1982; Ajzen, 1991; Krueger and Brazeal, 1994). The most accepted intention models are Shapero's (1982) entrepreneurial event model and Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behaviour.</li> <li>Intention-based process models have also been used to illustrate differences between male and female entrepreneurial behaviours.</li> <li>To determine the reflection of entrepreneurial intentions as perceived feasibility and desirability measures for the same sex, the analysis was conducted first among female respondents. To examine the differences, the Mann-Whitney test was used.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Since the work of Baumol (1968), who underlined the contribution of entrepreneurship in economic growth, entrepreneurship has gained recognition as a distinguished function in today’s “innovations-oriented or knowledge-based economy” (Keilbach and Sanders, 2008). Consistent with previous studies (Minniti et al., 2005; Grilo and Irigoyen, 2005; Wilson et al., 2007), this study suggests that female university students are less willing to start their own business after graduation compared to the male respondents. It could be the case that, as consistent with Watson and Newby (2005) and Gupta et al. (2009), respondents having entrepreneurial intentions display more masculine gender-role characteristics independent from their biological sex” (p. 329).</p> <p>“Krueger and Brazeal’s (1994) view regarding the ideal entrepreneurial training, which is supposed to provide self-esteem through “emotional and psychological support”, “credible role models” and the necessary knowledge to promote female participation in entrepreneurship. The results are also consistent with Klyver and Grant’s (2010) and Tynan et al.’s (2009) studies which emphasized the importance and need of mentoring and tutoring structures in terms of female entrepreneurship” (p. 332).</p>	



**Reference**

Price, A., & McMullan, L. (2012). We don't need no education: the role of mentoring in the wider enterprise eco-system. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(2), 196-205.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to explore the role of mentoring in the wider enterprise eco-system, with a specific focus on the potential of on-line mentoring for women's enterprise.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper offers insights into the approach adopted in taking mentoring experience and practice into a new field as part of a European Commission-funded project.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Findings to date highlight the need for support amongst women entrepreneurs, across a range of business sectors, in planning for and pursuing business growth. More specifically, the need for bespoke support and advice is highlighted, given that entrepreneurs are not a homogenous group and in light of the additional barriers that women encounter in business start-up and growth.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper describes what is considered to be a unique programme being delivered in the UK, with findings holding wider applicability for policy makers, business support organisations and practitioners across jurisdictions.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Kingdom</li> <li>• Mentoring</li> <li>• Education</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Start-ups</li> <li>• Business development</li> <li>• Enterprise eco-system</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>

<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-19 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is suggested that mentoring should form part of the entrepreneurial ecosystem and part of the education response. Equally, educators from all sectors (academics in Higher and Further education sectors and business start-up professionals) need to be informed of the wider opportunities that education brings, in all its forms and equipped with the skills and networks to be able to provide a mentoring programme that works.</li> <li>• With regard to women’s entrepreneurship in particular, currently, there is political and institutional awareness of the need for more women entrepreneurs and the economic need for increasingly competitive, innovative and growth-orientated, women-led small businesses. Similarly, mentoring is identified as an approach that has the component features needed to satisfy the entrepreneurial learning needs of women founding and growing their own enterprises.</li> <li>• The role of promoting best practices and developing quality enterprise education approaches across not only the traditional education institutions but to providers of enterprise education and support in a wider sense is key to the success.</li> <li>• The partnership of NCEE and The Women’s Organisation draws together vast experience of supporting entrepreneurship education and women entrepreneurs. It provides an opportunity for knowledge transfer between the organisations and their respective teams of enterprise educators and business advisers.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Whilst the traditional avenues of support and guidance for SMEs has undergone significant change and restructuring under the Coalition Government, it can be argued that the current climate has made the need for business support paramount to secure the future of many SMEs.</li> <li>• The prestige business programme offered by UK Business Schools, that is, the MBA programme, does not resonate with their immediate needs and offers little satisfaction in terms of future start-dates, lead-in times and the potential networking opportunities within the cohort.</li> <li>• The environment in which entrepreneurs operate is dynamic and demanding, particularly in the current economic climate. Combined, these factors add to the complexities of providing enterprise education and other support that will truly meet the needs of small businesses. Mentoring is a potential solution for many</li> </ul>

	entrepreneurs and this has been recognised by both the UK Government and European Commission.
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**Key citations from the article**

“Adopting Zachary’s (2000) definition, the WEMentor project builds upon the notion of peer support rather than a power relationship, to establish meaningful and useful mentoring relationships” (p. 200).

“Zachary (2000) to visualise a mentor as being a “guide on the side” rather than a “sage on the stage”, accepting that the relationships and content of support and discussions can be wide-ranging and creating an understanding of the mentoring approach which extends beyond anything offered within formal education programmes” (p. 198).

“...the EC’s Report on Equality between Men and Women (European Commission, 2009) identifies female employment and entrepreneurship as the driving force behind EU growth in employment” (p. 198).

“This reflects the mismatch of EU and national policies to promote female entrepreneurship and women entrepreneurs’ perceptions of these policies as “mistargeted, neglecting the real deficiencies and weaknesses of SMEs” (Messa and Testa as cited in Martin, 2009)” (p. 199).

**Reference**

Zimmerman, M.A., & Brouthers, K.D. (2012). Gender heterogeneity, entrepreneurial orientation and international diversification. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(1), 20-43.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Although diversifying internationally appears to be beneficial, relatively few small and medium-sized firms actually participate. Building on recent research exploring the international diversification of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) the purpose of this paper is to examine the relation among ownership and management team gender heterogeneity, entrepreneurial orientation, and firm international diversity.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The authors' hypotheses were tested using data gathered from members of Women Impacting Public Policy (WIPP), a national (US) public policy organization that advocates for women in business.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Results indicate that top management team gender composition and entrepreneurial orientation are significantly related to international diversification but that ownership gender composition is not. The authors found that team entrepreneurial orientation may be useful when teams are more homogeneous on relations-oriented characteristics such as gender.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper's findings suggest that women-only management teams high in entrepreneurial orientation are more likely to pursue international diversification, dispelling the idea that international diversification is more difficult for women.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United States of America</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Small to medium-sized enterprises</li> <li>• International business</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women entrepreneurs</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• USA</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-20 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Our findings suggest that women-only management teams high in entrepreneurial orientation are more likely to pursue international diversification dispelling the idea that international diversification is more difficult for women.</li> <li>• Our theory suggests that owner and management team gender differences (similarity) impact the decision-making process and as a consequence a firm’s willingness to diversify internationally.</li> <li>• In general, we found no direct link between the gender composition of the firms’ owners or managers and firm international diversification. These results confirm previous research that suggests men and women may pursue similar strategies (Ahl, 2006; Dobbins and Platz, 1986). For example, although Orser et al. (2010, p. 950) initially found that majority women-owned “firms were significantly less likely to export compared to majority” men-owned firms, when they included controls for firm.</li> <li>• Service type 2 (location-bound customized projects) and service type 4 (value-added customized services) businesses were also more internationally diversified compared to other service type firms. This suggests that firms providing customized services may have greater firm-specific resource-based advantages that can be exploited or enhanced through internationalization.</li> <li>• Our findings imply that the cohesiveness of homogenous gender management teams may provide a benefit when entrepreneurial activities are being considered. It appears that the benefits of homogeneity in gender helps communication and decision making; fostering a more focused response to entrepreneurial opportunities than can be achieved in more heterogeneous gender management teams.</li> <li>• The study found that firms with more entrepreneurial-oriented management teams were more likely to venture abroad. This outcome adds support to previous research (Knight and Cavusgil, 2004; McDougall and Oviatt, 2000) that indicates international expansion is an entrepreneurial activity.</li> <li>• It appears from the study that gender homogeneity may only be important for entrepreneurially oriented management teams making risky, proactive, innovative decisions like international diversification.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b>

- Research has found that despite these barriers small- and medium-sized firms, even very small and new ones, might expand internationally (Philp, 1998; Westhead et al., 2001). One explanation for this focuses on the characteristics of SME founders (owners) and managers (Fernández-Ortiz and Lombardo, 2009; Kundu and Katz, 2003; Manolova et al., 2002; Westhead et al., 2001).
- Another explanation suggests that SME management team entrepreneurial orientation is a key component of international diversification helping these firms overcome resource or knowledge constraints (Knight, 2001; Oviatt and McDougall, 2005). In this paper, we combine both streams of research theorizing and testing the notion that owner and management team gender heterogeneity and management team entrepreneurial orientation is associated with the international activities a firm undertakes.
- The study has used George et al.'s (2005) measure of business activities that encompasses both sales of products/services as well as the acquisition of resources from foreign sources.
- We theorized international diversification is pursued mainly by firms that have management teams willing to take business risks, be innovative and proactive. An important extension to this research would be to examine the performance implications of these different strategies.

#### **Key citations from the article**

“...the international diversification of business is a primary source of new customers, new technology, and lower-cost products and services. Despite these potential advantages, a relatively small number of US SMEs diversify into foreign markets ( Javalgi et al., 2000; Manolova et al., 2002)” (p. 21).

“Research suggests that factors such as limited financial and managerial resources, lack of knowledge of international opportunities, perceptions of risk, and lack of managerial experience restrict SME diversification into international markets (Fabian et al., 2009; Javalgi et al., 2000; Leonidou et al., 1998; Samiee et al., 1993)” (p. 21).

“Other research has found that despite these barriers small- and medium-sized firms, even very small and new ones, might expand internationally (Philp, 1998; Westhead et al., 2001). One explanation for this focuses on the characteristics of SME founders (owners) and managers (Fernández-Ortiz and Lombardo, 2009; Kundu and Katz, 2003; Manolova et al., 2002; Westhead et al., 2001)” (p. 21).

## Reference

Dalborg, C., von Friedrichs, Y., & Wincent, J. (2012). Beyond the numbers: qualitative growth in women's businesses. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(3), 289-315.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>
	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this research paper is to investigate the growth of women's businesses from a qualitative perspective. The paper identifies strategic building blocks for defining a set of different growth platforms. Moreover, the paper investigates growth ambitions for women inside each identified "type" of growth platform and identifies critical motivation variables that can influence the decision to move from growing one business platform to growing another platform.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The results are based on 191 women entrepreneurs. Data were analyzed by coding narrative statements from the survey into overarching themes for business platforms, descriptive frequency analysis and logistic regression analysis techniques.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The paper discerned five different growth platforms and noticed intrinsic or extrinsic growth ambitions for platform growth. The extrinsic platforms are the most common, but all platforms can be characterized by equally high growth aspirations. Each of the identified platforms is associated with distinct and unique blocks that the women entrepreneurs try to put together and resolve in order to grow their companies. Women entrepreneurs move between the different platforms when the building blocks of previous platforms have been established and secured. Variables such as profits and ownership may explain such transfers of growth ambitions.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>While acknowledging the qualitative growth of business platforms, the paper takes an approach that</p>

	<p>goes against the traditional view of quantitative growth.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study is a response to the lack of research on qualitative growth and women's entrepreneurship and suggests that the manifested qualitative growth can be in order to secure blocks on different business platforms.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Qualitative growth</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Business platforms</li> <li>• Strategic building blocks</li> <li>• Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-21 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This quantitative approach to growth has, however, encountered criticism and many believe it is a hasty and reductionist view of complex phenomena (Leitch et al., 2010; McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010). It does not explain how growth has occurred, the goals set by the individual entrepreneurs and, even when the research focuses on seemingly relevant growth measurements, it is usually not comparable because what the entrepreneurs themselves define as growth (or progress) may not necessarily be measurable with quantitative secondary data or the available registers. Despite this clearly known limitation to growth research, researchers often refer to previous studies and calculate future counts on past ones (McKelvie and Wiklund, 2010).</li> <li>• A first important finding from our study is that WOBs (women-owned businesses) with growth ambitions are at different growth levels and therefore have different needs for expertise. This result indicates that measures to promote the growth of women’s businesses must be heterogeneous and be adapted according to needs.</li> <li>• Businesswomen may indicate growth when they manage to obtain a work-life balance(Cliff, 1998; Still and Timms, 2000) independence and personal development (Shaw et al., 2009) or different expected outcomes, both financial and personal (Carter et al., 2003; Manolova et al., 2008), rather than those measured by analyzing the amounts using the traditional quantitative yardstick.</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women in the Business Services sector are more intrinsically motivated (61 per cent) compared to businesswomen in the Agriculture sector, where the majority operate their businesses based on an extrinsically motivated platform (88 per cent). Again, this indicates that some caution is necessary when considering the industry and motivations for qualitative growth.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• For entrepreneurs, growth powerfully influences how they perceive themselves to be successful, their self-efficacy and how they build their image and assess their contributions relative to the reasons for running a business (McGee et al., 2009; Verheul et al., 2005).</li> <li>• “Growing is more than growing in size; It’s growing in knowledge. It’s growing in the ability to do what you do better. It’s growing in a lot of ways” (Nelton, 1990, p. 19). Such an approach could contribute to creating an enhanced understanding of how growth is considered, motivated and managed by women entrepreneurs. This means that in the present study we are not looking to identify and distinguish traditionally high-performing companies from low-performing ones in conventional ways. Instead, we are open for a proposal that suggests that growth for women may not necessarily be an increase in sales or in profits – it could be more meaningful to study growth when taking into account progress towards goals and qualitative considerations.</li> <li>• In a qualitative approach to the growing phenomenon, we see the changes in characteristics as modifications to motivational patterns, which in turn affect how women further develop their businesses. As the company grows, its appearance and characteristics will change.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Women run smaller businesses than men and that only a few companies managed by women are growing, according to the commonly used growth measure of sales growth. This fact is the foundation for major research interest in women’s entrepreneurship (Allen et al.,2008; Brush, 1992; Buttner and Moore, 1997; De Bruin et al., 2006; DuRietz and Henrekson,2000; Greene et al., 2006; Orser and Hogarth-Scott, 2002; Rosa et al., 1996; Still and Timms, 2000)” (p. 289).</p> <p>“Less attention has been paid to a more qualitative perspective, researchers such as Davidsson and Klofsten (2003), Flamholtz (1995), Flamholtz and Aksehirli (2000) and Klofsten (2009) outlined received approaches that argue that successful, growing</p>	

companies can be understood through how they organize and build their operations by using different strategic building blocks, as well as the progress of pieces of blocks to establish business platforms” (p. 290).

“Various studies indicate that women are underrepresented compared to men with regard to operating and growing a company (Cliff, 1998; Davidsson, 1989; Growth Analysis, 2010; Fleck et al., 2011; Morris et al., 2006; Orser and Hogarth-Scott, 2002; Shaw et al., 2009; Still and Timms, 2000)” (p. 291).

“We believe that Penrose (1959) laid the foundation for a qualitative approach to the growing phenomenon. The core of the theoretical reasoning in the arguments outlined by these scholars is that all companies must secure growth for their business on the basis of various strategic building blocks. Klofsten presents the sum of his building blocks as a platform, while Flamholtz (1995) has a hierarchical approach in which markets, products and services, and various critical resources, are positioned at a fundamental level. Systems for operational management and management systems are found at a higher level in this hierarchy. At the top of the “pyramid”, Flamholtz has placed corporate cultures such as values, beliefs and norms. According to Flamholtz, strategic building blocks are needed to different extents at different phases of the company’s lifecycle” (p. 293).

## Reference

Danish, A. Y., & Smith, H.L. (2012). Female entrepreneurship in Saudi Arabia: opportunities and challenges. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(3), 216-235.

Required Element	AB Entry
<b>Author-provided abstract (indicate if none)</b>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to explore the challenges facing female entrepreneurs in Saudi Arabia.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study draws on secondary data on the context of women's entrepreneurship in Saudi Arabia, and on Brush et al.'s 5M framework to analyse the results of a survey of 33 Saudi women entrepreneurs in Jeddah in a variety of commercial sectors. The sample consists of female entrepreneurs who are already in business or in the process of establishing one, and who operate from a dedicated business premises away from home. In particular, the study investigated the challenges and constraints faced, and the support and opportunities available for these female entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>It was found that female entrepreneurs in Saudi Arabia are now establishing and managing more small and medium-sized entities than at any time in the past and this trend is growing. This is in spite of significant challenges, both societal and institutional.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The research suggests a number of ways in which institutions of state and trade – which often act as barriers to women practically running a business – could be overcome. These include provision of resources, training and mentoring, and eliminating some of the administrative procedures which require male representation in the establishment and financing female entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper presents original research on the growing phenomenon of female entrepreneurship in Saudi Arabia. It positions explanations for this trend in the macro and micro economic context and in conceptualisations of female entrepreneurship</p>

<b>Keywords</b>  <b>(5-7)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Saudi Arabia</li> <li>• Jeddah</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Gender</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Saudi Arabia</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b>  <b>(3-5 – be brief in the summary)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A challenge for female entrepreneurs in Saudi Arabia is raising finance.</li> <li>• Increasing the number of female entrepreneurs in Saudi Arabia could unlock wealth, since some women with privilege in the country own considerable wealth. Women also have significant stakes, often as silent partners, in the ownership of family companies.</li> <li>• The majority of women in this study started their business with their own and/or family finance, rather than using private sector or government loans. Most of the businesses in the sample had someone else sharing an interest in the business, and family involvement, through shared ownership or management within the business.</li> <li>• Motivations for entrepreneurship were not generally financial, household income was important for just one third of participants.</li> <li>• Women in Saudi Arabia are generally well educated, in this sample, two thirds were educated to degree level, and nearly one third to postgraduate level.</li> <li>• Three sectors dominate in this sample of female entrepreneurs, Human resources, food/clothing/craft manufacture and services.</li> <li>• Women cited the following as being important or very important to their success: Financial management ad resources; leadership and management skills; understanding competition and markets, followed by networking opportunities with organisations.</li> <li>• Use of the internet eliminates for accessing the market some of the cultural issues around interaction between men and women – though women’s access to markets is still more limited than men’s. Men also show more internationalisation than women.</li> <li>• The challenges most faced by the women in the sample were technological resources, financial rules and regulations in the context of business expansion, business networking, achieving high efficiency and productivity, managing competition, and professional staff. In Saudi Arabia, access to start up and growth funding is less of an issue than in other countries, due to the high level of access to personal and family funding.</li> <li>• Gender issues for this group relate more to business related issues of dealing with clients and customers, and managing</li> </ul>

	<p>male staff, rather than domestic issues impacting business life.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Anecdotally, women from better-off backgrounds, and where there is a family history of entrepreneurship, do better in business.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b> <b>(indicate if none)</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <p>5M framework, Brush et al (2009)</p> <p><b>Brief Theory Summary</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Bates et al. (2007) 3M framework (market, money and management) which articulates what entrepreneurs need to launch and grow ventures, has been extended in Brush et al.'s 5M framework to include motherhood and the macro/meso environment – which includes cultural and especially regulatory factors.</li> <li>• In this research motherhood is interpreted more narrowly than in the Brush et al framework: “here “motherhood” is explored from the perspective of the relationship between the personal lives of women entrepreneurs and their businesses” (p218) as opposed to any wider family context implications.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p>	<p>“Andersson et al. (2007) find that resource constraints, environmental uncertainty and specific female aversion to risk-taking lead them to engage in activities with low entry thresholds and low financial risk..... Female entrepreneurs often have less relevant training and education prior to engaging in entrepreneurial activity (Andersson et al., 2007). Added to this is the lack of female role models as entrepreneurs or even senior managers, and periods taken off work for child-rearing. Andersson et al. (2007) find that the variety of social expectations, norms, attitudes and values, assigned to women by societies, and the roles considered appropriate for them, their family traditions, and so forth all have the potential to act as a hurdle for women’s ambitions, expectations and entrepreneurial endeavours (family embeddedness/motherhood, Brush et al., 2009): all compromise the development of entrepreneurial expectations, opportunity identification and competencies of women.” p218 - 219)</p> <p>“...women owners of firms face what Robb and Coleman (2010) describe as a triple blind that is: a lack of access to networks; to sufficient financial capital (money); and to management (human capital), a combination of factors which resonates with the Bates et al. (2007) 3M framework.” (p220)</p> <p>On context in Saudi Arabia:</p>

	<p>“The government has not yet adequately defined its role and the scope of the partnership between public sector agencies and private business, which are needed to address weaknesses such as a lack of professionalism as well as management and marketing skills, and systemic failures in business operation such as failures to conduct feasibility studies, maintain financial records or prepare annual budgets (Hassan, 2006).” (p221)</p> <p>“...respondents either very strongly or strongly felt that owning a small business improved their standard of living and financial independence (the highest score), empowered self confidence expanded social activities and communications, improved skills and managerial capabilities. All but one agreed that it gave women a chance to be an active member in the workforce. In this and in Sadi and Al-Ghazali’s (2010) study, self-achievement is the main motivational factor.” (p230)</p>
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**Reference**

Lockyer, J., & George, S. (2012). What women want: barriers to female entrepreneurship in the West Midlands. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(2), 179-195

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to explore the barriers that inhibit the development of female entrepreneurship in the West Midlands. This region is characterised by pronounced low levels of participation in higher education and entrepreneurship. With the support of funding from the Lifelong Learning Network (LLN), the paper contributes to a re-evaluation of the current support available to women entrepreneurs and informs and aligns the provision of services to the needs of women across the region and beyond.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A study was commissioned by the LLN to identify the main barriers to female entrepreneurship in the Staffordshire, Telford &amp; Wrekin and Shropshire areas. The main business support provision available to assist female entrepreneurs in June 2009 was mapped and these data were used in an online questionnaire to identify the level of awareness of this support provision amongst women in the target area, as part of the larger pilot study. An extensive online questionnaire consisting of 44 questions was designed in Version 1.82 of LimeSurvey, an open source PHP based survey tool. The survey was designed to capture information on the relationship between aspirations to start a business, demographic information, past experience of entrepreneurship, current skills levels, perceived barriers and knowledge of current business support provision.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Whilst for many women accessibility to training was a major issue, an area of greater concern was found to be financial risk and the belief that women are less likely to start a business if they have a friend or family member with a business. The research findings suggested that even vicarious exposure to the</p>

	<p>pressures of running a business was a positive deterrent to entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Social implications</p> <p>The research findings suggest that the mechanisms (business support agencies) through which information and support are provided to potential entrepreneurs needs to be reviewed. This preliminary research suggests that the existing infrastructure is inadequate and as business support is becoming more streamlined as a result of the public sector spending review, it could inform the nature and range of support provided to women entrepreneurs within the region and beyond.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>In addition to contributing to the development of strategy within the region, the authors feel that the research could have wider implications for regions with a similar economic profile to the West Midlands.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• England</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Self-employment</li> <li>• Training</li> <li>• Education</li> <li>• Women’s entrepreneurship</li> <li>• Masculinity</li> <li>• Micro businesses</li> <li>• Networking</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-22 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> <li>• Women’s fear of failure is higher than that of men’s (39.2 per cent compared with men 32.6 per cent); women are substantially less likely to know an entrepreneur (22.5 per cent compared with 31.7 per cent of men); they are also less likely to see good business opportunities (32.1 per cent compared with 41.2 per cent of men), and they doubt that they have the skills to start a business (39.8 per cent compared with 58.6 per cent of men) (Harding, 2006).</li> <li>• A Briefing Paper produced by the Women’s Enterprise Policy Group (2011, September, p. 5), entitled A Multi Billion £</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opportunity: The Untapped Growth Potential of UK Women Entrepreneurs, recommended to Government that it should “assist the LEPs and Local Authorities to develop business support and economic development policies which optimise woman’s enterprise within their localities”. It also recommends the appointment of a women’s enterprise champion, with a cross-departmental brief, within government. Both of which suggest that at a Policy level there is still a great deal of work to do.</li> <li>• Our survey indicates that the current trends in the centralisation of support provision will not cater well for the needs of women wishing to start businesses. The Enterprising Women’s Growth Survey (2011, p. 16) also concludes that “the current policy measures are not gender-proofed and will fail to give existing business women the type of support they need to achieve their potential and aspirations for growth”.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) study for 2010, female entrepreneurship in the West Midlands is above the national average (4.3 per cent)” (p. 181).</p> <p>“According to Lynnette Claire (2009, p. 1) “Most extant research shows that female entrepreneurs are less likely to grow large firms and, in fact, don’t want to grow their firms as large as male entrepreneurs do”. While this suggests that women are less ambitious for their businesses than men, it does not mean that they have no growth ambitions. The Enterprising Women Growth Survey (2011) found that two-thirds of the women-led SME employers they surveyed were aiming for business growth over the next two to three years; achievable with a specific range of business support measures” (p. 181).</p>	

**Reference**

Costin, Y. (2012). In pursuit of growth: an insight into the experience of female entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4(2), 108-127.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Although the climate for entrepreneurship in Ireland is positive, with female entrepreneurs making significant economic contributions, a significant weakness of female-owned businesses remaining small is continuously reported. Achieving growth is central to how a business is run and should be viewed from a business-owner perspective rather than a scholarly perspective, whereby the concept of growth is portrayed so frequently in a fragmented manner. Moreover, academic research on entrepreneurial firm growth has centred on growth from a non-gender specific perspective. The purpose of this paper is to investigate, in a meaningful, practical and relevant manner, the process of growth (i.e. defining growth, growth intention, objectives, planning, and strategy) and the measurement of growth in female-owned businesses.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A quantitative research method has been adopted, i.e. an online survey, to investigate all critical issues pertaining to growth amongst female entrepreneurs operating a business for more than five years.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Based on the findings of the study, results indicate the process of growth in female-owned businesses differs from that which is frequently reported. Differences exist between characteristics of female entrepreneurs, which in turn impacts not only how they run their business but more importantly how they pursue growth. Furthermore, research demonstrates significant differences in female-owned businesses with regard to all facets that encompass growth – definition, intention, objectives, planning, strategies employed and the measurement of growth applied.</p> <p>Originality/value</p>

	<p>The paper seeks to fill the gap of limited information pertaining to the profile of growth-oriented female entrepreneurs from a practical approach. The findings and suggestions for further research will serve to progress research still in its infancy, not only in Ireland but on an international scale, thus being of critical importance to academia, government support agencies, practitioners, policy makers and female entrepreneurs alike in developing relevant and practical supports to assist in promoting growth-oriented businesses.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ireland</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Female entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Small firms</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ireland</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-23 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sarri and Trihopoulou (2005) propose that female entrepreneurs should not be generalised as they are a complicated and varied collection with multiple characteristics and motivations, with Still and Timms (2000) citing they may not follow the normal expected growth behaviour of their male counterparts. Given this, there is a need to investigate growth in female-owned enterprises which identifies and accommodates various factors affecting their business in terms of the pursuit of growth.</li> <li>• From the findings of previous studies (O’Gorman, 2001; Barkham et al., 1996; Storey, 1994; Havnes and Senneseth, 2001, it is evident that a combination of both financial and non-financial measures should be utilised when investigating growth. Thus, as a result, in measuring growth in the female-owned enterprise, multiple measures (incorporating both financial and non-financial features) will be very significant in order to provide a more integrated perspective of the trajectories that affect growth in the female-owned enterprise.</li> <li>• It is imperative that appropriate training programmes and incentives for creating employment should be put in place. In addition, it is deemed appropriate by the author for support agencies to create exposure to and facilitate the building of networks and alliances for female entrepreneurs to assist them in receiving specialised training in exporting and new product development so as to increase the contribution they can make to the Irish economy.</li> </ul>

<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p>Theory Name:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The field has been heavily influenced by Edith Penrose’s monolithic Theory of the Growth of the Business (Penrose, 1959), which defines growth as both an “internal process of development” and an “increase in amount”. Most emphasis has been placed on the latter, however, some research (Dobbs and Hamilton, 2007; Leitch et al., 2010) would suggest that at least one other relevant issue has been overlooked, namely, how do businesses grow by exploring in detail the process of growth (i.e. defining growth, growth intention, objectives, planning, strategy and measurement); the key focus of this research.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“For 50 years, the field has been heavily influenced by Edith Penrose’s monolithic Theory of the Growth of the Business (Penrose, 1959), which defines growth as both an “internal process of development” and an “increase in amount”. Most emphasis has been placed on the latter, however, some research (Dobbs and Hamilton, 2007; Leitch et al., 2010) would suggest that at least one other relevant issue has been overlooked, namely, how do businesses grow by exploring in detail the process of growth (i.e. defining growth, growth intention, objectives, planning, strategy and measurement); the key focus of this research” (p. 109).</p> <p>“Kjeldsen and Nielsen (2000) along with Valiulis et al. (2004) argue that females start businesses to allow them more flexibility and freedom to juggle work, leisure and family commitments where business growth is not an explicit objective as it conflicts with their purpose of choosing self-employment. An understanding of the motivation for firm growth and a determination as to whether growth is a desired outcome for the business is an important foundation on which to realistically assess the outcome of growth” (p. 110).</p> <p>“They are more highly educated and have gained more managerial experience; as a result are choosing to start businesses that are scalable in growth sectors such as technology, manufacturing, communication and transportation where they were traditionally underrepresented (Bates, 2002; Small Business Service, 2003)” (p. 110).</p>	

**Reference**

Landig, J. M. (2011). Bringing women to the table: European Union funding for women's empowerment projects in Turkey. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 34(3), 206-219.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	The literature is quite sparse in regard to the European Union (EU) and its gender mainstreaming projects, though gender mainstreaming is part of a vast and dynamic body of literature on women's development. This article focuses on this neglected area, exploring the effectiveness of three EU-funded women's empowerment projects in Turkey. It is argued that these projects, which focus on increasing the percentage of women in the workforce and training women as entrepreneurs, are most successful when they are evaluated, monitored, and sustainable, when women enter non-traditional sectors, when the project includes self-confidence building components, and when they educate both men and women on gender equality. For entrepreneurship projects women must have a business plan, access to finance, a mentor, and monitoring for at least one year but ideally up to three years. In addition, every project that seeks to empower women must be supported by policies of the national government, as women in Turkey still face considerable social and structural challenges.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• EU</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Funding</li> <li>• Entrepreneurship projects</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Turkey</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-24 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The first social challenge women in Turkey must overcome is a lack of self-confidence. The sentiment, “if you believe in yourself, you can do anything” is common among women in Turkey. Yet, this belief must be developed, and Turkish women indicate that participating in training programs fosters this confidence.</li> <li>• Second, women face patriarchal mindsets and institutionalized sexism. For example, a pervasive patriarchal division of labor and exclusion from productive market activity is a pervasive feature of Turkish society. The number-one reason both urban and rural women are not in the labor force is because they are doing domestic work; 67% of urban women and 61% of rural women do not</li> </ul>

	<p>participate in the labor force for this reason (Toksoz, 2007, p. 21).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of education and knowledge about women's rights, skill development, and business fundamentals present a considerable barrier to women's empowerment in Turkey.</li> <li>• There is a positive correlation between women's educational status and their labor force participation (Gunduz-Hosgor and Smits, 2008, p. 104). Women's access to education must be increased in order to develop the skills to break out of traditional sectors and to start their own businesses. As the International Labor Office in Turkey reports, education not only lifts wages up by enhancing the productivity of labor but also legitimises women's labor force participation by weakening patriarchal ways of thinking (Toksoz, 2007, p. 4). In addition, if women are educated, their children are more likely to have a better education, multiplying the social and economic benefits for generations to come.</li> <li>• There is flaw in the EU's contracts, Sayin highlights, is the fact that one grant program is marked for women's employment, another one for youth employment, another one for promoting business registration, and yet another for women's entrepreneurship. There is no singular budget and manager to bring cohesion to these programs</li> <li>• The EU Delegation's response to this criticism is that gender equality is a cross-cutting issue; so there is not one budget for women's empowerment because it is something that should be incorporated into each and every project. It is a valid point, but if the areas that are receiving funding are too fragmented it will weaken the ability to alter structural conditions that cause and maintain disadvantages to women.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ms. Aynur Bektas (2010), a successful woman entrepreneur who owns the fourteenth-largest Textile export company in Turkey, remarked, “We have all the important ingredients in Turkey but we have not been able to cook anything” (Assembly of European Regions Women Entrepreneurship conference, March 25, 2010).</li> </ul>

- The inability to “cook anything” is clear in the fact that seventy percent of Turkish women are excluded from the labor force (European Commission, 2008 Progress Report, 2008, p. 20).

### **Key citations from the article**

“The conflict between Western and Islamic outlooks demonstrates what Nuket Kardam describes as the “complex and deeply entrenched traditional norms and practices at the heart of gender roles and relations” that prevent Turkey from fully embracing women's rights (Kardam, 2005, p. 2)” (p. 207).

“Social hurdles are even more daunting in consideration of Ms. Aysun Sayin's words: “Women only have one chance to become an entrepreneur” (personal communication, March 22, 2010). Sayin, former Director of Women's Fund Program at the Women Entrepreneurs Association of Turkey (KAGIDER), explains that regardless of the socioeconomic status of women, if a woman's business fails, her family and social environment will not support a second chance” (p. 212).

“Guner, Project Coordinator of Flying Broom, one of Turkey's first feminist organizations, describes another example. They asked primary school children how the children view their mothers, and the children responded that their mothers are a part of the home like a refrigerator or oven. Guner remarks, “These children have no idea that their mother can do anything outside of the home.” Guner notes that this perspective is perpetuated by a sexist curriculum” (p. 212).

“Violence against women, lack of education, and structural disadvantages in the labor market, including lower wages and sexual harassment, keep women subordinate and translate into women having fewer resources, lower status, less experience, and less confidence to compete with men for political office (Peterson and Runyan, 2010, p. 23, 119). Through altering these structures of inequality and through the empowerment of women, we can strive to achieve equality and equity between women and men in society” (p. 217).

**Reference**

Lewis, K., & Massey, C. (2011). Critical yet invisible: the “good wife” in the New Zealand small firm. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 3(2), 105-122.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to move away from the studies that have to date only focused on “visible women” (those who are running businesses as owner-managers or as active partners, i.e. as copreneurs) to a focus on those that are largely invisible. These are the women who are involved in small firms but who are not copreneurs, and who do not have clearly acknowledged and/or formalised roles.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper is based on data collected as part of a research programme that involved 250 in-depth interviews carried out with owner-managers in manufacturing and service firms throughout New Zealand over a two-year period.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings from the interviews suggest that there are many women playing critical roles in New Zealand small firms whose contributions are unacknowledged, and which may be also unseen and unpaid. These women (typically as wives of owner-managers) are contributing invaluable to the futures and fortunes of those firms – albeit from “behind the scenes”.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>In the paper, a descriptive typology of the roles that wives play in New Zealand small firms is put forward. The typology provides a starting point for those wanting to explore similar dimensions of female “invisibility” in other contexts, and will contribute to the body of knowledge related to gender in the context of small firms.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Small enterprises</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New Zealand</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New Zealand</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-25 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Typically, the wives who were involved in the business were found to work in a clerical or support capacity. Therefore, the study clearly demonstrated the reliance of many very small firms on the input of wives who were not formally business partners.</li> <li>• Marshack’s (1994) comparative work that focused on differences between dual-career couples and copreneurial couples found decision making and the division of responsibilities were not equal. Instead, work (at home and in the business) was arranged around traditional gender norms. In terms of the firm, copreneurial wives were primarily responsible for bookkeeping, accounting, secretarial functions, payroll, billing and collections. Despite this situation, copreneurial couples expressed a high level of agreement between the actual and ideal division of business responsibilities.</li> <li>• Ethnic minority women working in family businesses are frequently described as not seeing themselves as businesswomen or as economically valuable resources (Dhaliwal, 1998). Typically, they are also described as maintaining internal roles within the firm, and leaving external contacts to their husbands or male members of the business. Dhaliwal (1998) also reports that despite frequently being joint owners of the business these wives have responsibility but no control, and that roles were often enforced on the women “due to decisions made elsewhere in the family” (Dhaliwal, 2000, p. 446).</li> <li>• Study find that the characteristics of wives contributions frequently aids in perpetuating their invisible state. Most disconcerting about the continuation of such invisibility is that it is frequently underpinned by a stark discrepancy between the way the role is described and the way it could be assessed by other measures. In other words, it could be argued that the perceived invisibility bears no relation to the relative importance of the contribution of those women to the life of the firm. This continual undervaluing of the roles of these women ensures their continued marginality when the successes and failures of firms are considered.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This paper will shed light on the “invisibility” of a number of women contributing to the economic fortunes of a group of New Zealand SMEs. Their “behind the scenes “involvement, which is frequently</li> </ul>

	unseen and unpaid, is brought under scrutiny in an attempt to contribute to the body of knowledge surrounding how women “participate in” and “experience” self-employment in a small firm context.
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**Key citations from the article**

“In the context of the micro-firm, a number of authors have conceptualised the firm as being “embedded” in the household and described how this frequently leads to husbands and wives participating together whether or not they are co-owners or formally employed in the firm (Baines et al., 2003, 2002). Indeed, in their numerous pieces of work on this particular topic, Baines and Wheelock (1998, p. 17) have coined the term the “business family”, explaining that it “is a much more inclusive term which acknowledges a wide variety of formal and informal relationships” (p. 107).

“A spouse’s labour could be a vital resource without which a struggling business would fail to survive but there were costs as well as rewards for businesses, individuals and families [. . .] It was women who adapted and re-adapted to the changing needs of businesses, sometimes working for businesses directly, sometimes bringing in earnings from outside and, sometimes, doing both (Baines and Wheelock, 1998, p. 31)” (p. 108).

“American researcher Marshack (1993, 1994), who emphasised that the term copreneur represents more than the simple equation of “marital partner” plus “business partner”, that instead it represents the “dynamic interaction of the systems of love and work” (1994, p. 49). Whilst copreneurship, as a construct, is presented as one that encompasses the equal division of labour, and the abolition of tensions between home and work, the reality has often been found to be quite different (Rowe and Hong, 2000)” (p. 106).

**Reference**

de los Dolores González, M., & Husted, B.W. (2011). Gender, human capital, and opportunity identification in Mexico. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 3(3), 236-253.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Abstract</p> <p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to understand how gender affects the number and innovativeness of business opportunities identified by future entrepreneurs in Mexico.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Comparing social feminist theory and human capital theory, this study examines the effect that human capital has on opportunity identification among men and women in Mexico. The authors specifically examine the role of specific and general human capital in the opportunity identification process. A survey instrument was applied to 174 MBA students at a university in Northeastern Mexico.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>This study shows the significant effect of specific human capital: people with greater prior knowledge of customer needs or problems tended to identify more opportunities; however, the probability of identifying opportunities with innovation increased when individuals had been exposed to different industries through prior work and entrepreneurial experience. Gender differences were not significant for either the number of opportunities identified or the innovativeness of such opportunities.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study provides evidence of the effect that human capital and gender have on opportunity identification in Mexico and provides an explanation within a context that has not been studied previously.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mexico</li> <li>• Opportunity identification</li> <li>• Human capital</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mexico</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-26 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Both women and men contribute to entrepreneurial activities in Mexico</li> <li>• Women’s businesses tend to be smaller</li> <li>• There are no differences because of gender but rather because of industry experience and poorer knowledge.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opportunity identification and innovativeness</li> </ul> <p><b>A brief summary of the theory</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• “...a major challenge within opportunity research relates to measuring the outputs – the innovations that are generated (Shepherd and DeTienne, 2005). Studies concur that it is not only the number of opportunities that entrepreneurs identify, but also the wealth that is produced through these opportunities that counts (Fiet, 2002; Shepherd and DeTienne, 2005). Value is derived through innovativeness – the way that a product or service may be different from those of its competitors (Fiet, 2002)” (p. 237).</li> <li>• “Human capital theory has been related to different stages of the entrepreneurial process stimulating a number of studies (Marvel, 2006). Some studies have concentrated on determining how capital affects opportunity identification (DeTienne and Chandler, 2007; Ucbasaran et al., 2008) and the innovation of opportunities (Marvel and Lumpkin, 2007); others have analyzed how human capital affects the success of the start-up process (Diochon et al., 2007) and the growth expectations of the business (Manolova et al., 2007). Our objective in this study is to analyze how general and specific human capitals contribute to opportunity identification and the innovativeness of these opportunities” (p. 238).</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“This study provides empirical evidence of a positive relation between human capital and opportunity identification in Mexico. As previous studies have stated (DeTienne and Chandler, 2007; Shepherd and DeTienne, 2005), human capital contributes significantly to opportunity identification, which is represented by the number of opportunities that an individual records and the innovativeness of such opportunities (Fiet, 2002). Since the most significant contribution to the full model of number of opportunities comes from the combination of specific human capital with general human capital, this finding reinforces the theory that more human capital is better for the identification of opportunities (DeTienne and Chandler, 2007; Shepherd and DeTienne, 2005)” (p. 246).</p>	

“Interestingly, this study does not provide support for the view that, given similar levels of human capital, men and women would exhibit significant differences in the outcomes in question: number of opportunities and innovativeness of opportunities, because “differences between males’ and females’ experiences from the earliest moments of life [...] result in fundamentally different ways of viewing the world” (Fischer et al., 1993, p. 46). On the contrary, one implication of this study may be that in environments where general human capital is similar to men and women, the differences that might result from the socialization process defined by the social feminism perspective are diminished. Nevertheless, our results are similar to those of DeTienne and Chandler (2007), who also found similar levels of innovativeness in the opportunities identified by women entrepreneurs and their male counterparts. Their study went further to examine opportunity identification processes and found that women and men use their stocks of human capital differently. Although our results are certainly consistent with DeTienne and Chandler (2007), only further research would enable us to determine whether Mexican women and men use different opportunity identification processes” (p. 248).

“Our findings do not allow us to affirm that the different outcomes observed in entrepreneurial activity by women and men are due to gender per se. Rather, the relationships between the dependent and independent variables appear to be the same for both sexes. Thus, the poorer outcomes observed among women are due to lower levels of prior knowledge of customer problems, prior entrepreneurial experience, or to less varied industry experience. Consequently, governments and educational institutions must focus on increasing the access of women to educational and vocational opportunities, which provide greater knowledge, experience, and especially variety of industrial experience. Given the importance of knowledge of customer needs in stimulating the innovativeness of identified opportunities, governments and educational institutions could create internships targeted at university women in order to expose them to different industries and customer problems. Governments can also provide funds for business incubators to assist women in obtaining greater entrepreneurial experience. Curiously, the negative impact of work experience on innovativeness suggests that these programs need to be focused on persons with less work experience. These recommendations would clearly enhance the general and specific human capital of women entrepreneurs and pave the way to increasing their participation in the economic growth of Mexico” (p. 249-250).

**Reference**

Orser, B. J.; Elliott, C., & Leck, J. (2011) Feminist attributes and entrepreneurial identity. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 26(8), 561-589.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided (indicate if none)</b></p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this study is to examine how feminist attributes are expressed within entrepreneurial identity.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study employed a purposive sampling technique to recruit 15 self-identified “feminist entrepreneurs”. This included retailers, manufacturers, exploration operators, consultants, and professionals. Qualitative data were subject to content analysis.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Contrary to a feminine archetype portrayed as caring and nurturing, respondents do not describe themselves as typically portrayed in feminist literature. Prevalent themes included participative leadership, action-oriented, and creative thinker/or problem solver.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Researchers should use caution in assuming feminist discourse has direct application to characterizing or stereotyping “feminist” entrepreneurs. The applicability and reliability of “off the shelf” psychometrics to describe contemporary gender roles across the myriads of processes associated with venture creation must also be questioned. Limitations: the purposive and small-sample limits the generalisability of findings the diverse community of female entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The current study provides an inventory of feminist entrepreneurs’ self-described leadership attributes. The nomenclature can be used by women-focused trainers to help clients to recognize their entrepreneurial attributes.</p>

	<p>Social implications</p> <p>The study may assist women in recognizing identity synergies and conflicts (e.g. within themselves and among family, employees, clients, etc.).</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This is the first study that documents feminist entrepreneurs' leadership attributes. As such, the work is a step in seeking to reconcile feminist theory and entrepreneurial practice.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminism</li> <li>• Leadership</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Canada</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-27 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Study defines gender as a social construct, characterising identity as the perception of the self within the act of venture creation. It is predicated on the principle that entrepreneurs construct their identity via “interactions” (Down and Warren, 2008, p. 4) thereby leading to the incorporation of social categories into their identity as entrepreneurs. Currently entrepreneurs are described using masculine characteristics, with all the tropes that might be expected to accompany that idea.</li> <li>• The study aims to compare the characteristics of women business owners who self-identify as feminist with existing articulations of entrepreneurial characteristics including the Bem Sex Role Inventory (1974), Schein (1973, 1975) and Gupta and Fernandez (2009). Key to the enquiry is the sense that many of the terms used in these inventories require updating. Ultimately, a review of the current literature demonstrates that, whilst challenges to the use of masculine characteristics exist, there is little concerning sex-based binary nomenclature. Additionally previous studies have tended to be ethno-centric.</li> <li>• Participants were drawn from three women's enterprise agencies and one network, resulting in fifteen responses from SMEs from a range of sectors. Conducted via telephone, Interviews were 45 minutes long, semi-</li> </ul>

	<p>structured and open-ended. Quantitative keyword searches with qualitative data subjected content analysis using NVivo8 and then to interpretive analysis.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Findings indicate little convergence between responses and Schein (1973, 1975), Bem (1974) or Gupta and Fernandez (2009). Some more nuanced responses were revealed via the phase two interpretative analysis which revealed that they talked about their leadership styles in democratic terms.</li> <li>• Findings question whether entrepreneurship is a traditional male role, finding little correlation between self-image and the terms in the literature. The paper concludes by calling for the creation of a new scale of entrepreneurial traits or new nomenclature that recognises and reflects female experience.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminism (General)</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“The prototypical entrepreneur is a Darwinian hero (Bird and Brush, 2002; Bruni et al., 2004; Welch et al., 2008) and self-made man who is daring, decisive, ambitious, and possessing a will to conquer (Ahl, 2006). Conversely, the female entrepreneurial archetype is portrayed as maternal, care-giving, nurturing, and struggling to balance work and domestic responsibilities (Brush, 1992; Bruni et al., 2004; Machold et al., 2008) as well as less successful and less innovative than male entrepreneurs (DuRietz and Henrekson, 2000; Bruni et al., 2004; de Tienne and Chandler, 2007)” (p. 561).</p> <p>“This research also considers the extent to which feminist identity reflects the prototypical attributes ascribed to women in the entrepreneurship literature. It found that feminist entrepreneurs do not perceive themselves as typically portrayed in feminist literature (Fischer et al., 1993; Weedon, 1987)” (p. 561-2).</p> <p>“For the purpose of this study, feminist entrepreneurs are defined as a change agents who exemplify entrepreneurial acumen in the creation of equity-based outcomes that improve women’s quality of life and well-being through innovative products, services, and processes (Order and Leck, 2010)” (p. 562).</p> <p>“Feminism is defined as the recognition of men’s and women’s unequal conditions and the desire to change this” (Ahl, 2004, p. 16). Feminism embraces perceptions about: women’s unique needs, their subordination, differences of power within social interactions, and the need for strategies to improve the well-being of women (Gattiker and Larwood, 1986; Nabi, 2001). Feminism, therefore, focuses on inequitable power relations that subordinate women’s interests to that of men, as well as how the social and economic</p>	



roles of women are defined in relation to male norms (Ahl, 2004; Frye, 1983; Weedon, 1987)” (p. 563).

“For example, Down and Warren (2008, p. 10) contend that entrepreneurial identity is commonly described using language such as “risk and bravery, ambition and growth, and autonomy and self-sufficiency”, attributes that mirror the neo-classical male “hero” prototype (Ahl, 2006; Bruni et al., 2004; Welsh et al., 2008, p. 599). Cardon et al. (2005) present a parent metaphor and “family-entrepreneurship dictionary”, depicting venture creation as being akin to biological reproduction. Exclusively female elements include conception (commitment to the venture), gestation (resource acquisition), birth (emergence, start-up) and miscarriage (failure). Similarly, Smith (2008, p. 14) suggests that “diva identity” is a useful archetype to depict enterprising women. Hence, it is important for research to move beyond restrictive gender dualism such as male/female and femininity/masculinity as these constructs are poorly suited for contemporary social and economic institutions (Warren, 2004)” (p. 565).

“Verheul et al. (2005) have examined the impact of gender on entrepreneurial self-image using Bem’s theory of self-perception and Vesper’s (1999) entrepreneurial typology [1]. Their work sought to test the hypothesis that: “Women have a lower entrepreneurial self-image than men, controlling for their particular business accomplishments.” Based on survey data of American University alumni, the authors (2005) reported a direct and negative association between gender and entrepreneurial self-image and a weak mediating effect of human capital (business accomplishments, education) on the association between gender and entrepreneurial self-image” (p. 565-6).

“Consistent with relates studies across geography<sup>6</sup> and cultures, Gupta et al. (2009) found that “Entrepreneurship is perceived to be a masculine field such that entrepreneurs will be perceived to have predominantly masculine characteristics”. It was also reported that female respondents were significantly more likely to associate feminine attributes with entrepreneurial attributes compared to male respondents. Gupta et al.’s (2009) study is informative as it presents evidence linking stereotypes to entrepreneurial intention, where male and female respondents, who perceived themselves to be more masculine (high male-gender identification), reported a higher intention of starting a business compared to respondents, who perceived themselves as having low male-gender identification. The study encourages scholars to focus on understanding the influence of gender identification rather than biology (sex) in the examination of entrepreneurial intentions” (p. 566).

“According to Ahl (2004, 2006), none of the psychographic scales employed in research about women entrepreneurs were constructed or informed by women’s entrepreneurial experience or perspective. Moreover, feminine/masculine diagnostics described in the entrepreneurship literature were developed to examine constructs not associated with the entrepreneur or entrepreneurial leadership [2]” (p. 567).

“Women entrepreneurs perceived themselves to be action-oriented, creative thinkers/problem solvers, visionary, and determined. Their bias towards action reflected an interest in, or a perceived need to, initiate change. Respondents spoke about being passionate, confident, joyous as well as hard working, driven, and energetic. Additionally, the results question the contention, advanced by several feminist writers, that self-employed females and business owners are “ghettoized,” and are not positively engaged in the mainstream economy (Mirchandani, 1999; Bruni et al., 2004” (p. 580).

“In the entrepreneurial literature, risk-taking propensity is typically associated with risk of failure and financial viability or success of a venture (Brockhaus, 1982). In contrast, respondents to this study associated risk with resourcefulness, independence, and not being afraid to make mistakes. No statements associated risk with a financial or pecuniary outcome. Self-reported attributes such as being: passionate, determined, action oriented, and professional, also contrast arguments advanced within the feminist literature that women engaged in self-employment and business ownership are dependent and marginalized (Bruni et al., 2004), as well as sitting on the boundaries of the economic marketplace (Mirchandani, 1999). This work finds that these arguments do not capture the self-image of entrepreneurial women” (p. 581).

“Limited attribution was given to received maternal attributes (“care values embedded in the organization”, “universal obligation of care to stakeholders,” “care-giving and receiving”), as described extensively by Machold *et al.* (2008). This finding suggests that the conceptualization of the feminine within entrepreneurship does not accurately characterize more complex perceptions held by women with respect to their entrepreneurial self-image” (p. 581).

“Furthermore, simplistic, binary conception of masculine/feminine does not capture the extent to which femininity is contextualized or negotiated within the economic marketplace by women entrepreneurs. Moreover, while the care ethic perspective has emerged from a “maternal” paradigm of femininity; and in the entrepreneurial context, a matriarchal perspective predicated on principles of biological determinism does not seem entirely appropriate. Care giving appears to take place through inclusive or participatory leadership” (p. 581).

“Also noteworthy is the frequency with which respondents described themselves or their leadership style as “visionary”. This narrative theme was described as having a clear vision or strategy, being able to articulate it to others and thereby inspire them to pursue this vision. As one respondent remarked, “I have always been able to communicate my vision to my team so that they are excited by that vision.” In contrast, this attribute was remarkable in its absence from Bem’s (1974) and Schein’s (1975) scales as well as Gupta and Fernandez’s (2009) entrepreneurial traits” (p. 582).

“The historical failure to question gendered assumptions, expressed through language silences women’s entrepreneurial identities (Nadin, 2007). Unquestioned attribution of feminine attributes may also disadvantage women with respect to policy and program support...The absence of women business owners within mainstream small business development programs/networks may be influenced by lack of prestige, misperceptions, and stereotypes about female entrepreneurs (Marlow and Patton, 2005; Gupta *et al.*, 2009; Marlow *et al.*, 2009)” (p. 583).

**Reference**

Rand, J., & Tarp, F. (2011). Does Gender Influence The Provision of Fringe Benefits? Evidence from Vietnamese SMEs. *Feminist Economics*, 17(1), 59-87.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	This contribution studies the provision of fringe benefits using a unique survey of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Vietnam. Analysis of the survey reveals that women who own SMEs are more likely than men who own similar firms to provide employees with fringe benefits such as annual leave, social benefits, and health insurance. This gender effect exists especially with regard to mandatory social insurance and is robust to the inclusion of standard determinants of wage compensation. The study also explores whether this finding is linked to gender differences in social networks and workforce structure, worker recruitment mechanisms, and the degree of unionization. However, these factors cannot fully account for the observed differences in fringe benefits along the “gender of owner” dimension. There remains a sizable and unexplained fringe benefits premium paid to employees in women-owned firms.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Fringe benefits</li> <li>• Vietnam</li> <li>• Women-led businesses</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Developing economies</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Vietnam</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-28 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• First study of developing economies to focus on employers not employees. Changes in the Vietnamese health and social insurance system make payment of social insurance mandatory but still employers are avoiding it. Whilst there is a lot of discussion of this from a developed country perspective, there is not much from developing economies.</li> <li>• There is a suggestion that women in business are more likely to offer their employees additional benefits. This study is investigating whether the gender of the firm owner is relevant and whether the idea that women business owners are more likely to</li> </ul>

	<p>offer additional benefits will still be relevant once other determining factors are included.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The survey was conducted in 2005. Data was drawn from a survey of non-state Vietnamese manufacturing firms and utilises definitions of fringe benefits included within official health and social insurance policies. Samples were divided in accordance with size and legal structure, with part-time contracts excluded.</li> <li>• Findings indicate that employees were more likely to receive fringe benefits if the owner of the business is female. This is the case when the impact of gender on social networks, workforce structure, unionization and differing worker recruitment systems are taken into account.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> N/A
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Jayachandran N. Variyam and David S. Kraybill (1998) note in their study of twenty-five rural counties in Georgia, US that the proportion of part-time and casual paid workers and the level of benefits provision are inversely related, and smaller firms often employ more part-time and casual paid workers than do larger establishments” (p. 64).</p> <p>“Recent literature based on economic experiments across a large range of countries has shown that women tend to be more reluctant than men to enter competitive environments (Rachel Croson and Uri Gneezy, 2009), and this is so even when controlling for individual characteristics (difference in ability and time preferences) and for issues of discrimination. This helps to explain why relatively fewer women become entrepreneurs” (p. 68).</p> <p>“According to the comprehensive cross-country review article by Howard E. Aldrich (2005), individuals tend to engage in the labour market with people of the same gender, and Paula England and Nancy Folbre (2005) confirm the existence of such gender segregated network effects in the US” (p. 68).</p> <p>“The sample shows that women-owned firms on average pay higher wages...which is very likely explained by sample gender differences in several of the included control variables. This finding highlights (when trying to disentangle the gender effect on the provision of fringe benefits) the importance of controlling for variables that are different from each other along the gender dimensions, such as (I) average employee skill level, (ii) the share of female employees (together with the firm size control), (iii) owner education, (iv) location, and (v) legal ownership form” (p. 68).</p> <p>“Brown and Medoff (2003) also provide an argument for an expected negative relationship between firm age and fringe benefits provision. If the macro economy develops well and improves the general educational level of society, cohort-related differences in educational levels are to be expected. Older workers employed by incumbent firms may have less</p>	

education on average than younger workers in newly created firms. In sum, incumbent firms may pay higher wages and fringe benefits due to worker experience and tenure effects, but the educational cohort effect will tend to pull in the opposite direction” (p. 71).

“Herbert G. Heneman, III and Robyn A. Berkley (1999) argue that the recruitment process in the US is closely linked to firm-owner social networks. This may be so for SMEs, in particular, where recruitment and selection procedures are regularly less complicated and often informal. The historical underrepresentation of women in ownership can be linked to their exclusion from male business-related networks. A consequence is that women generally have smaller business-related networks (Aldrich, 2005) (p. 72).

“Female employers are, *ceteris paribus*, more likely to provide fringe benefits and comply with the mandatory social insurance law than their male counterparts. So, there remains a sizable and unexplained fringe-benefits premium paid to workers in firms with female owners” (p. 82).

**Reference**

Billore, S. (2011). Female immigrant entrepreneurship: Exploring international entrepreneurship through the status of Indian women entrepreneurs in Japan. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 3(1), 38-55.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of the paper is to explore how entrepreneurial opportunities are used by the rapidly increasing immigrant Indian female population in Japan. Given that a majority of Indian women are housewives and grew up in conservative family backgrounds, this analysis seeks to provide an insight into the situations that aided them and the challenges they faced in their entrepreneurial business ventures far from home.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper takes the form of a case study analysis through a semi-structured questionnaire designed on the concept of “Life cycle of minority owned businesses” to track enterprise activity from beginning to end.</p> <p>Finding</p> <p>The analyses show that although respondents began their stay in Japan as housewives, they shed their image with time, used their talents and diversified into a different role without sacrificing family duties, while also creating employment opportunities for both natives and immigrants. Major hindrances faced due to socio/cultural influences, lack of government initiatives and support facilities were identified.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The research analysis has been done on three case studies only as most available respondents were in the birth phase of their enterprises. More research is required on issues like capital availability, native employee and ethnic owner relationships, legal challenges and institutional support.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The paper draws attention to problem areas where changes in governance structure and social</p>

	<p>acceptance can create a more viable environment for immigrant entrepreneurs in Japan.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>To the best of the author's knowledge, this study is the first of its kind that explores and evaluates the status of Indian female immigrant entrepreneurs in Japan. As Indian immigrants in entrepreneurial activities in Japan are increasing every year, the paper can contribute in restructuring opportunity creation and facilitate maximum advantage.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Risk management</li> <li>• Innovation</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Immigrants</li> <li>• Japan</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Japan</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-29 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The paper is concerned with the experiences of Indian women entrepreneurs living in Japan. The focus is on understanding how these women explore the opportunities available to them and to gain a sense of the nature of the challenges they might encounter. Respondents were selected via personal contacts, with twelve originally identified, from which three were then chosen because they had been engaging in entrepreneurial activity for more than five years. Data was gathered via forty-minute in-depth interviews based on a semi-structured questionnaire, with follow-ups conducted via phone and email</li> <li>• The three case studies cover entrepreneurial activity in education, importing and hospitality. All three women had opted to create enterprises that serve to celebrate their culture. Two remarked on the challenges intrinsic to setting up in business as a woman in a male-dominated society like Japan. One of the women struggled with aspects of the Japanese legal system, including the requirement to obtain a Japanese guarantor. Another had completed Japanese language courses and was working with a Japanese partner, two factors that had served to mitigate some of the challenges faced by the others.</li> <li>• The paper recommends that policies to combat racism and prejudice against women,</li> </ul>

	<p>along with the development of some specific policies for women that could be embedded into any training or any schemes offering business advice. It also recommends that there be further research into capital availability, native employee/ethnic owner relationships, to address legal challenges and for institutional support.</p>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Life cycle theory for minority businesses (Bernard and Slaughter, 2004)</li> </ul>

**Key citations from the article**

“Kloosterman and Rath (2001) note that globalization and the “open door” policy of many countries have augmented immigrant entrepreneurial activity across the globe. Birley (1989) notes that in Western economies, more and more women are completing high-level education and are motivated by the same need for money, wish to be independent, and identification of business opportunities as their male counterparts. Also, modern women are increasingly involved in small business ventures globally (Morris *et al.*, 2006)” (p. 39).

“The Japanese government has tried to reduce its problems of women trafficking through various programs and policies, for instance, special loans were extended in 1999 to women at a very low rate of 1.5 per cent in order to start a business (The Japan Finance Corporation for Small Business, 2001). The number of applicants getting this facility had increased nearly 2.5 times in just four years for varied businesses like small restaurants, take-out food stores, nursing, massage centers, relaxation clinics, and pet grooming. Kanbayashi (2002) quotes reports from the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare that there has been a two-fold increase in women-owned enterprises from 1997 to 2002” (p. 41).

“Saifullah-Khan (1979) noted that “throughout the Indian subcontinent the mother has responsibility for the domestic sphere of activity”. Employment for women was possible only if she could also take care of home and family without threatening the role and responsibility of the husband as the main wage-earner. However, much has changed with time and today enterprises started by women are no longer confined to traditional occupations of knitting and sowing, but are moving to computers, electronics and engineering. The Indian entrepreneurs have shown farsightedness, courage, vision and tenacity in their pursuits for economic independence. They represent a group of women who have broken away from the beaten track and explored new ways of economic participation while facing challenges, public prejudice, criticism and family opposition (Vinze, 1987)” (p. 42).

“Indian immigrant women in Japan are strong and possess a very confident outlook to life. Case study analyses shows that although all of these well-educated women arrived in Japan with their husbands as housewives, they were able to shed their image with time, use their talents and diversify into a different role without sacrificing their moral duties” (p. 50).



“Certain factors came across as major hindrances in all the three cases, namely – Japanese language, ethnic biases, gender connotations, and a neutral attitude on part of the Japanese government and support agencies. Such situations on cultural adaptation, racism, fear of foreigners in the native society can pose serious threats to the entrepreneurial spirit. On the other hand, problems arising out of religion or gender biases were absent” (p. 50).

“An interesting aspect was that the respondents achieved success in their enterprises without making any major changes to their marketing strategies. There was not only an increase in customers but also in the number of employees and external business agencies associated with them” (p. 50).

“Kloosterman and Rath (2001) point out that in any given economy, immigrant entrepreneurship could be blocked due to all or some of the conditions like lack of demand, need for high capital investments, hindrance due to rules and regulations and entrepreneurs fail or hesitate to seize opportunities. This paper adds an angle of cultural support to the above dynamics failing which the entrepreneurial spirit among the immigrant population could be de-motivated” (p. 51).

“In conclusion, innovation and ability to take risks in foreign grounds are valuable assets in enterprising individuals. Given the right atmosphere and motivation, these capabilities can be channelized towards economic independence and a healthy contribution o societal development. Hence, around the globe there must be a very positive outlook towards entrepreneurial activities – whether domestic or immigrant and attempts should be made to make opportunity structures easily available to all” (p. 52).

**Reference**

Goby, V. P., & Eroglu, M. S. (2011). Female entrepreneurship in the United Arab Emirates: Legislative encouragements and cultural constraints. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 34, 329-334.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<b>Synopsis</b> Onlookers from outside the Middle East tend to view the regime as an essentially hostile environment for women in non-traditional roles. While this perspective may be valid in certain contexts, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) sets new standards of support for women in business ventures as it attempts to engage all its citizens in the economic and social development of this rapidly changing country. The present survey paper overviews for the international reader four key areas affecting the success of female entrepreneurship: (1) the legislative attempts to enhance female entrepreneurial achievement; (2) the socio-cultural realities constraining women in business ventures; (3) the impact of the UAEs strongly collectivist culture on business networking among women; (4) UAE women's motivation for entrepreneurial endeavour given the abundant options for more secure employment.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Arab Emirates</li> <li>• Women entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Cultural Dimensions</li> <li>• 'Glocalisation'</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UAE</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-30 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This paper is targeted at international readers with a view to highlighting the specific context for female entrepreneurs working in the UAE.</li> <li>• UAE has the highest rate of females in third-level education, with the government actively seeking to encourage women into the workplace with a view to replacing foreign workers. Historically women have run commercial enterprises using male family members as intermediaries. Currently, women form 59% of the workforce, working across a range of industries, with the numbers of female entrepreneurs active in UAE comparing favourably to the other Gulf States,</li> </ul>

	<p>though not with other countries with equivalent GDP.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Morris, Avila &amp; Allen (1993) identified that a balance between individualism (which yields greater creativity) and collectivism (which offers access to better support and networking opportunities). Despite the fact the women are more likely to use personal and professional networks than men, traditionally women in UAE have not had access to female gathering spaces. In fact, many families in UAE prefer women to get public sector jobs and 25% of women indicated they would like more support from their families/husbands. Still, of the women who are female entrepreneurs, 55% state that their main source of support is familial and 27% state that their support comes from their husband.</li> <li>• According to Erogul &amp; McCrohan (2008), it appears that the motivation to engage in entrepreneurial activities is in line with other countries, i.e the desire to be self-determining, with female entrepreneurs from UAE indicating that they interested in personal development (as in the individualist US) and motivated by group goals (as in collectivist Ghana) (Abbey, 2002).</li> <li>• The paper calls for studies in a range of areas including case studies of areas like family attitudes, educational achievement with the creation of roadmaps based on any findings; the role of networking for women living in societies that practice gender segregation; how women can find support in the Middle East; and the role of commercial banks in financing entrepreneurship.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> • Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“These issues depict a scenario of a particular kind of female empowerment against a backdrop of what to Western eyes would be regarded as significant female disempowerment” (p. 329).</p> <p>“Traditionally social values have curtailed female activity outside the home but recent robust government intervention has sought to mold a rapidly developing economy in which female figures can rise to public forums, while at the same time adhering to traditionally enshrined female roles. In our survey, we look at the increasingly important</p>	

practice of networking in an environment where female movement is curtailed and family-based and single-gender networking is overriding” (p.329).

“In the pre-oil era, the UAE’s economy revolved largely around pearl diving, fishing, and maritime trading. These were publicly regarded as strictly male-only activities. However, it was not uncommon to find women engaging in these commercial pursuits when they had no male provider... (Ebrahim *et al.*, 2008). During this period, some local women owned many ships and others conducted trading (Abu Nasr, Khoury, & Azzam, 1985). However, such women did not negotiate directly with non-related males but required a male family member to act as intermediary” (p. 329).

“While the propensity towards networking exists within the UAE culture, Emirati women engage less in formal networking than their expatriate counterparts and attendees at functions and workshops organised by the Women’s Business Council are predominately expatriate women (Haan, 2004). The reason for the slow uptake by UAE women of networking opportunities might be the historic absence of female networking spaces; in traditional Islamic societies, women have been not only segregated from men, but also from other women through the absence of female gathering spaces (Al-Dabbagh, 2008)” (p. 331).

“While network support systems used by entrepreneurs change according to the level of maturation of an enterprise (Burt, 1992), women typically cite family networks as an ongoing source of support throughout all their entrepreneurial endeavors (Inman, 2000; Maxfield, 2005). Greve and Salaff (2003) observe that, across cultures, enhancing resources and opportunities through personal and professional networking is a strategy more frequently employed by female than by male entrepreneurs” (p.331).

“The 2006 Gender Entrepreneurship Markets (GEM) Report ranked female entrepreneurial activity in the UAE last out of the 42 countries assessed. The report claims that within the UAE, women face a number of unique social norms which can make it difficult for them to become involved in entrepreneurial activity...These deep-seated cultural norms make it difficult for female Emiratis to harness their entrepreneurial talents and still meet the demands placed on them by their families and society (Preiss & McCrohan, 2006)” (p.331).

“One of the most common reasons cited by female entrepreneurs internationally for starting up their own business is the desire for independence (Deng, Hassan, & Jivan, 1995; Lee Gosselin & Grisé, 1990). This has been found to be the case in both individualist cultures such as Australia (Breen, Calvert, & Oliver, 1993) and collectivist cultures such as Singapore (Maysami & Goby, 1999)” (p.332).

“Abbey (2002) tested the impact of collectivist versus individualist cultural leanings in a comparative study of US and Ghanaian entrepreneurs and found that entrepreneurs with the individualist culture of the US were motivated strongly by personal development while those in the collectivist Ghanaian culture were motivated by group goals. Both these sources of motivation, personal development and contribution to society, were cited by the female UAE entrepreneurs interviewed in the study by Erogul and McCrohan (2008)” (p. 332).

“The situation of women creating and leading new business ventures within Middle Eastern societies could be viewed as an example of ‘glocalization’. This term was coined by Robertson (1992: 174-175) to refer to the “real world” endeavours of individuals and social groups to ground or to recontextualise global phenomenon or macroscopic processes with respect to local cultures. The UAE is likely to present us with an example of glocalised business practices as its business women grapple with different hurdles from their Western counterparts to achieve success in the global business world” (p. 333).

**Reference**

Huq, A., & Moyeen, A. (2011). Gender integration in enterprise development programmes. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 34, 320-328.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<b>Synopsis</b> Despite the intent for gender balanced development in their strategy and policy documents, donor-funded enterprise development programmes are still implicitly guided by the women in development (WID) approach that considers women as mere 'beneficiaries' of economic growth. This paper is based on data collected from enterprise development programmes that operate within the framework of Business Development Service (BDS) market development, women's entrepreneur associations and BDS providers in Bangladesh. The findings suggest that the current approach to addressing gender is often weak and without adequate strategic focus on how programmes could contribute to changing the wider picture of existing gender inequality. The paper concludes that instead of over emphasising the "cost-effectiveness" criterion that may exclude gender from programme interventions, enterprise development programmes should rather consider integrating gender as a matter of 'priority'. The important considerations should be the 'outreach', 'sustainability' and tangible 'impact' that such integration could make in attaining gender-balanced development.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Gender integration</li> <li>• Enterprise development programmes</li> <li>• Bangladesh</li> <li>• Micor, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs)</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bangladesh</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-31 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender is recognised as an important theme for economic development agencies (EDPs), however, the task of integrating gender into enterprise development programmes has proved more challenging. Failure to view considerations of gender as a mainstream concern have led to its minimisation in programme design. Additionally, prior to this paper, gender integration has received little attention in academic search. Generally,</li> </ul>

	<p>business development services (BDS) provided by EDPs has been unsuccessful in eradicating or even ameliorating the significant barriers women in developing countries experience when trying to access these programmes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Traditionally women in Bangladesh have been restricted in their ability to fully participate in the public sphere. Despite the Constitution, women living in rural areas find themselves subject to censoring community groups that proscribe behaviour thereby limiting their ability to engage in enterprise. Laws overseeing a range of key events in women’s lives (birth, marriage, etc.) are laid down for women by their specific religious community. All of this leads to such wide variations in the experience that women struggle to exercise their rights. Concerns for family honour mean that women avoid pursuing their rights via the judiciary. More recently, higher education, coupled with increased economic need have helped to redefine expectations of the woman’s role within the household, particularly in urban areas.</li> <li>• The study makes use of data from donor funded EDPs in Bangladesh aiming to achieve pro-poor growth via enterprise. Alongside content analysis of project documentation, eight key staff were interviewed and three focus groups were held which included women entrepreneurs’ groups, BDS providers and EDP partners. Rather than seeking statistical findings, the study was focused on exploring ‘issues surrounding the level of awareness, concern and responsiveness of commercial BDS providers to the specific needs of their existing and/or potential female clients’ (p. 323).</li> <li>• The documentation revealed three categories of strategy: a focus on gender equality in employment and staffing; an aim to reduce the gender gap in enterprise promotion; a focus on gender in design and implementation. When considering design and implementation, the study found that no intervention was designed to address the strategic needs of women. Additionally, EDPs tended to partner with existing service providers, usually already</li> </ul>
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	<p>well-established with male clients. There was a specific focus on securing female networks, these have tended to be located in metropolitan areas. Any attempts by service providers to integrate consideration of gender into their provision were nascent.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The paper proposes that donors and providers focus on the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ raising awareness of BDS</li> <li>○ grounding their work in sectors/industries with high engagement from women</li> <li>○ targeting partners interested in working with women</li> <li>○ view women entrepreneurs as possible service providers</li> <li>○ ensure programmes are led by people committed to addressing gender inequality.</li> <li>○ Additionally, they suggest the involvement of NGOs as a means of creating services capable of addressing the needs of those women working in semi-rural and rural areas and in micro industries.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• -</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“It is argued that women should have equal opportunities to share the benefits of economic growth, as supported by pro-poor growth principles (Manning, 2007). This argument is accepted by all of the development organisations which maintain that development programmes that fail to address issues of women and underprivileged groups will unlikely achieve their nominated goals of gender-balanced development and pro-poor growth (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2007; The World Bank, 2001)” (p. 320).</p> <p>“Empowerment is about providing people with an environment in which they can become the agents of their own development. It cannot be done ‘to’ people by outsiders. In an empowerment approach, power is seen less as domination over others ...and more as people’s own capacity to increase their self-reliance and internal strength (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1998). The World Bank (2002) argues that empowerment broadens poor people's freedom of choice and action. It notes that, “empowerment is the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control, and hold accountable institutions that affect “(The World Bank, 2002, p. 11)” (p. 321).</p>	



“The variations in the religious prescriptions and the actual values and practice as to women’s status and role, influenced by cultural factors, make the position of women highly paradoxical and often create obstruction in in women’s ability to exercise their legal rights (Kabeer, 1991; Rozario& Samuel, 2010)” (p. 322).

“Gender was not considered a key criterion in selecting markets/sector, partners or interventions. When occasional ‘gender’ related interventions were initiated, women were considered more as ‘beneficiaries’ of the interventions rather than ‘agents of change’ of development. This approach is essentially guided by Women in Development (WID) principles, where women are viewed as beneficiaries of development rather than as agents of economic growth (Eyben, Kabeer, & Cornwall, 2008; Lansky, 2000). These findings resonate with one study which identified a tendency among development programmes to tacitly accept male dominance and ignore gender issues of women entrepreneurs in programme design and implementations (Manolova, *et al.*, 2007)” (p. 325).

**Reference**

Lawton, S. (2010). Connecting with women entrepreneurs: equality or business imperative? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship* 2(3), 291-294.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to discuss the need for a shift from traditional sources of enterprise activity to routes that stimulate economic growth. In particular, it focuses on the potential of women-owned businesses to contribute to economic recovery, and asks if creating greater access to corporate and government contracts, through initiatives such as WEConnect.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This is essentially a discussion paper starting the debate on the contribution women business owners can make to the recovery of the economic meltdown.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Connecting with women-owned businesses is no longer about corporate social responsibility or, indeed, levelling the proverbial “playing field”. It is simply a business imperative!</p> <p>Originality/Value</p> <p>This is an original piece of work aimed at raising awareness of the value of women business owners in the supply chain.</p>
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Enterprise Economics</li> <li>• Economic growth</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-32 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Practitioner-style paper, focused on the business landscape following the recession of 2008, when SMEs were still viewed as essential to economic recovery. Given the circumstances emerging from the recession, recovery will have to come from new sources, e.g. women-owned SMEs. Women-owned</li> </ul>

	<p>businesses provide the ‘missing link’ for economic recovery.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduction in public funding for business development resulted in the loss of key networks, including the Regional Development Agency and Business Link network. Additionally, as MNCs reduce labour, they need to outsource.</li> <li>• Women’s businesses are poised to fill this need and so a group of MNCs has come together to form WEConnect International as a network designed to facilitate connections between women-owned companies themselves, and with corporations, NGOs, and governments. WEConnect is now active in major markets globally, including China, India, Europe, and Canada</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b> N/A</p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b> N/A</p>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“...as highlighted by ACCA (2009), SMEs are still considered key to a successful recovery: “SMEs in many countries around the world are the major source of economic recovery and assist the return to sustainable growth” (p. 291).</p> <p>“In the world of corporate and government contracts...women-owned businesses get less than 1 percent of the available contacts (Virginia, 2010)” (p. 291-2).</p> <p>“...women can have a beneficial restraining effect on male business excesses and firms with a high ratio of women in their top management teams have shown better resistance to the financial crisis (CERAM, 2009). Yet, getting women into corporate or SME workforce, as senior managers and entrepreneurs, is often viewed as an “equality and diversity” or “corporate social responsibility (CSR)” activity” (p. 292).</p> <p>“...the missing link from existing economic growth cycles has been women-owned business engaging in supply chain opportunities” (p. 292).</p> <p>“To qualify as a WEConnect-certified business, the business must prove that it is at least 51 per cent owned, managed and controlled by one or more women...WEConnect is already active in major markets such as Canada, Europe, India and China. WEConnect International is also progressing economic development in emerging markets by creating a pipeline for growth and working in partnership with the multilaterals such as the World Bank Group and the International Trade Centre” (p. 293).</p> <p>“Connecting with women-owned businesses is no longer about CSR, or, indeed, levelling the proverbial “playing field”. It is simply a business imperative!” (p. 293).</p>	

**Reference**

Mordi, C.; Simpson, R. & Singh, S. (2010) The role of cultural values in understanding the challenges faced by female entrepreneurs in Nigeria. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 25(1), 5-21.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided (indicate if none)</b></p> <p style="text-align: right;"><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to examine the challenges female entrepreneurs face in the development of their business in the context of Nigeria. In so doing, it addresses a gap in the literature on the experiences of female entrepreneurs in non-Western context and acknowledges the contribution that women make in this area of work.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper draws on survey data from 274 female entrepreneurs currently engaged in their businesses in three states – Lagos (Nigeria’s largest city), Ogun and Oyo within the South West of Nigeria.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Results indicate that female entrepreneurs are generally confident and resourceful and that they enjoy the challenge of entrepreneurial activity. As in the West, they experience difficulties relating to family commitments and access to finance – as well as problems gaining acceptance and accessing networks.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>It is argued that cultural values specific to the situation mean that these challenges, while common to female entrepreneurs in other national contexts, “play out” differentially and that they are experienced with different levels of depth and “intensity”. It is also argued that future research might uncover at a deeper level and drawing on qualitative methodology how some of the factors identified are experienced in women’s day-to-day lives. The paper suggests some policy implications in the form of support for female entrepreneurs in this context.</p>
<b>Keywords</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nigeria</li> </ul>

(5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Social values</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-33 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Nigeria</li> <li>• There is a tendency for studies of entrepreneurialism to focus on Western economies rather than developed economies and, consequently, for them to focus primarily on internal factors, rather than examining the impact of external factors on the behaviours of entrepreneurs. This study is grounded in female experience of entrepreneurship in a country where ‘self-employment is sought as a means to alleviate poverty, unemployment and gender-based occupational segregation (Remi-Alarape <i>et al.</i>, 2009)’ (2010:6)’. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In a review of current literature, the paper highlights some of the key characteristics that differentiate male and female entrepreneurs. It suggests that women are more likely to be driven by a desire to be self-determining and to work flexibly than by financial reward and that they often exhibit characteristics traditionally ascribed to men, namely a propensity for risk-taking and confidence. Some of the barriers experienced by women are also listed and are focused around lack of opportunities available within existing business networks, issues with negative perceptions of the enterprise itself and challenges relating to access to appropriate finance. Finally, the language used when discussing entrepreneurship has tended to be masculine (Bruni <i>et al.</i>, 2004; Lewis, 2006; Ahl, 2006), while alternative approaches, sometimes viewed as more female, have been marginalised.</li> <li>• In Nigeria, although the constitution gives equal rights to women and there has been a shift away from patriarchal values, often the lived reality for female entrepreneurs remains challenging. These challenges form the basis for a set of propositions that were used as a framework in the analysis of primary data from a larger survey of women with businesses in Lagos, Ogun and Oyo, south-west Nigeria. The analysis was based on relevant background characteristics and on</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

	<p>one section that asked participants to rank challenges in order of the importance of the negative impact they have had on the business.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Predominantly sole-traders who were under 35 years old, two thirds of the women were wives and mothers who employed between ten and thirteen people. Many exhibited positive self-perceptions with no strong correlation between these other variables and participants' educational background, marital status or religious affiliation. The challenges inherent in taking care of family and lack of access to business advice and to training were ranked highest.</li> <li>• Ultimately the study concludes that, whilst there may be a commonality in the nature of the barriers encountered by female entrepreneurs transnationally, the cultural values in each nation influence the significance of each woman's experience. It calls for wider recognition for the influential effect these women can have on future generations and suggests that further, more specifically focused research, is required.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b> N/A</p>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“...it is estimated that globally women account for 25-33 per cent of all businesses (National Foundation of Women Business Owners, 1998, p.2). while in the USA and the UK, they account for 33 and 26 per cent of business start-ups, respectively (Carter, 2000), in Sub-Saharan Africa the figure is higher at 80 per cent (Kitching and Woldie, 2004)” (p. 6).</p> <p>“Definitions of the term “entrepreneur” tend to assume and emphasise a particular view of the nature and purpose of entrepreneurial activities. An entrepreneur is defined as one who undertakes a commercial enterprise and who is an organisational creator and innovator (Gartner, 1990; Gartner <i>et al.</i>, 2004); one who prospects for or exploits opportunities and who has a tenacity to face challenges (Winn, 2005). Other conceptual constituents include smallness, competition, deregulation, innovation and risk (Verheul and Thurik, 2000) - traits and behaviour that have been identified by some authors as gendered masculine (Lewis, 2006; Bird and Brush, 2002; Marlow and Patton, 2005) and which accordingly contribute to entrepreneurship being seen as a typically male career path” (p. 7).</p> <p>“Other works have explored the specific challenges that women face as entrepreneurs. These include exclusion from formal and informal networks (Carter, 2000), less</p>	

favourable credit terms (Riding and Swift, 1990; Marlow and Patton, 2005) and negative stereotyping as “less serious” business (Lewis, 2006). As Verheul and Thurik (2000) found, female entrepreneurs spend less time networking than male counterparts and, despite attempts in the UK to allow equal access to finance and credit (Harding, 2004), gender disadvantage in these areas are seen to persist (Marlow, 2006; Carter and Rosa, 1998; Marlow and Patton, 2005; Roper and Scott, 2009)” (p. 7).

“Thus, as Carter (2000) points out, women are not disadvantaged in the world of self-employment because of their lack of mental, physical, educational and other kinds of abilities, but as a result of gendered categorisations. These categorisations have close links to other variables, such as cultural values, family commitment, lack of business capital and credit facilities that can act as limitations to the female entrepreneur” (p. 8).

“The desire by women in Nigeria to own their business is partly influenced by the intense struggle for scarce employment opportunities among an over-populated reserve army of men and women (Mordi and Mmieh, 2009) ...[T]hese entrepreneurial activities often conflict with normative constructions of gender. In this respect, the desire by female entrepreneurs to recreate work environments and to be in control, “intolerant of limits defined by others” is viewed as a threatening to men (Brotsky, 1993, p. 341)” (p. 8).

“There was little evidence from the data to support the proposition that female entrepreneurs in Nigeria face challenges that relate to personal or “individually based” factors. Most are educated to post-school standard and exhibit self-perceptions that are associated with strong entrepreneurial predispositions” (p.11).

“The level of confidence and self belief exhibited by these self-perceptions may be reflected in the mode of entry: the majority had started their businesses from scratch – and were running them on their own – an undertaking that is likely to be more risky than buying into a going concern and which is also likely to demand more entrepreneurial ability and resourcefulness. However, despite this, there is evidence that women encounter a lack of support in their ventures and that they would welcome the opportunity to further upgrade their skills” (p. 15).

“Given that Nigeria is a strongly patriarchal society (Kuada, 2009; Broysen, 1999), it may be anticipated that gender discrimination would be experienced as a key challenge. However, from the data only a minority identified this as an issue. Sexual harassment was instead, and somewhat paradoxically, a major problem identified. This form of behaviour by men has emerged from other studies in this and similar contexts as a common experience for women (Lodebo, 2003), possibly reflecting patriarchal attitudes to those women who venture into the public sphere (Brotsky, 1993; Zakaria, 2001; Woldie and Adersua, 2004). One possibility for this paradox is that the choice of sexual harassment as an overt form of discrimination “over-rose” the more “oblique” description of gender discrimination and that the latter item was accordingly less likely to be selected” (p. 15).

“Overall, these results have provided insight into the challenges faced by female entrepreneurs in the context of Nigeria. These suggest, as Carter (2000) found in a Western context, that women are not disadvantaged because of personal factors such as lack of mental, educational or other kinds of abilities, but more as a result of gendered categorisations and cultural values. In fact, Nigerian women emerge as particularly confident and resourceful in their entrepreneurial career. This aligns with Madichie’s

(2009) work on Nigerian women managers who, he argues, may be overcoming some of the barriers that have traditionally constrained them” (p. 16).

“In terms of the family, even single women are constrained by these commitments, reflective of traditional expectations regarding women’s role in fulfilling familial obligations (Ituma and Simpson, 2007; 2009; Zakaria, 2001\_ – and as we have seen, discriminatory practices still permeate in banking in terms of financial decisions. These and other norms and practices underpin patriarchal values that are particularly strong in Africa (Kuada, 2009; Broysen, 1999) and which may additionally influence the level of acceptance and respect women are afforded by market players in key networks” (p. 16).



**Reference**

Braun, P. (2010). Going green: women entrepreneurs and the environment. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 2(3), 245-259.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided (indicate if none)</b></p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The paper seeks to explore whether women entrepreneurs may be more engaged with green issues than their male counterparts. The study was undertaken to add to our understanding of gendered attitudes and behaviours around green entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper opted for a mixed-method exploratory study consisting of quantitative datasets from two regional studies on environmental attitudes and behaviour and qualitative data generated as part of an Australian green entrepreneurship training program.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The study found that participating women had stronger environmental attitudes and commitment to the green entrepreneurship program than males, suggesting that women entrepreneurs may be more engaged in green issues than male entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>Given the exploratory study approach, research results lack generalisability. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to test the proposed framework.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>Understanding gendered behaviours has implications for policy and education in terms of greening the small business sector. It also has implications for business innovation, the green marketplace and a sustainable post-carbon future.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper helps lay the foundation for comprehensive research on women entrepreneurs' engagement with environmental issues and green entrepreneurship.</p>

<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Corporate Social Responsibility</li> <li>• Environmental management</li> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-34 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> <li>• Prior to this study, corporate literature has focused on corporate social responsibility and gender by focusing on gender inequity, often within larger firms. Given that running green initiatives opens new markets and it has already been shown that women are more concerned about the environment, this study seeks to assess levels of engagement of women entrepreneurs in green business practices by fusing “ethic of care” (Chodorow, 1974) with a social constructionist perspective using a mixed-method approach to create both quantitative and qualitative datasets. The paper is interested in Western settings.</li> <li>• Data gathering was focused around SmartGreen, a two-year business programme funded by the Australian government beginning in 2008. It included 30 entrepreneurs, half of whom were women. The guiding principle behind the design of the project was that any environmental innovation would require expertise and access to technology. It aimed, therefore, to develop training and create demand for green products and services, offering benefit to both the supply and the demand side.</li> <li>• Quantitative data found that females were more engaged in environmental issues while qualitative data drawn from SmartGreen training sessions found that women were actively engaged in sessions and keener to network. Male participants tended to view it as a business opportunity whereas female participants viewed themselves as agents of change.</li> <li>• During the project, some male participants dropped out or replaced themselves with female colleagues. Consequently, whilst the genders of participants were balanced at the beginning of the initiative, ultimately more women than men completed environmental</li> </ul>

	<p>action plans for the businesses they represented than men.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Outcomes can only be considered as self-reported and so may have a stronger link to attitude than to behaviour. Consequently, the paper recommends the use of an adapted version of Barr and Gilg's (2007) conceptual framework that includes consideration of gender socialization, corporate social responsibility, theory of planned behaviour, and green entrepreneurship. Additionally, further research is needed into ways attitudes might be turned into action in SMEs, along with some work on gender-specific entrepreneurial processes.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Taylor and Wally typology (2004)</li> <li>• Gender socialization "ethic of care" (in particular Chodorow, 1974)</li> <li>• Social constructionism</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>"The corporate literature on gender and CSR (Marshall, 2007; Pearson, 2007; Thompson, 2008) tends to focus on gender inequity, providing little insight into the position of women and green business practices" (p. 246).</p> <p>"Meta reviews and analyses of research prior to this decade (Zelezny <i>et al.</i>, 2000; Davidson and Freudenberg, 1996) consistently show that women express higher levels of concern toward the environment than men. ...Hunter <i>et al.</i> (2004) point out that while women typically display higher levels of environmental concern, such concern is usually nuanced, showing that women are more likely to translate that concern into "private" pro-environmental behaviour within the household such as recycling, whereas men are more likely to demonstrate concern through public activism such as attending meetings" (p. 247-8).</p> <p>"Gender socialization theory posits that females have a stronger "ethic of care" (Chodorow, 1974). Gender socialization starts in childhood but continues in adulthood, influencing "choice of occupation, family roles, and responses to science and technology, particularly in context of environmental concerns" (Davidson and Freudenberg, 1996, p. 305). This could be one explanation why women entrepreneurs may be engaged with greening issues, although it is important to note that the socialization is not a universal phenomenon" (p.248). "Although the less risk-oriented profile attached to female entrepreneurs generally pertains to women's use of less financial resources and a strong emphasis on tried and true products and services (Meier and Masters, 1988), it could be construed as women being less prepared to take risk in terms of climate change and therefore more inclined towards green initiatives than men. ...But differential socialization processes need to again be recognised. The assumptions underlying both formulations are culturally and contextually relative and less likely to be applicable to women in developing economies with limited economic resources</p>	

and high exposure to climate change effects than women raised in “privileged” Western settings” (p. 248).

“Male entrepreneurs tended to look for bottom-line outcomes and competitive advantage, whereas women tended to lean towards broader ethical concerns in terms of benefiting the greater good. Women were also more proactive in participating in green networking opportunities, where they could interact with like-minded businesses, access more clients, source alternative resources and expand their business networks” (p. 254).

“Being a group of relatively homogeneous women entrepreneurs brought up in a “privileged” Western context, they displayed a strong “ethic of care” (Chodorow, 1974) and risk averseness to climate change (Bord and O'Connor, 1997), transferring gendered attitudes on environmental issues into green entrepreneurship. Putting these findings in the context of the Taylor and Wally (2004) typology, it could be argued that participating male entrepreneurs fit the finance driven ad hoc enviropreneur type and participating female entrepreneurs fit the value-driven ethical maverick type, with women entrepreneurs more engaged in driving societal learning and change (Taylor and wally, 2004)” (p. 255).

“Women were also more proactive in participating in green networking opportunities and expanding their business and social capital. The latter may be a reflection on entrepreneurs’ interest in engaging on the local level and could form part of their (conscious or unconscious) CSR agenda/green entrepreneurship reputation, as suggested by Spence (2007). The study also contributes to Perrini’s (2006) view that research on CSR among SMEs should be based on the concept of social capital” (p. 255).

**Reference**

Bensemman, J., & Hall. C. M. (2010). Copreneurship in rural tourism: exploring women's experiences. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 2(3), 228-244.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The paper seeks to explore the experiences of owners of rural tourism accommodation businesses in New Zealand within the framework of copreneurship. It aims to examine roles within copreneurial rural tourism businesses and describes and evaluates women's experiences of entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The method of the research is a postal survey of rural tourism accommodation business owners complemented by in-depth interviews with women in copreneurial business relationships. Triangulation of data sources and methods, combining qualitative and quantitative techniques enables a rich understanding of copreneurial expectations, roles and responsibilities and of women's experiences specifically.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The paper finds that the rural tourism accommodation sector in New Zealand is characterised by lifestyle and copreneurs running their businesses as a "hobby" and that non-economic, lifestyle motivations are important stimuli to business formation. The paper also finds that any perception of copreneurship as a tool for enabling women to become freed from traditional gender roles may not equal the reality as a gendered ideology persists even through copreneurial relationships in rural tourism. Copreneurial couple appear to engage in running the accommodation business using traditional gender-based roles mirroring those found in the private home.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper goes some way toward addressing the fact that there exists an underexplored and unarticulated feminine set of processes and behaviours in new venture production. In this research, women's voices</p>

	<p>were able to come through in both the survey and the interview research and their experiences are reported through their narratives. What is revealed is that a gendered ideology persists even through the copreneurial relationships in rural tourism.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Small enterprises</li> <li>• Tourism</li> <li>• New Zealand</li> <li>• Family firms</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New Zealand</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-35 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Paper responds to Hall and Williams’s 2008 study of rural tourism in New Zealand, identifying a gap concerning female motivation in venture creation, notable primarily because most of these businesses are led by women. Of principal concern is an evaluation of the power of copreneurship to challenge patriarchal working practices.</li> <li>• The study uses mixed methods including a postal survey (54% usable response rate), followed up with in-depth interviews. It was established that, while most business owners were older (75% over 50 years old), most of the enterprises were young, with copreneurs choosing to keep their businesses small to enable them to fit it into their lifestyle. Their reasons for setting up these enterprises were focused primarily around lifestyle and social needs. None mentioned financial reward as a motivation (different to Smith, 2000), rather they saw it as a lifestyle choice.</li> <li>• Women undertook more responsibility for the running of the business including completing tasks relating to cleaning, cooking, marketing and promotion and taking bookings (p.233). The research revealed, however, that these women recognise this and find enjoyment in the venture, noting the social element of the work as a positive feature. Some commented favourably on the support they got from partners/husbands, though generally they indicated that they shouldered most of the responsibility for the success of the business.</li> <li>• The paper calls for further research into the following: overlapping home and business</li> </ul>

	<p>worlds via the prism of copreneurialism; copreneurship and work/family conflict; how roles are shared; the perspectives of male copreneurs and their desire to remain in the background and so distanced from the operation of the business.</p>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• N/A</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Unfortunately, the literature on motivations for starting a business in the rural tourism sector has generally tended to assume that owners are a homogenous group and that motivations are shared across the sector and between genders (Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000; Getz and Carlsen, 2000, 2005; Thomas, 1998). Despite some exceptions (Jennings and Stehlik, 2000; O’Connor, 1995) the majority of studies have failed to recognise as significant the predominantly female management of rural tourism accommodation operations with little empirical work focussing specifically on the motivations of women (McGehee <i>et al.</i>, 2007)” (p. 230).</p> <p>“The longstanding traditional connection between women and their domestic location is not confined to the rural (Midgley, 2006). However, for rural women, it has been an association that “has endured with little questioning or change” (Little and Austin, 1996, p. 103). As rural restructuring continues, increasing numbers of women are participating within the formal economy, both in the labour market and as entrepreneurs. Yet, Midgley (2006) notes that the increased presence of women within the rural economy, is only deemed “economic” by mirroring or performing “masculine” economic attributes and actions. Consequently, women’s economic presence within the rural is portrayed as “different” in comparison to men, as associations with feminine characteristics and domestic responsibilities remain (Countryside Agency, 2003)” (p. 230).</p> <p>“Women do have different experiences of business ownership, and the male should not be used to stand for the universal, as women have a different voice, a different muse, a different psychology, a different experience of love, work, family and hope (Gordon, 1986)” (p. 231).</p> <p>“Copreneurial partners appear to see their business as much more of a lifestyle choice and as a way of life than their non-copreneurial counterparts (Baines and Wheelock, 1998; Fitzgerald and Muske, 2002; Roha and Blum, 1990; Smith, 2000). In this way, the copreneurial business owners are similar to other rural tourism businesses (Ateljevic and Doorne, 2000; Getz and Carlsen, 2000; Hall and Rusher, 2004, 2005; Lynch <i>et al.</i>, 2009; Morrison <i>et al.</i>, 1999; Shaw and Williams, 1998)” (p. 233-4).</p> <p>“This study then clearly reflects earlier investigative studies in copreneurship, where it was reported that the majority of copreneurial ventures were still structured along the division of labour along traditional sex-role lines (Fitzgerald and Muske, 2002; Smith, 2000). The findings show that there is a huge discrepancy in “equalness” when tasks responsibilities are compared by gender. Women do the cooking, the cleaning, taking bookings and marketing/promoting the business” (p. 236).</p>	

“The interviews became biographic in many cases, and portrayed life stories in relation to the women’s experiences of operating a rural tourism business. this biographic approach serves to “work outwards from the domestic instead of from the public inwards” (Edwards and Ribbens, 1991, p. 487). The result is that “the woman and not existing theory is considered the expert on her experience” (Anderson and Jack, 1998, p. 166; Hall, 2010)” (p. 236).

“The social opportunities offered through contact with visitors is often mentioned as a benefit of operating an accommodation business, both within these interviews and in published research (Hall and Rusher, 2004). The opportunities for social interaction provided by a hospitality business therefore appear to offer a chance to fulfill significant social needs for many of the women involved” (p. 237).

“It appears that the longstanding traditional connection between women and their domestic location is once again an association that has endured with little questioning or change (Little, 2002) and is here, transferred to the business, in addition to the home as most women see their business as an extension of their “keeping house” ... Women also did not tend to discuss their role as business owner when asked what they did “for a living”. It therefore appears that traditional gender divisions of labour are transferred from the private home domain and extended into the business, with traditionally gendered identity and role constructions persisting, at least in part” (p.2380).



**Reference**

Eriksson, P., Katila, S., & Niskanen, M. (2009). Gender and sources of finance in Finnish SMEs: a contextual view. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 1(3), 176-191

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to investigate the impact of gender on the usage of different funding sources in a sample of Finnish small- to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). The aim is also to embed the results into the country-context, which is characterized by the long history of women's economic activity and bank-based capital markets.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The database includes variables on terms of credit for the firms' most recent loans and detailed information on the firms' banking relationships. The total number of firm-year observations in the database is 3,519. The analysis is based on multivariate tests.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The funding patterns of women-owned SMEs (WOS) and men-owned SMEs (MOS) in the data are different. WOS are more likely to use additional equity investments by current owners as a funding source. They do so at least partly because of their positive attitudes towards this funding source. The results also contradict prior studies, which indicate that MOS have easier access to bank lending. The results suggest that there are no gender-related differences in the use of bank debt. Also in contrast to prior studies, the paper finds no differences in firm size or profitability between WOS and MOS.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The results of study both confirm and contradict the results of prior research and the paper suggests that this is due to the context-specific features of the Finnish labour market and the gender system as well as the bank-centred financial markets.</p> <p>Practical implications</p>

	<p>Concerning the issues of gender and finance, policy makers and financial experts in any country should not uncritically rely on the research results arrived at in other countries.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Only a handful of studies have investigated issues of gender and finance in SMEs embedding the results into the country-context.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Financing</li> <li>• Small to medium-sized enterprises</li> <li>• Finland</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-36 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Finland</li> <li>• Of key interest to the study is the relationship between gender and sources of finance. There is no consensus but, in general terms, it is argued that there is a difference between male-owned and female-owned businesses. These studies do not, however, take differing country contexts into consideration.</li> <li>• Data was collected in spring 2007 via private survey, with observations including years 2000-2005 and ultimately numbering 3519 (though less than this number were used as some were missing observations in some variables)6.</li> <li>• The findings contradict other studies in other countries, indicating that there are no significant differences between the size and profitability of MOS and WOS. There is also no difference between MOS and WOS in the use of bank loans. This contradicts the idea that WOS are less likely to use formal sources of funding. There is no indication of any bank discrimination.</li> <li>• WOS are more likely to locate themselves in the service sector (this is in line with findings in other countries, Brush <i>et al.</i>, 2006b) and to resort to increased funding from the owner. Women in Finland start their businesses later than men and they do so having had leading roles in their employers' companies. This may mean they are able to draw on better personal resources thereby explaining their positive attitude to owner funding. They also</li> </ul>

	<p>go into business to exert better control over their careers and so this may account for their expressed desire to maintain control over their businesses by providing additional funding themselves.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pecking order model</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Although there is no consensus on differences between SMEs owned by women and men, a number of studies show that WOS face more challenges when starting and running their companies (Hart <i>et al.</i>, 2003; Brush <i>et al.</i>, 2006a). One of the issues reported in earlier studies are differences in the financing patterns of WOS and MOS (Brush, 1992; Brush <i>et al.</i>, 2001; Coleman, 2000). Prior studies argue that acquiring capital and dealing with financial institutions is particularly difficult for WOS (Brush <i>et al.</i>, 2001; Carter and Rosa, 1998; Haines <i>et al.</i>, 1999)” (p. 178).</p> <p>“Studies also show that WOS are smaller (Coleman, 2000; Orser <i>et al.</i>, 2006) and less profitable (Industry Canada, 2005; Orser <i>et al.</i>, 2006) compared to MOS. In addition, many WOS start with fewer resources (Carter and Allen, 1997; Boden and Nucci, 2000) and lower levels of funding compared to MOS (Alsos <i>et al.</i>, 2006; Carter and Rosa, 1998). Because of their small size, WOS are perceived to be less attractive to banks and other potential creditors (Coleman and Carsky, 1996a, b; Coleman, 2000). As a result, it has been argued that WOS struggle to get funding for their ventures in the form of loans (Fay and Williams, 1993; Riding and Swift, 1990; Carter <i>et al.</i>, 1997; Coleman, 2000, 2002) and venture capital (Greene <i>et al.</i>, 2001; Brush <i>et al.</i>, 2002)” (p. 176-7).</p> <p>“In some cases the lower level of external funding is a matter of personal choice (Watson, 2006). Morris <i>et al.</i> (2006) also found that modest growth women entrepreneurs avoided external funding, which reflected a strong desire not to be obligated to others” (p. 179).</p> <p>“Finally, undercapitalization has been argued to be one of the key reasons for the lower growth rate and poorer performance of WOS in comparison to MOS (Alsos <i>et al.</i>, 2006; Carter, 2000; Carter and Rosa, 1998; Marlow and Patton, 2005). While a good number of studies show that WOS do not rely extensively on external funding, researchers have failed to confirm that they are clearly discriminated against by banks (Fabowale <i>et al.</i>, 1995; Haines <i>et al.</i>, 1999; Haynes and Haynes, 1999; Zimmerman Treichel and Scott, 2006)” (p. 179).</p> <p>“Coleman (2000) further found that WOS have comparable access to credit and they do not avoid taking debt as much as earlier studies indicate. They are, however, less willing to put up collateral or personal guarantees. This study also indicates that when WOS get credit, they obtain it in poorer terms than MOS: they may be required to put up more collateral capital (Riding and Swift, 1990; Coleman, 2000) and they are offered credit at higher interest rates because of the smaller size of their business and shorter relationships with their primary financial institution. These differences may influence the willingness of WOS to seek external financing (Coleman, 2000)” (p. 179).</p>	

“State public policies in Finland are based on an egalitarian-individualistic double-earner family model. Women have been well represented in the labor market as full-time employees since the 1960s and currently, women (aged 15-64) make up 65.5 percent (Statistics Finland, 2008) of the labor force” (p. 180).

“Highly educated Finnish women still encounter the glass-ceiling effect in large companies, however, which makes them prone to becoming small business owners (Kovalainen and Arenius (2006, p. 119). Owing to their working life background, women business owners in Finland are older and better educated compared to men business owners, and often they also have extensive professional experience” (p. 180).

“Herein lies an important implication for policy and practice: policy makers and financial experts in any country should not rely uncritically on research conducted in other countries because, as our study shows, the results may not apply. Furthermore, even when the results appear to be similar, the features explaining the results may be quite different” (p. 187).

**Reference**

Farr-Wharton, R., & Brunetto, Y. (2009) Female entrepreneurs as managers the role of social capital in facilitating a learning culture. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 24(1), 14-31.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to use a social capital and learning organisation theoretical framework to clarify two issues: how female entrepreneurs manage interactions with employees and whether they learn about new business opportunities from workplace networks. The qualitative findings demonstrated that female entrepreneurs used a relational approach to manage their employees which social capital theory (SCT) predicts should have promoted a workplace environment-based on trust and reciprocity of ideas, information and resources.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Data were obtained from semi-structured phone and person-to-person interviews. The qualitative questions sought to solicit information about how female entrepreneurs managed (particularly their staff) and whether they used workplace processes to be innovative and learn about new venture opportunities from within their firms.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The paper provides support to previous research that argues female entrepreneurs traditionally use a relational approach to managing their businesses. However, in contrast to previous literature about SCT, this paper found that only about a quarter of the female entrepreneurs used a social capital approach to learn about potential venture opportunities from their staff. Hence, the findings suggest that these female entrepreneurs did not engage in active learning from employees.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>This study's findings have a number of limitations. Firstly, the sampling process could have caused bias in the data collection and therefore generalisability of the findings may be compromised. Moreover, the</p>

	<p>sample size is limited; hence further research is necessary across numerous countries to improve the generalisability of the exploratory study.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The implication of these findings is that the majority of female entrepreneurs probably do not use workplace employee networks to provide new venture opportunities. Governments may need to consider strategies for supporting female entrepreneurs to capture new venture opportunities.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>Previous research suggests that small to medium-sized enterprises do not necessarily perceive networks outside of the firm as a source of new ideas and the findings from this study suggest that only a quarter of the female entrepreneurs attempted to learn from inside the firm.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Social capital</li> <li>• Social networks</li> <li>• Small to medium-sized enterprises</li> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-37 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> <li>• The paper examines how female entrepreneurs leading SMEs in manufacturing and processing manage interactions with employees and whether they go on to use the networks they have created with their employees to source new business opportunities. In seeking to investigate the management style of female entrepreneurs, the study uses the relational dimension of social capital theory to examine their management practices, exploring the quality of the learner variables embedded within the workplace. Of particular interest is the ways the management practices of female entrepreneurs can foster intra-organisational networks that could be used to facilitate their own ability to learn about new opportunities.</li> <li>• The study seeks to link theories and to review existing research via the use of content analysis on a series of interviews with female</li> </ul>

	<p>entrepreneurs. In these interviews, researchers were focused on discerning the management strategies they were employing and to ascertain whether they learned about any new business opportunities from the workplace networks they had created.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• While only a third appeared to indicate management practice centred on the management of people, in fact the study found that most use strategies that encourage positive working relationships, with two thirds taking a supportive approach when employees made errors in their work.</li> <li>• The study confirmed that female entrepreneurs ground their management strategies in the relationships they have in the workplace, however, information tended to flow in one direction, from female entrepreneurs to their employees. Whilst there was evidence of female entrepreneurs communicating their ideas effectively to their employee, there was much less evidence of them listening to their employees' ideas.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social Capital Theory</li> <li>• Learning Organisation Theory</li> <li>• Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory (Organisational)</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Previous research has identified that women tend to use a less formal and more relational approach to management, often forming informal relationships with employees (Brush, 1992; Verheul <i>et al.</i>, 2002; Buttner, 2001). This means that women entrepreneurs are more likely to be consultative with employees (rather than directing commands). They are also more likely to have embedded strategies to reward positive employee behaviour and empower employees by fostering information-sharing and close relationships amongst employees (more than male managers) (Marshall, 1993; Timberlake, 2005). Such an environment is also likely to foster the development of social capital since it develops within a firm when there are beliefs, rules and norms promoting behaviours based on mutual trust and reciprocity of information, support and resources between managers and employees (Adler and Kwon, 2002; Uzzi, 1996)” (p.16).</p> <p>“SCT would suggest that female entrepreneurs are effective when they promote trusting and reciprocity behaviours amongst employees (Adler 2001), through their socialising processes in meetings and conversations (Coleman, 1988). Over time these everyday processes build trust which in turn, increases the level of information and resources exchanged amongst employees and between employees and the entrepreneur owner/manager (Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998)” (p.17).</p>	

“Lin (2001) argues that irrespective of the genius of the employer or employees, it is the quality of social capital that determines whether the organisational processes are in place for the new ideas to be heard and acknowledged” (p.17).

“In particular, Moore and Buttner (1997) examined the management approach of female managers using Relational Theory (involving the analysis of female managers’ behaviour in terms of four dimensions: preservation, mutual empowerment, achievement and creating teams). The study found evidence of managers “preserving” in their ability to substitute the roles of absent employees and, feeling extra responsibility for employees’ welfare. In addition, there was evidence of “mutual empowerment” in female managers’ predisposition to manage democratically, “achievement” in their efforts to improve competence of their employees, and “creating teams” by sharing their vision and engaging in collaborative decision-making” (p. 17).

“These findings appear to support research by Buttner (2001) arguing that female entrepreneurs traditionally used a relational approach to managing their businesses. This means that these women entrepreneurs were actively building social capital within their firms by promoting an environment of mutual trust and information sharing. They also appear to promote empowering workplaces. In addition, they also appear to have the environmental factors in place necessary to support organisational learning because they strategically employed regular meetings” (p.25).

“It is unlikely that behavioural variables (such as formality, trust levels) limit organisational learning since most use an informal relational management approach, instead, the findings suggest that it is women entrepreneurs’ learner variables (values and norms) that affect their learning behaviour. this finding provides further evidence that the context of women entrepreneurs’ learning practices is a product of their values and norms formed over time as argued by Mirchandani (1999) and Berg (1997)” (p. 26).

“...irrespective of whether the employees’ ideas were good or bad, (and a number of female entrepreneurs stated their employees had better ideas than them) less than a quarter of them engaged in the entrepreneurial activity of searching for new ideas from within their firms” (p. 27).

“The implication of these findings is that the majority of these female entrepreneurs probably do not engage in the activity of actively searching for new business opportunities. As such, the findings suggest that they are more interested in survival as argued by Gray (2002) and/or continuity of the business (Verheul *et al.*, 2002)” (p. 27).



**Reference**

Weeks, J.R. (2009). Women business owners in the Middle East and North Africa: a five-country research study. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*,1(1), 77-85.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to offer an account of women business owners in the Middle East and North Africa.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>This five-country research study included face-to-face interviews with women entrepreneurs in Bahrain, Jordan, Lebanon, Tunisia and the United Arab Emirates.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings revealed that the women surveyed were operating across a range of business sectors and, in some cases, with employment levels ahead of most women-owned firms in Western Europe and North America. Most of the women surveyed were trading internationally and were growth-oriented.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>This research offers valuable practical insights for policy makers, women's business organizations and financial institutions.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper offers an unprecedented level of new detailed information about women business owners and their enterprises in the region</p>
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Middle East</li> <li>• North Africa</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Middle East and North Africa</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-38 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feat. five countries in the Middle East and North Africa (Bahrain, Jordan, Lebanon, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates – UAE)</li> <li>• Common aims were to:</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. uncover basic demographic information about women business owners and their enterprises in the five countries;</li> <li>. investigate the key issues facing them, especially barriers to growth, educational and training needs, and access to financing;</li> <li>. highlight both similarities and interesting differences among countries;</li> <li>. put the findings into a public policy context, with implications for action;</li> <li>. contribute to the development of relationships and capacity-building of the organisations partnering on the project;</li> <li>. empower the women’s business sector in each country by increasing public awareness and providing relevant information; and</li> <li>. create momentum for positive change, including sparking interest in more detailed, gendered research.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This five-country research study included face-to-face interviews with women entrepreneurs in Bahrain, Jordan, Lebanon, Tunisia and the United Arab Emirates. This paper is a precis of the original award winning article and omits lit review or theoretical considerations.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Given the relatively low level of use of outside advisors, it is perhaps not surprising that most of the women business owners surveyed would find additional entrepreneurship training helpful to them in managing the growth of their enterprises“ (p.80).</p> <p>“The women business owners surveyed are financing the growth of their businesses, but that growth is likely being hindered by their current financing practices. Very few of the women surveyed (a much lower share than is found in other regions of the world) are utilising formal bank credit” (p.80).</p> <p>“A very important element of promoting the growth and development of SMEs in general, and certainly women-owned firms in particular, is providing adequate support systems for information, technical assistance, advice and guidance” (p.80).</p> <p>“These four issues were ranked among the most important issues in the majority of the countries surveyed: the desire to learn financial management skills; finding and keeping good employees; access to capital for the growth of their firms; and the high cost of public services” (p.80).</p> <p>“On a personal level, like women business owners around the world, most are married with children, between the ages of 35 and 54, and well-educated. About 91 per cent of the women business owners surveyed in Bahrain have some level of post-secondary</p>	

education, as do 79 per cent in Tunisia and the UAE, 76 per cent in Jordan, and 40 per cent in Lebanon” (p.78).

“The phrase that best sums up the general outlook and view of women business owners surveyed in the region toward the future of their enterprises is definitely “largely optimistic, poised for growth, but in need of some direction and assistance” (p.79).

**Reference**

Shaw, E., Marlow, S., Lam, W., & Carter, S. (2009). Gender and entrepreneurial capital: implications for firm performance. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 1(1), 25-41.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to discuss the interplay between gender, entrepreneurial capital and firm performance. Using matched sample data, the paper considers how gender shapes the possession of entrepreneurial capital and discusses the implications of capital variance for business performance.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The methodology was designed to collect data about the entrepreneurial capital of small firm owners and the performance of their firms. A sample of 30 matched pairs of business owners (30 male, 30 female) was created. Data were collected in two stages involving a telephone survey followed by face to face semi-structured interviews.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The findings reveal an interplay between economic, human, social and symbolic capital and suggest that our understanding of the possession and impact of entrepreneurial capital on firm performance can be advanced by recognising the convertible nature of entrepreneurial capitals. The paper also draws attention to the impact which human capital, particularly age and experience, can have on the accumulation of entrepreneurial capital.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The paper identified the value in exploring the convertibility of entrepreneurial capitals and the benefits of investigating all forms of capital.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The paper identifies gender as a critical influence and suggests that the relationship between gender and engagement in entrepreneurship should be more fully</p>

	<p>understood and addressed by policies designed to encourage and support business ownership.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The theoretical and methodological framework developed for this study lays the foundation for extending and developing literature on entrepreneurial capital and firm performance research.</p>
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Business performance</li> <li>• Capital</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• United Kingdom</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-39 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The findings reveal an interplay between economic, human, social and symbolic capital and suggest that our understanding of the possession and impact of entrepreneurial capital on firm performance can be advanced by recognising the convertible nature of entrepreneurial capitals. The paper also draws attention to the impact which human capital, particularly age and experience, can have on the accumulation of entrepreneurial capital.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bourdieu’s (1986) definition of economic capital</li> <li>• Building on capital theory (Bourdieu, 1986), the notion of entrepreneurial capital has emerged as a theoretically robust means of conceptualising and describing the various financial and non-financial resources necessary for the establishment, survival, sustainability and growth of small ventures (Morris, 1998; Erikson, 2002; Firkin, 2003).</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“The concept of entrepreneurial capital suggests that in addition to financial capital, the entrepreneurial process, including business performance, is affected by the other types of capital possessed by entrepreneurs and available to them through networks and relationships (Firkin, 2003). While entrepreneurship scholars have variously defined non-financial capital, common to most studies is agreement that in addition to economic capital, entrepreneurs typically possess human, social and symbolic capital (Boden and Nucci, 2000; Carter et al., 2003; Davidsson and Honig, 2003; Cope et al., 2007; Shaw et al., 2008)” (p.26).</p> <p>“With regard to firm performance, early research identified gender of the business owner as a differentiating variable with women-owned firms typically found to “underperform”</p>	

relative to male-owned firms across a range of performance criteria (Kalleberg and Leicht, 1991; Cliff, 1998). Recent research evidence suggests a more complex dynamic between gender and business performance and challenges the “female under-performance hypothesis” (Ahl, 2002; Watson, 2002)” (p.26).

“Contemporary theorising regarding gender now suggests that, “the binary heuristic, useful as it has been, is no longer analytically or empirically helpful, relying as it did more on categories than bodies for its warrant” (Linstead and Pullen, 2006, p. 1288). As such, it is now recognised that gendered identities are complex with individuals adopting, shifting and realigning expressions of masculinity and femininity within the self. Rather, as an identity, gender is in constant flux reproduced willingly and unwillingly, consciously and unconsciously, according to context, structure and agency” (p.27).

“Holmes (2007, p. 60) notes that gendered ascriptions are “a kind of masquerade with no substance. Femininity does not exist except as a shifting set of symbolic acts. What is feminine has no basis in women’s bodies”. While, in essence, there is no fixed or essential femininity or masculinity tied to biological identities, within social interaction gender makes us culturally intelligible as social actors we make sense of others in terms of their ascribed gender. Moreover, challenging gender conformity and so, creating “gender trouble” (Jagose, 1996; Roseneil, 2000) through the rejection of the assumed naturalness of heteronormativity provokes uncertainty in others and even violence when the hegemonic assumptions underpinning a presumed “natural order” are challenged (Fiske, 1989; Keltner, 1995)” (p.27).

“For this notion of underperformance to have validity, it must be presented within a binary, oppositional frame; that is, there must be a comparator or level of performance which is perceived of as normative, desirable and attainable. As such, not to achieve such standards is then perceived as problematic and a form of failure. This comparative framing is based upon a hyper-masculinised notion of entrepreneurial performance which, while both irrelevant to and unattainable for most female (and male) business owners, is also influential in portraying women as lacking. This framework is troubling for a number of reasons. Firstly, it fails to challenge the normative notion of performance; secondly, it assumes that women-owned firms “underperform”; and thirdly, it suggests that women, by use of agency and self-reflection, can address this problem” (p.28).

“The problem, it appears, is not the existence of gender differences, but the lack of an appreciation of the differing contribution that women entrepreneurs make to society. To achieve this, it is essential to acknowledge that gender is a consequence of 37 institutionalised social structures which influence the perceptions, attitudes and behaviours of all members of society, including women entrepreneurs” (p.37).

“It appears that the older age profile of male owners had a positive impact on other dimensions of human capital (experience) and social capital (durability of network relationships). Particular to economic capital, the findings presented concur with a large body of evidence which has demonstrated that, relative to their male counterparts, women business owners undercapitalise their firms, typically investing approximately only one third of the capital used by men” (p.36).

“On the one hand, it appears that the women entrepreneurs in our sample were embedded within loosely connected and larger networks; a structure which research has found to be

advantageous for entrepreneurship (Aldrich, 1987; Granovetter, 1992). Yet, despite occupying such an “ideal” position, it appears that the networks of the women owners were less durable and used for different purposes than those of their male counterparts, often for the discussion of personal and family matters. Findings regarding owners’ networking activities add to this confusion. While previous studies have found no statistical differences in the networking activities of male and female entrepreneurs (Johannisson, 1988; Aldrich et al., 1989; Cromie and Birley, 1992), they have established that men display a greater propensity to network (measured by their membership of social and professional clubs and societies). Our study found women owners to be both more active networkers and twice as likely to be members of both mixed and women-only business clubs. However, when asked to identify those sources which had contributed to the performance of their firms, female owners were significantly more likely to identify friends and family” (p.35).

**Reference**

Kirkwood, J. (2009). Is a lack of self-confidence hindering women entrepreneurs? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 1(2),118-133.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>Studies have concluded that men tend to have higher self-confidence than women and that this affects their entrepreneurial intentions. However, little is known about how self-confidence affects entrepreneurs in their start-up decision, and even less is understood about how it affects entrepreneurs' decisions and actions in their ongoing business. The purpose of this paper is to meet these two objectives by using a gender comparative approach.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A total of 50 entrepreneurs (25 women and 25 men) in New Zealand were interviewed in a semi-structured format.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Women exhibit a lack of self-confidence in their own abilities as entrepreneurs compared to men. This finding parallels results of prior research. Once in an established business, women relate to entrepreneurship less than men and do not feel comfortable calling themselves entrepreneurs. For some women, entrepreneurial self-confidence grew over their time in business. For other women, it appears to continue to act as a constraint – affecting their ability to access finance and curtailing their growth aspirations.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>In total, 50 entrepreneurs were studied, and further research could be done to understand the impact of self-confidence for larger samples of entrepreneurs.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The qualitative nature of the study contributes to the limited understanding of how entrepreneurial self-</p>



	confidence affects both the start-up decision and sustained entrepreneurship, but more research required. A key outcome of this paper is that it provides directions for further research to more fully understand this phenomenon. It also presents a number of policy suggestions.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Self esteem</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• New Zealand</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New Zealand</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-40 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recent evidence from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) shows women’s contribution to entrepreneurship is particularly evident in low- and middle-income countries (Allen et al., 2008). In all but two countries (Japan and Peru), participation rates of women in entrepreneurship are still substantially lower than men’s (in some countries, this is half as much as men’s participation) (Allen et al., 2008). Recently, authors have suggested that women’s entrepreneurship (while receiving increased attention in recent years) is still an important area to study (de Bruin et al., 2007b).</li> <li>• While self-confidence has received scant attention in the entrepreneurship field, research by Fielden et al. (2003) concludes that “a lack of confidence is perhaps the greatest barrier to women’s progression into micro and small business ownership, which inhibits all aspects of their entry into business” (Fielden et al., 2003, p. 162). Beyond these general views that self-confidence affects women’s propensity to enter business, little is known about how it affects entrepreneurs in their start-up process.</li> <li>• many prior 119 studies focus on nascent entrepreneurs and/or students, rather than on those who have actually become entrepreneurs. To partially fill this void, this study contributes data from 50 entrepreneurs in New Zealand.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transcripts were coded according to themes, and analyzed using a constant comparison approach (Glaser, 1992). The data were coded by paragraph and sentence as proposed by Strauss and</li> </ul>

Corbin (1990). Code notes were initial thoughts about themes, and possible relationships and issues that appeared to be important to the participants.

### **Key citations from the article**

“Women entrepreneurs tend to have lower levels of confidence than men at all stages of the entrepreneurship. Second, women have a limited inclination to call themselves entrepreneurs. When a comparison is made with businesses with a similar number of employees and a similar level of annual sales, this appears to relate to a lack of self-confidence. Finally, self-confidence affects entrepreneurs’ decisions and actions once they have established businesses. These have implications for business growth and access to finance particularly” (p.130).

“...for those entrepreneurs who do not necessarily want to grow their business but require help and advice, a lack of self-confidence may also limit their uptake of assistance” (p.129).

“Growing their businesses is often considered to be the ideal scenario for entrepreneurs (Masurel and van Montfort, 2006). As noted in the findings of the current study, entrepreneurial self-confidence may limit growth aspirations. While some women join with a business partner as a strategy for building self-confidence, others may require support from a spouse, family member or other mentor. This support may be vital to building women’s confidence to enable them to properly grow their businesses” (p.129).

“Fielden and Dawe (2004) find that women’s confidence is an issue in accessing assistance and support from traditional providers” (p.129).

“...a number of gender specific programmes may be appropriate, but as noted, the New Zealand Government has been reluctant to offer such programmes. Private providers could, therefore, fill this gap and offer courses and advice tailored to women. Networking groups would also be helpful mediums for confidence-building (such as Her Business Networks which are linked to Her Magazine or Zonta, an international professional women’s group). Additionally, mentoring programmes for women entrepreneurs may assist with improving self-confidence” (p.129).

“However, the high level of women’s entrepreneurship in New Zealand may impact on the findings. Therefore, in countries where entrepreneurship is less prevalent, one might expect the situation to be significantly worse for women entrepreneurs in terms of their confidence levels and research in such settings should be a priority. Indeed, prior research in England, a less-entrepreneurial country, finds that a lack of confidence may be the largest barrier to women entering business ownership (Fielden et al., 2003)” (p.128).

**Reference**

Watson, J., Newby, R., & Mahuka, A. (2009). Gender and the SME “finance gap”. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 1(1), 42 – 56.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>While some previous research supports the existence of a finance gap within the small and medium enterprise (SME) sector, particularly for female owned SMEs, the evidence is hardly unequivocal. Further, much of the prior research has focused on supply- rather than demand-side issues. Hence, the purpose of this paper is to investigate both supply- and demand-side issues for female and male SME owners.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>From the results of three focus groups and a review of the literature eight hypotheses were formulated for testing with a mail survey sent to 534 SME owners.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>Based on 123 responses, the findings provide no evidence to suggest that a supply-side finance gap exists within the Australian SME sector. There is also no evidence that Australian SME owners (particularly female owners) are being discouraged from applying for loans from a financial institution because they believe their application will be rejected. The results suggest that other demand-side issues (particularly risk-taking propensity and desire to maintain control) play a more important role in the capital structure decision making of SME owners.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>This study's major limitations are its reliance on a sample of solely Western Australian businesses that were not representative of the population of Western Australian SMEs and its relatively small sample size.</p> <p>Practical implications</p>

	<p>Financial advisers need to be sensitive to various demand-side issues when advising SME owners about the merits of applying for external funding.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>This study adds to the limited available evidence concerning the importance of various demand-side issues to SME owners considering accessing external funding.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Small to medium-sized enterprises</li> <li>• Finance</li> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-41 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is no evidence to suggest that a supply-side finance gap exists within the Australian SME sector.</li> <li>• There is little evidence that Australian SME owners (particularly female owners) are being discouraged from applying for loans from a financial institution because they believe their application will be rejected. Unlike Treichel and Scott (2006), but consistent with Fraser (2006), our results found no evidence that female SME owners were less likely to apply for bank funding than their male counterparts. Our results suggest that other demand-side issues (such as risk-taking propensity) play a more important role in the capital structure decision making of SME owners than any concerns about their loan application being rejected.</li> <li>• This study also failed to find any evidence of actual discrimination by financial institutions against female SME owners in terms of either: the average time taken to approve a loan; the length (term) of the loan; or the interest rate charged. The results also failed to uncover any perceptions of discrimination by financial institutions against female SME owners.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Levenson and Willard (2000) for the USA, and Fraser (2006) for the UK. Carpenter and Petersen (2002) examined more than 1,600 US small manufacturing firms and found that the growth of</li> </ul>

these firms appeared to be constrained by a lack of (internal) finance. Similarly, Bruno and Tyebjee (1985) found that ventures that had received external capital achieved statistically significantly higher sales and employment growth (compared to ventures without external capital). With respect to women-owned businesses, Carter and Allen (1997) noted that the availability of financial resources was the major influence on their growth.

### **Key citations from the article**

“It should also be noted that bank and other types of lending must be subject to some form of rationing (Hamilton and Fox, 1998) and, therefore, arguments suggesting the existence of an overall (or sex-based) finance gap should not focus simply on the rate of loan application rejections but should consider the reasons for those rejections. For example, in his study of 2,500 UK SMEs, Fraser (2006) found that where a loan application was rejected it was normally because the applicant had no security and/or no track record and/or a poor credit history” (p.45).

“Given that small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are responsible for significant levels of employment, innovation and productivity, it is important that policy makers and advisers are well informed about the determinants of SME growth and, in particular, the various supply- and demand-side issues surrounding the provision of growth funding for this sector (Becchetti and Trovato, 2002)” (p.42).

“Winborg and Landstrom (2001) argue that financial problems (lack of funds) constrain the development and growth of SMEs because many SMEs are unable to access the same kinds of growth funding often available to large businesses” (p.42).

“It has also been suggested the “barriers” to finance might be more acute for female-owned SMEs as there is a perception that financial institutions discriminate against female business owners (Riding and Swift, 1990; Breen et al., 1995; Brush et al., 2001)” (p.43).

**Reference**

Petridou, E. (2009). E-mentoring women entrepreneurs: discussing participants' reactions. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 24(7), 523-542.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to advance the argument for the transformative potential of e-mentoring support to women entrepreneurs, presenting an e-mentoring intervention to rural women entrepreneurs in Greece.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>A six-stage e-mentoring process is practiced through a project supporting rural women entrepreneurs, based on mentees' and mentors' reactions. Their expressed degree of satisfaction with regard to the e-mentoring relationship, achievement of personal goals, as well as their desire to continue the relationship are served as useful indicators. Questionnaires are used during three times (pre and post the e-mentoring relationship, i.e. before, just after its end and six months later) to obtain information from mentees' and mentors' groups.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The features of the quality of the e-mentoring relationship such as mentors'/mentees' characteristics, frequency of contacts, and e-services are judged to be satisfactory by both mentors and mentees. Mentees perceive that they sufficiently achieved their personal goals, emphasizing the successful role modelling that their mentors provide. Mentors gain publicity and the broadening of their connections.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The survey results could offer substantial assistance to decision makers concerning designing and implementing e-mentoring processes supporting female entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Originality/value</p>

	<p>Despite the explosion of online mentoring opportunities, few academic articles and little empirical evidence have addressed e-mentoring support to women entrepreneurs. The present paper attempts to add research results and suggests a framework of e-mentoring process discussing both mentors' and mentees' reactions.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Mentoring</li> <li>• Greece</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Greece</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-42 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussing mentors' and mentees' reactions, the features of the quality of the presented e-mentoring process, pertaining to mentors' personal and professional profile, frequency of contacts and communication services, have been found to be its primary strengths. Moreover, mentees' commitment and the acceptance of the role model projected to them by mentors, as well as both mentors' and mentees' desire to continue this relationship, constitute indications of a positive collaborative atmosphere leading to the success of the present e-mentoring intervention.</li> <li>• It is critical to make e-mentoring accessible, since it fuels start-ups and provides rural women entrepreneurs with self-confidence from the early stages of their activity, successfully influencing the factors that shape women's entrepreneurial career aspirations. The value of e-mentoring support is further recognized if one considers that several of the reported reactions can be altered and improved.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In the present study, the e-mentoring intervention created by the female/women development cooperation, builds on the practical needs of women entrepreneurs-members of rural co-operatives in Greece. This development cooperation undertook the role of the "e-moderator" (Chrisman and McMullan, 2004; Salmon, 2004) and acted as a mentoring resource to both mentors and mentees, supporting with administrative services and the necessary</li> </ul>

	technology infrastructure, thus facilitating the e-mentoring relationship.
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<b>Key citations from the article</b>
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**Reference**

Singh, G., & Belwal, R. (2008). Entrepreneurship and SMEs in Ethiopia: Evaluating the role, prospects and problems faced by women in this emergent sector. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 23(2), 120-136.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)</p> <p><b>abstract</b></p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper attempts to identify the problem areas and developmental issues attached to women's entrepreneurship related to small medium enterprises (SMEs) particularly in Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia. It also attempts to devise certain stratagems for ensuring women's entrepreneurial growth and SMEs' advancement in the region.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The study was conducted in two phases. The first phase attempted to identify the problem areas in terms of nature, needs, desire, motivations and problems of women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia by an extensive review of the existing literature. The second phase incorporated a ground survey and focused interviews with groups of female entrepreneurs for assessing the factors related to entrepreneurship. The data pertaining to these issues were collected using 90 personally administered "schedules" in eight areas in Addis Ababa on the basis of stratified sampling. Basic level statistical analysis was performed using SPSS statistical package.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The focused interview identified problems in the areas of securing finances for establishing and running SMEs, lack of entrepreneurial and management competence and exposure, problems in finding the markets and distribution networks; limited opportunities for promotion and participation; limited amount of government and institutional support; absence of technological know-how and integration mechanism; and rampant corruption in an undisguised or disguised form, as major bottlenecks.</p> <p>Originality/value</p>

	<p>The paper is one of the important studies taken in the context of women entrepreneurship in Ethiopia. No such studies have been undertaken in the past that assess the women entrepreneur in the context of overall SME development. Only a few exist but give more importance to microfinance and micro-enterprises. So the paper is original in context as well as in research terms. Proper attention to the issues raised and recommendations made could give a significant boost to entrepreneurial activities in the region.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Ethiopia</li> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Africa</li> <li>• Small to medium-sized enterprises</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ethiopia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-43 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The issue of women entrepreneurship is becoming increasingly popular across the globe. The participation of women is increasingly being viewed as one of the prime contributors in economic growth. Irrespective of their involvement in small-/medium-scale enterprises or in the informal/formal sectors, their contribution to output and value addition is substantial. Women entrepreneurship is not only necessary for their economic survival but also for strengthening the social system. Fostering women’s entrepreneurship development is therefore crucial for economic growth and development.</li> <li>• Small-scale enterprises constitute the bulk of the private sector in Ethiopia. These small-scale enterprises have a great capacity to alleviate unemployment and to contribute to the economic growth of the country (Andualem, 2003). Ethiopia is one of the developing countries where the small-scale enterprises are estimated to employ 1.5 million people.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“For the purpose of our research an entrepreneur is an individual who propelled by an idea, personal goals, and ambition, brings together the financial capital, people, equipment, and facilities to establish and manage a business enterprise (Donnelly et al., 1990). Entrepreneurship is widely considered as an important ingredient in the modern</p>	

global economic development recipe (Kirschhoff and Phillips,1989; Keeble et al., 1990; Audretsch and Fritsch, 1991)” (p.121).

“Entrepreneurship is a virtue that is capable of removing all the vices associated with economic growth, social disparities and employment” (p.121).

“In many developing countries women entrepreneurs are taking leading role in helping their respective governments to establish and develop strong small and medium enterprises (SMEs) that contribute significantly to poverty reduction” (p.121).

“Still we cannot deny the fact that with more small businesses taking advantage of the outsourcing trend (Engardio, 2006) natives working overseas also creates new markets and opportunities for home companies to sell their products overseas, creating what some would call a “win-win” scenario (Strauss, 2004). Here, women could be the major beneficiaries, who make up the majority of the small-scale entrepreneurs especially in developing countries (Blackman, 2000). This is because women are often marginalised in many developing countries and improving the life of women implies a significant impact on the lives of their families. Also in case of SME factors such as age, gender, education and training, family background, ethnicity, religion, network membership, and motivation, in addition to other structural and competitive factors play an important role in influencing entrepreneur’s behaviour and decision making (Porter, 1980; Gartner, 1988; Brush, 1997; Orhan and Scott, 2001)” (p.122).

“There are several adversities daunting African continent in terms of entrepreneurial advancement. Uneconomic operations impose major threats on industries because of high-cost regions commanding 30 per cent higher price levels than the developing counties (Benn et al., 2005). Moreover, the disproportionately high-indirect costs, primarily because of the hostile business environment, adversely affect the business performance in the continent” (p.122).

**Reference**

Millman, C., & Martin, L.M. (2007). Exploring small copreneurial food companies; female leadership perspectives. *Women in Management Review*, 22(3), 232-239.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The aim of the research was to explore the lead roles taken by women in some successful small copreneurial companies by studying similar small firms in one sector.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Here, a multiple case study approach was selected, using narrative as a key focus, to explore the way the business had been set up, and its subsequent growth. The role of both partners was also explored, plus strategy, leadership and work: life balance.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>New insights emerge about copreneurship where females take lead roles in management, both at start up and through company development. Female partners had an equal or overriding need for achievement to their partners, possessed great self confidence, perceived no barriers to women in business, took a strategic role in the firm from start up through development, drew salaries equal to their male partners and managed life at home and at work.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The case study approach gives insights but other studies are needed, both quantitative and qualitative, to identify whether these were isolated examples or a common experience for copreneurial firms or for this sector. Two had left scientific jobs to start a food product business – an unexpected finding, requiring further study given the poor records for female participation in UK science professions.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The study provides insights for those agencies supporting business development by adding to the role models and images of women taking a lead role.</p>

	<p>Originality/value</p> <p>The study focuses on an under-researched area. Here, the five female copreneurs perceive themselves – and are perceived – as entrepreneurs, taking a lead and developing strategic vision for the firm. This is an under-researched aspect of female enterprise.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Leadership</li> <li>• Small enterprises</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-44 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This paper focuses on one type of partnership in business start up and management – “copreneurship”. Couples sharing ownership, commitment and responsibility for a business are termed “copreneurs” (Barnett and Barnett, 1988; Marshack, 1994; Smith, 2000; Massey and Lewis, 2006). Here, joint ownership, joint company operation and sharing of risk, management and responsibilities characterise such businesses, where work and home domains are integrated in a dynamic system of love and work (Ponthieu and Caudill, 1993; Marshack, 1994).</li> <li>• In partnerships, shared resources are important to overcome individual gaps in critical resources for business growth (Birley and Stockley, 2000). Here both male and female partners brought key skills into the business but the female partners brought a more entrepreneurial approach and drive.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Theory Used</b></p>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Copreneurship</li> <li>• (Copreneurship means that there is an equality of roles, efforts and rewards, which bridges both work and home boundaries. Some research, however, suggests that although this might be the ideal view, most copreneurs operate differently, with tensions in the balance of work and home and with an unequal sharing of labour and rewards – often based on traditional gendered roles (Harris and Lewis, 2005; Rowe and Hong, 2000; Smith, 2000; Marshack, 1994). This relates to the lack of recognition for the female role at home and at work as perceived by</li> </ul>

husbands and other employees – and by the woman herself. )

### **Key citations from the article**

“Copreneurship, therefore, offered new opportunities for female enterprise, with the female partner taking a lead in business growth” (p.238).

“The study, therefore, supports earlier studies showing overlaps between home and work but here male roles were supportive but subordinate at work and at home, women led in both areas. Balance in the relationships was also carefully managed and maintained, with both partners having senior level titles and the salaries being equal” (p.238).

“Flexibility was cited by both partners as a factor in business operation, plus the importance of flexible work arrangements and the benefits of shared roles in order to suit the needs of home, family and children. However, although men and women shared tasks, responsibility for managing the process was taken by the female copreneur with the male partner mimicking his work role, supporting but not leading activities” (p.236).

“Motives for self-employment varied. Unlike Smith’s (2000, p. 285) study, the need for achievement was a major impetus not just for male participants but for both men and women, coupled with an ambition to increase wealth and to gain autonomy. In two cases, female copreneurs had left scientific occupations, partly as they felt that these sectors no longer had high status or rewards, but also because they felt that as women they would not be able to get past the “glass ceiling” evident to them in their previous employment” (p.236).

“This potential “invisibility” of women in such firms, i.e. where the female role is unacknowledged and her status and rewards are both lower – forms an established body of work within the literature on copreneurship (Massey and Lewis, 2006; Hamilton, 2006; Ogbor, 2000; Baines and Wheelock, 1997; Gillis-Donovan and Moynihan-Bradt, 1990). Here husbands are seen as leaders and decision makers, working longer hours and leaving household management to their wives (Marshack, 1994; Baines and Wheelock, 1997). However, Hamilton (2006) suggests that invisibility may also be attributed to traditional discourse entrepreneurship being not only gender and ethnocentrically biased, but also ideologically determined and controlled (Ogbor, 2000)” (p.233).

**Reference**

Smith, E. (2007). Gender influence on firm-level entrepreneurship through the power structure of boards. *Women in Management Review*, 22(3), 168-186.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b>      <b>abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of the paper is to examine the gender composition and structure of the board of directors in not-for-profit organisations and their relation to firm-level entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>Data were collected through a survey sent to Swedish riding schools. The paper focuses on not-for-profit associations and the analysis is based on 60 respondents. The data were analysed by multivariate methods.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The overall gender composition of boards had no influence on firm-level entrepreneurship. However, a high proportion of women in powerful positions were found to have a positive influence on one of the study's two dimensions of firm-level entrepreneurship, i.e. strategic opportunism. No influence concerning gender in powerful positions was found on risk taking, the other dimension of firm-level entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The attention to gender composition not only focuses on the board at large, but also highlights the specific positions of the chairperson, secretary and treasurer in the board structure. Another valuable insight concerns firm-level entrepreneurship, here treated as a two-dimensional concept, consisting of strategic opportunism and risk taking, which finds support in the analysis. Further, the empirical data were collected from an industry that includes a high proportion of women on the boards, i.e. the Swedish riding school industry. The study contributes to the debate concerning the gender composition on the board of directors where a high proportion of women</p>

	in powerful positions is positively related with strategic opportunism.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Boards of directors</li> <li>• Women directors</li> <li>• Entrepreneurialism</li> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sweden</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-45 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The composition of the board of directors, and particular its gender composition, has over the years become a growing area of study (Huse and Solberg, 2006; Burgess and Fallon, 2003; Fondas, 2000; Burke, 2000). Even though it generally is considered a competitive advantage to include more women to corporate boards, female directors tend to be under-represented (McCormick Hyland and Marcellino, 2002; Singh and Vinnicombe, 2004; Burke, 2003). Different explanations for this exist: one aspect pointed out by Sheridan and Milgate (2003) is that men and women directors differ in their views of board composition.</li> <li>• The purpose of the paper is to examine the gender composition and structure of the board of directors in not-for-profit organisations and their relation to firm-level entrepreneurship.</li> <li>• This study continues on the path of gender issues in boards – more specifically, the gender composition of boards. It aims to contribute to concerns raised in the special issue of women on corporate boards of directors (Burke, 2003), primarily, the importance of having women on boards, and women directors’ influence on performance.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> • -
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“Even though it generally is considered a competitive advantage to include more women to corporate boards, female directors tend to be under-represented (McCormick Hyland and Marcellino, 2002; Singh and Vinnicombe, 2004; Burke, 2003). Different explanations for this exist: one aspect pointed out by Sheridan and Milgate (2003) is that men and women directors differ in their views of board composition. From a questionnaire sent to men and women board members; it was found that women favoured board diversity, whereas men preferred board homogeneity. Women addressed diversity issues such as background and professional education which could break the pattern of recruiting directors within the existing network” (p.168).</p>	



“Another explanation of the low proportion of women directors is that women face more obstacles in their advancement (McCormick Hyland and Marcellino, 2002; Chow and Crawford, 2004). Chow and Crawford (2004) found in their study of a UK organisation that females were more than twice as likely to be unsuccessful in their applications for promotion as their male counterparts. The study considered educational attainments, professional qualifications and hierarchical positions which were not significant for predicting promotion. If women are restricted from promotion in organisations, they are also constrained from membership in the network that so often is emphasised as the way into the board (Sheridan and Milgate, 2003). Further, if the women are not being promoted, there are fewer qualified women to choose among in the market for directors. Thus, women appear to be under-represented as directors of boards, but it is hoped that the increasing notion of research in the field can contribute to an enhancement of the potential for female directors” (p.169).

“A board with a higher proportion of female directors in the board-triad was found to be positively related with strategic opportunism. A positive influence on strategic opportunism can be of importance in today’s changing environment and harsh competition, even in such small organisations as riding schools. It can refer to the introduction of a new activity, allocation of time to find out what the members want, or the effort to have an organisation that is open and attentive to members’ ideas. At the same time, the indication on the risk dimension showed the opposite relationship. Organisations that are positive towards strategic opportunism but do not want to take higher risks could face advantages with a higher proportion of women in influential positions” (p.181).

**Reference**

Lewis, K. (2006). Growth-oriented Women Entrepreneurs and Their Businesses: A Global Research Perspective. *Women in Management Review*, 21(8), 690-692.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<p><b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Abstract</p> <p>Enterprising new firms drive economic growth, and women around the world are important contributors to that growth. As entrepreneurs, they seize opportunities, develop and deliver new goods and services and, in the process, create wealth for themselves, their families, communities, and countries. This volume explores the role women entrepreneurs play in this economic progress, highlighting the challenges they encounter in launching and growing their businesses, and providing detailed studies of how their experiences vary from country to country.</p> <p>Statistics show that businesses owned by women tend to remain smaller than those owned by men, whether measured by the number of employees or by the size of revenues. Because women-led firms fail to grow as robustly, the opportunities to innovate and expand are limited, as are the rewards. Based on recent studies that examine the links between entrepreneurial supply and demand issues, this volume provides insights into how women around the world are addressing the challenges of entrepreneurial growth. The first set of chapters consists of country overviews and provides discussions of the state of women growing businesses. The second set of chapters describes research projects under way in different countries and explores more focused topics under the umbrella of women business owners and business growth. The volume concludes with an agenda and projects for future research.</p> <p>Academics and policymakers will gain a greater understanding of women's entrepreneurial behaviors and outcomes through this path-breaking volume. Those who support women through education and training, policymaking, or providing entrepreneurial resources will also find the volume of great practical interest.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women in management</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Business growth</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia, Canada, Denmark, Germany, Finland, Norway and the USA</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-46 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A pervasive theme of both parts of the book is finance – and its relationship to female entrepreneurs and the growth of their firms. Indeed, over half of the eight chapters in part two that focus on specific research topics highlight one dimension or another of the financial issues that women face.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> • -
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>*NB This is a blurb from the book rather than the appropriate chapter*</p> <p>“Growth is often assumed to be a naturally occurring phenomenon. In humans it might be, in firms not so much. Indeed, growth within the field of study of entrepreneurship (as an outcome, orientation and/or opportunity) has attracted a great deal of attention for its very propensity not to occur. This is especially true of growth in terms of certain groups of entrepreneurs, and in particular women” (p.1).</p> <p>“At the risk of oversimplifying a great body of work (but for the sake of brevity!), it has largely concluded that (for a variety of reasons) those firms owned by women are less likely to grow than those owned by men. In positive terms this is sometimes described as the fact that firms owned by women are more likely to demonstrate the characteristics of lifestyle entrepreneurship – or other capped growth patterns. However, in the negative sense non-growth has, for example, often been put down to reasons such as the inability of women to secure adequate financial resources to enable growth. No matter what the reason, the fact that female-owned firms are not growing (or at least not in the same way or at the same rate) than male-owned firms, has stimulated a great deal of interest – from researchers, policy-makers, and no doubt the female entrepreneurs themselves” (p.1).</p> <p>“It concludes that there is a small, if not non-existent, finance gap for the Australian small firm sector, but emphasises the importance of the attitude of the firm’s owner or manager in relation to the seeking of external finance. In the research described, women were found to be less inclined to risk, and therefore consequently to the prospect of securing external funding to facilitate firm growth” (p.3).</p> <p>“An example of a chapter in the second part of the book that does not deal explicitly with the financial perspective is chapter ten (by Manolova). The author of this chapter carried out case studies in the Bulgarian construction industry (a sector in which &lt;5 per cent of firms are reportedly owned by women). Taking a resource-based view, and within a “transition” economy context, the author used theoretical sampling to focus on three matched pairs of firms. She concludes that in terms of human capital the women were well, if not better, educated than their male counterparts; social capital was under-utilised by</p>	

the female participants; and in terms of nancial capital men and women fared the same”  
(p.3).

**Reference**

Lewis, K. (2006). Female Enterprise in the New Economy. *Women in Management Review*, 21(6), 518-520.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	None – again this is the blurb of the book rather than a chapter
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Female enterprise</li> <li>• Self employed</li> <li>• management</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Canada</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-47 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In addressing the research question (Does an increasingly entrepreneurial economy offer women better opportunities for economic success?) Hughes puts forward an engrossing account of the realities of living the “self-employed life” for a group of Canadian women. In doing so she also makes a contribution towards addressing the absence of comprehensive gendered analyses of self-employment.</li> <li>• The final chapter of the book is a comprehensive ending that pieces together the various conclusions that were presented, and closes by reiterating the nature of self-employment for this group of Canadian women: that it is, on the whole, a risky endeavour, yet one from which much satisfaction is derived. Hughes argues that for these women pull factors dominated their decision to enter, and that on the whole their move to do so was a “smart risk”.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>		<b>Theory Name:</b> • -
<b>Key citations from the article</b>		
<p>*NB This is a review of the book rather than the appropriate chapter*</p> <p>“...she does not subscribe to the accepted, and perhaps I, view that the growth and popularity of self-employment for women merely parallels the rise of the enterprise culture. She also acknowledges that the pursuit of this type of work can often be risky for women (and therefore negative), especially if they have been forced into it as a consequence of other labour market dynamics.” (p.1)</p> <p>“In this chapter, Hughes acknowledges that the reality of start up (and/or entry to self-employment) is far more messy and unstructured than the simple categorisations of</p>		

positive and negative influences suggest. The meanings of these experiences are also brought to light beautifully through the use of quotes from the interviewees themselves – and this also demonstrates the close analysis of transcribed material that must have been undertaken. What is also skilful about the way the material in this chapter is handled, is Hughes’ ability to link the impact of antecedent factors on self-employment entry to the discourse at both a macro and micro-economic level, and in terms of both individual and collective action.” (p.2)

**Reference**

Aidis, R., Welter, F., & Smallbone, D., & Isakova, N. (2007). Female entrepreneurship in transition economies: the case of Lithuania and Ukraine. *Feminist Economics*, 13(2), 157-183.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	To date, little research has focused on female entrepreneurship in the context of transitioning countries. This paper compares from an institutional perspective two countries at different stages in the process of transformation. Lithuania followed a rapid transitional path leading to European Union membership, while Ukraine is on a much slower development path. Women entrepreneurs in Lithuania and Ukraine share many common features and problems; however, there are important differences in the experiences of women in these two countries. This indicates a need to recognize the diversity that exists among transition countries, reflecting different inheritances from the Soviet past as well as differences in the pace of change during the transition period.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Female entrepreneurship</li> <li>• transition countries</li> <li>• Lithuania</li> <li>• Ukraine</li> <li>• institutional theory</li> <li>• SMEs</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lithuania and Ukraine</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-48 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Without a doubt, the transition process of economic restructuring in the countries that were a part of the Soviet empire has resulted in profound and dramatic changes to their economic, political, and social landscapes. Fifteen countries emerged from under the Soviet cloak at more or less the same time, though their transition trajectories have followed vastly divergent paths. By 2004, the European Commission officially recognized some of these countries as having “functioning market economies” and democratically elected governments while others still incorporated elements of centralized planning under authoritarian regimes</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One of the major changes for all post-Soviet countries has been the development of private business ownership.</li> <li>• While women entrepreneurs in Lithuania and Ukraine share many common features and problems, there are important differences between the two countries. This emphasizes the need to recognize the diversity among transition countries, reflecting different inheritances from the Soviet period, as well as differences in the pace of change during the transition period.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A number of authors have addressed the importance of institutions and their effect on economic development in transitioning countries (Ruud Knaack 1995; Ole Nørgaard 1996; Edgar L. Feige 1997; Douglass C. North 1997; Stefan Hedlund 1999; Timothy Yeager 1999; Elma Van de Mortel 2002; Friederike Welter and David Smallbone 2003; Ruta Aidis 2006)</li> <li>• Friederike Welter et al. (2003) have applied institutional theory to the development of female entrepreneurship in the transition context. As Welter and Smallbone (2003) note, while formal institutions can create opportunities for entrepreneurship, informal institutions can strongly influence perceptions of entrepreneurial opportunities.</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b> <p>“The ability of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) to foster innovation, experimentation, and adaptation in the business environment is especially crucial for countries undergoing radical transformation (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development 1995). Moreover, if entrepreneurship will potentially contribute to economic development and social inclusion, it is important that women as well as men are fully represented among entrepreneurs” (p.158).</p> <p>“Research in mature market economies indicates that a mixture of individual, social, and cultural characteristics differentiates male and female entrepreneurs (Candida Brush and Robert Hisrich 1999; Patricia McManus 2001)” (p.158).</p> <p>“Institutional factors have an important influence on the nature and extent to which entrepreneurship can develop. While this is true for all economies, it is particularly evident in transition environments, especially those that still have serious institutional deficiencies. Although this applies to both men and women entrepreneurs in many respects, the nature of the institutional influences shows some gender variations. For example, women appear to have less access to external sources of capital than men,</p>	



although different treatment by formal financial institutions does not have a critical effect as financial institutions are typically not a major source of finance for entrepreneurs of either gender” (p.174).

## Reference

Farr-Wharton, R., & Brunetto, Y. (2007). Women entrepreneurs, opportunity recognition and government-sponsored business networks: A social capital perspective. *Women in Management Review*, 22(3), 187-207.

Required Element	AB Entry
<p><b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)</p>	<p>Purpose</p> <p>This paper uses a social capital theoretical framework to examine how the relational dimension of business networks affects the networking activities of female entrepreneurs. In particular, the study examines the role of trust on women's networking behaviour and the part played by government business development officers in supporting women entrepreneurs' opportunity recognition behaviour.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The research used mixed methods to gather and analyse data. A survey instrument was used to gather quantitative data and qualitative data was gathered from interviews and written responses to open-ended questions included in the survey.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The quantitative findings suggest firstly that approximately 20 per cent of the reason why women entrepreneurs belong to formal business networks is to search for business opportunities; however, their experience of trusting significantly affects their perception of the potential benefits of networking activities. Moreover, government development officers appear not to positively affect women entrepreneur's trusting behaviour.</p> <p>Research limitations/implications</p> <p>The sampling process could have caused bias in the data collection and therefore the generalisability of the findings may be compromised. This is because the sample came from a state with the most start-ups and therefore it is likely that these women are more entrepreneurial than normal. In addition, there may be bias in the type of women entrepreneur likely to have responded to the survey. It seems likely that the women entrepreneurs that would respond to this</p>

	<p>questionnaire are apt to be more entrepreneurial in their behaviour of recognising new opportunities, thereby biasing the sample used. Finally, another limitation of this study is common methods bias in relation to the data collected using self-report questionnaire.</p> <p>Practical implications</p> <p>The findings have implications for government because these findings suggest that they have wrongly assumed that entrepreneurs will behave in “politically constructed business network” the same way as they behave in social networks where trust levels develop over time. This may be the reason why trust was such an important variable in affecting these women entrepreneurs’ networking behaviour. The findings suggest that if women entrepreneurs are to be supported to grow, the government should focus its scarce resources on building trust within these formal business networks, so that women can build the relational trust context needed to share information likely to lead to good business opportunities.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper provides information on the role of trust on women’s networking behaviour.</p>
<p><b>Keywords</b> (5-7)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Networking</li> </ul>
<p><b>Country</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key Highlights</b> (3-49 – be brief in the summary)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The findings from this study contribute to the literature about women entrepreneurs. The findings from this paper add to the literature about the networking behaviour of women entrepreneurs. Moreover, the findings from using the lens provided by the relational dimension of the social capital theoretical framework contributed new knowledge about how trust affects women entrepreneur’s perceptions of the benefits of networking.</li> <li>• These findings are likely to negatively affect how women entrepreneurs behave within networks; because previous research has already demonstrated that trust perceptions affect the level of information sharing that occurs (Uzzi, 1996; Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998).</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Hence, it is likely that in this case, their low levels of trust did compromise their exposure to new business opportunities.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>social capital theoretical framework</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“...these findings support the past findings that Australian business programs lack specific objectives, and are under-funded and poorly directed to specific target groups and in turn, are poorly communicated to the client group and suffer poor-coordination and communication between government departments (DOTARS, 2000, 2002; Giesecke and Maddern, 1997; Beer et al., 1994; Brunetto and Farr-Wharton, 2003). Reynolds et al. (2001) argued that if governments is really interested in accelerating economic growth by promoting economic activity, than its first priority must be to encourage and support women entrepreneurs” (p.200).</p> <p>“Female entrepreneurs appear to have a relatively negative perception of the role of government business development officers (see means in Table IV). On the other hand, the qualitative data, suggests a divergent experience with government business development officers. One explanation may be because only some have dealings with them” (p.200).</p> <p>“The second and major finding of this study obtained using a social capital theoretical lens is that trust – particularly “Predisposition to Trust” significantly affects how women entrepreneurs perceive the benefits associated with networking” (p.199).</p> <p>“The analysis of the qualitative data suggests that women entrepreneurs use their “Predisposition to Trust” in combination with their “Experiences of Trusting” to determine how to trust and what information to share with competitors” (p.199).</p> <p>“The third finding is that government business development officers do play a significant role in assisting networked women entrepreneurs (Table IV). In particular, the third variable in the equation – “Supporting network development” has a mean of 3.08(2) suggesting that women entrepreneurs do “slightly agree” with that statement. However, their role appears not to affect women entrepreneurs’ perception of other entrepreneurs’ trustworthiness or capability or level of uncertainty generally as suggested by Gulati (1998)” (p.199).</p> <p>“As stated, at a macro policy level, there has been only recent recognition of the importance of female entrepreneurship in Europe in enhancing regional growth (European Commission, 2000; Women’s Unit UK &amp; Ministry of Industry, Employment and Communications (Sweden), 2001). Similarly, the Australian government has developed a small range of business programs aimed at supporting the business growth of female entrepreneurs” (p.192).</p> <p>“Most small, medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are time poor and as a result focus mostly on operational activities (Garengo et al., 2005) because they are more concerned about survival rather than growth (Gray, 2002). Hence, those searching for growth opportunities are acting entrepreneurially (Ardichvili et al., 2003) because they are either “Identifying potential business ideas” (opportunity identification), “Recognising the idea as an</p>	

opportunity” (opportunity recognition) and/or “Developing the opportunity” (opportunity evaluation). As a result, the main difference between SMEs and entrepreneurs is the degree to which they engage in the search for growth opportunities” (p.188).

**Reference**

Woodhams, C., & Lupton, B. (2006). Does size matter? Gender-based equal opportunity in UK small and medium enterprises. *Women in Management Review*, 21(2), 143-169.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided abstract</b> (indicate if none)	<p>Purpose</p> <p>The purpose of this paper is to examine the take up of gender-based equal opportunities policies and practices in small to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and explores the relationship between size and take up within the SME sector.</p> <p>Design/methodology/approach</p> <p>The paper draws on detailed data generated by a European Social Fund sponsored equality audit tool (breakthrough). This is an interactive, questionnaire-based programme incorporating 60 questions on human resources policies and practices relevant to gender-based equal opportunity. The questionnaire was administered within a structured interview, which was recorded and transcribed. In the North West of England, 80 SMEs, across a range of sectors, participated.</p> <p>Findings</p> <p>The data revealed that, while there was some evidence of take up of good equality practice in SMEs, many small businesses were not active in this area and indeed a sizeable minority were perpetuating discriminatory practices. Medium-sized organisations were more likely to have, and implement, equality policies than small ones. However, in one area, around flexibility to meet carer responsibilities, the small organisations performed better. Analysis of moderating variables suggests that it is factors related to size, rather than size per se, that explain the differences in take up between small- and medium-sized firms.</p> <p>Originality/value</p> <p>The paper highlights the need to find ways to engage SME managers with the equality agenda. It explores the distinctive features of the small firms and their environment which may inhibit this at present and set</p>

	out an agenda for future research which will deepen understanding in this area and inform policy.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small to medium sized enterprises</li> <li>• UK</li> <li>• Gender</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-50 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is a danger here in drawing crude stereotypes of SMEs which fail to recognise the heterogeneity of the sector and of the different contexts in which different SMEs are operating.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The paper draws on detailed data generated by a European Social Fund sponsored equality audit tool (breakthrough).</li> <li>• There is little thought given to the approach of SMEs within theoretical frameworks of equality management. Jewson and Mason (1986) draw no distinction between small and large organisations within their radical/liberal dichotomy, nor does Cockburn’s long/short agenda. Healy’s (1993) framework of organisational approaches to equality (further developed by Kirton and Greene, 2000), classifies organisations onto a continuum, at the lower end of which those which reproduce inequality through conscious or subconscious poor practice, through to those at the best practice end and organisations that have comprehensive, proactive and business-focused diversity. However, size and size-related variables are not included in the framework and their impact remains under-theorised.</li> </ul>
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“The small to medium-sized enterprise (SME) sector accounts for over 99 per cent of businesses in the UK, employing over 55 per cent of the labour force and accounting for 52 per cent of combined business turnover (Small Business Services, 2003)” (p.143).</p> <p>“The small to medium-sized enterprise (SME) sector accounts for over 99 per cent of businesses in the UK, employing over 55 per cent of the labour force and accounting for 52 per cent of combined business turnover (Small Business Services, 2003). Yet mainstream human resources (HR) literature takes little account of the situation of SMEs (Cassell et al., 2002; Chandler and McEvoy, 2000; Duberley and Walley, 1995; Hendry et al., 1995; Heneman et al., 2000; McElwee and Warren, 2000; Vickerstaff, 1993) and this is reflected in an acute shortage of research on HR practices in SMEs (Williamson, 2001). That said, it is now increasingly acknowledged that there is a need to examine people management practices in the distinctive context of the small firm” (p.143).</p>	

“The cost-benefit case for the introduction for EO initiatives might be less persuasive than that for other HR interventions in a context of competing priorities. The awareness the case for equality, and of good practice, may also be absent in an environment where formal management training and large-firm experience is not the norm (Bacon et al., 1996; Carroll et al., 1999)” (p.145).

“...the area of EO is increasingly subject to state regulation. Given the evidence that many SME owner-managers tend to regard the extension of the regulatory “burden” as being unhelpful (Kinnie et al., 1999; Carter et al., 2004), and as impinging on their desire for autonomy and control (Jones, 2003a; Wilkinson, 1999) it may be that they are unwilling to embrace the implications of EO regulation enthusiastically” (p.145).

“To conclude, this study has shown a mixed picture of take up of formal equality policies and practices in the SME sector. There are some encouraging signs, but also evidence of widespread failure to adopt basic procedures and, in some cases, comply with minimum legislative requirements. The study also indicated that better practice is more common in medium-sized organisations than it is in small ones. Further research is needed in two areas. First, to see with these findings are replicated in a larger sample and second, to investigate in more detail, through further qualitative work, how size and its interaction with other contextual factors impacts on the take up of equality policies and practices in SMEs” (p.165).



**Reference**

Marlow, S., & Carter, S. (2004). Accounting for change: professional status, gender disadvantage and self-employment. *Women in Management Review*, 19(1), 5-17.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	Research investigating female self-employment has often highlighted gender-based differences in the performance of women-owned firms. Some studies have linked the under-performance of women-owned firms to the lower levels of capitalisation used at business inception, associating this with disadvantages accrued in waged work and occupational segregation more generally. Drawing on this association, there has been a tendency to treat self-employed women as an undifferentiated group, failing to recognise heterogeneity therein. Considers the impact of the possession of professional qualifications on self-employment and to what degree they might have the potential to mobilise substantial business capital. The discussion explores the influence of gender in the work and career experiences of women and whether the advantages accrued from professional status might challenge gender disadvantage within self-employment. Results are presented from an exploratory study of male-owned and female-owned accountants in independent practice, which suggest that gender disadvantage persists, even within the context of professional practice.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Self employed workers</li> <li>• Professional qualifications</li> <li>• Women directors</li> <li>• Professional services</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-51 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• While increasingly recognising heterogeneity among those women who engage with self-employment, a consistent finding from the empirical evidence relating to this field reveals that, in general, the performance and growth of women-owned firms in terms of turnover, profit realisation and job creation is weaker than that found in male-owned enterprises (Rosa et al., 1996; Fasciand Valdez, 1998; Carteretal., 2001). Collectively, these studies suggest a bimodal profile of male-owned and women-owned businesses,</li> </ul>

	<p>with women-owned firms being younger, smaller and achieving a lower level of performance across a range of direct, indirect and proxy measures.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• As an outcome of shifting economic conditions plus favourable government policy and support initiatives, since the late 1970s, more people have been turning to self-employment as a career in both Europe and North America.</li> </ul>
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<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> • -
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**Key citations from the article**

“It is important to stress that female accountants in sole practice, as middle class, self-employed women will enjoy certain advantages related to their class positioning and membership of an esteemed profession, but underpinning these aspects are deeper influences attributable to gender” (p.15).

“Yet, if self-employment is a “coping strategy” to escape from corporate constraints and discrimination, it would appear that this avenue also has limitations around issues of poorer firm performance which are related to gender. Of course, many of the younger women coming into the profession will not enter self-employment as a “coping strategy” but as a preferred choice. However, given the manner in which gender intrudes into this activity, regardless of personal circumstances, such women will still be affected by gender in their role as entrepreneurs” (p.16).

“Female accountants in independent practice are younger than their male counterparts, their businesses are also newer, results which mirror the findings of studies that have used more generalised samples. This study also revealed female-owned accountancy practices to be smaller than their male-owned counterparts, both in terms of annual turnover and employment size” (p.15).

“This might be related to findings regarding client profiles, as noted by Ram and Carter, 2003), accountants and their clients share similar characteristics: small, independent practices typically serve small, local companies, and ethnic minority practices typically serve ethnic minority clients. If practitioner-client similarities also operate along a gender dimension, female-owned accountancy practices may be disadvantaged, in as much as they serve similarly small, low-turnover clients” (p.15).

“While the gender of clients was not investigated, it is relevant to note that female-owned accountancy practices were more likely to engage in routine, lower value services. This raises an interesting issue as it is not just the manner in which the business is capitalised and managed which determines performance, but there are subtle but key influences arising from the client base itself” (p.15).

**Reference**

Walker, E., & Webster, B. (2004). Gender issues in home-based businesses. *Women in Management Review*, 19(8), 404-412.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	This paper reports on the difference between men and women's motivations for going into business and why they choose to operate their business from home. Reports the views of the operators regarding community attitudes towards home-based businesses. Data was collected from a self-administered survey distributed by post, from home-based business operators in two local government areas in Western Australia. Two focus groups verified the findings of the survey and investigated the home-based business operator's perceptions of the communities attitude towards them. It was evident that some sections of the community felt that home-based businesses are extended hobbies and not to be taken seriously. The paper argues that this view ignores the significant financial and social contributions that home-based businesses make to the economy and society in general and is not a view that is held by home-based business operators themselves.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Small enterprises</li> <li>• Self employed workers</li> <li>• homeworking</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-52 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• While home-based businesses (HBBs) make up a significant number of Australian small enterprises, assumptions or “urban myths” about businesses which operate from home persist: that most owner/operators are female; most businesses are craft/artisan type operations or cottage industries; the businesses are operated only by the owner and do not generate employment; the businesses operate out of the shed or from the kitchen table; the businesses are not significant contributors to household income; they operate for pin-money and on a part-time basis or as a temporary short- term measure until a “proper” job comes up.</li> <li>• The study set our to discover if there were any gender differences between why people</li> </ul>

	decided to start a business and why they choose to operate the business from home.
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> •
<b>Key citations from the article</b>	
<p>“Home-based businesses are a vital business sector as they contribute significantly to the economic wealth of a community and its social capital” (p.404).</p> <p>“There were some clear gender differences in initial motivation and rationale for operating from home, with many women choosing to do so to because of the convenience it afforded them while having to balance work and family” (p.411).</p> <p>“Most HBBs are operating at home because it is simply convenient to do so and are unlikely to ever move to commercial premises. Whereas this would appear to demonstrate that as a group they have little growth aspirations, they are in reality mirroring the general small business community. Over and above the economic value they produce because of the volume of businesses, their real value is in the social capital they build for their local communities. Given the rapidly increasing technological advances, which facilitated the feasibility of operating a business from home, it can be anticipated that the growth in this sector will continue” (p.411).</p> <p>“For women who are doing the double shift, operating a business can certainly be challenging, however it is a viable option for many women who for whatever reason cannot find mainstream employment” (p.411).</p> <p>“Knowing that many small businesses, and therefore many home-based businesses, are actually non-employing businesses, home-based businesses may not be large employment creators for anyone other than the owner-operator. However, if self-employment in itself is regarded as job creation and if these owner-operators would not be employed in other “mainstream” employment, i.e. they have become self-employed through general industrial restructuring and are unlikely to easily get back into the paid workforce, then their own self-employment ensures that they are not dependent on other means, including government transfer payments” (p.411).</p>	

**Reference**

McGregor, J., & Tweed, D. (2002). Profiling a New Generation of Female Small Business Owners in New Zealand: Networking, Mentoring and Growth. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 9(4), 420-438.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	The contribution of female small business owners to economic development in Western developed countries such as New Zealand, Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada, is generally under-researched and traditionally grounded in male norms. Increasingly policymakers acknowledge that in countries like New Zealand where 85% of business employs five or less people, small business offers the greatest employment potential. Not enough is known, though, about the growth orientation and characteristics of female small business owners. This article reports findings from the largest empirical study of small business undertaken in New Zealand and provides inter-gender comparison between male and female small business owners and for intra-gender contrast between networked female small business owners and women who did not belong to a business network. The results showed that the networked women, who were in the main better educated and more affiliative by nature, were more expansionist than both other female small business owners and men. The networked women were also more likely to have a business mentor. The findings confound earlier research suggesting women are less growth-orientated and wish only to satisfy intrinsic needs from their businesses. The article concludes by discussing the need to acknowledge the heterogeneity of female small business and what this means for policy-makers when assessing their socio-economic potential.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Networking</li> <li>• Growth</li> <li>• Mentoring</li> <li>• female small business owners</li> <li>• New Zealand</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• New Zealand</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-53 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The contribution of female small business owners to economic development is of increasing significance but it has received only minimal research attention. It is small business rather than big business, for example, that many policy-makers now acknowledge</li> </ul>

	<p>has the greatest potential for employment growth (McGregor and Tweed, 1998; Still and Timms, 1998). In New Zealand, like other western developed countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada and Australia, there has been a remarkable increase in the number of female small business entrants.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This study compares male and female small business owners and also contrasts two groups of women owning small businesses in New Zealand.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<p><b>Theory Name:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• None</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“One clear characteristic that emerged from the results was the affiliative behaviour of women who had joined a female business network. Among the differences noted in the study is quite a distinct profile of a new generation of female small business owners who are networked. They are younger and they identify self-confidence as a greater inhibitor to business start-up. They are more likely both to have, and to want, mentorship” (p.436).</p> <p>“It is apparent that female notions of growth and expansion do not necessarily fit traditional typologies and new interpretations are needed. Stevenson suggests that entrepreneurship is a process, ‘a highly, personal, subjective process’ and we need to know more about this process of ‘encountering, assessing, and reacting to a series of experiences, situations and events’ (1990, p. 442)” (p.436).</p> <p>“The development of small business is likely to be more complex and diffuse as the comparative results of the two samples of female business in this study suggest. If this view is correct, it will render redundant traditional descriptions of gender differences in small business” (p.436).</p> <p>“The assumption in business literature and government policy that growth is superior to stability is rooted in classical models of economic development. This has led some gender writers to attempt to explain and justify female entrepreneurship in different ways, suggesting that self-employed women make direct contributions through sales, taxes and reduction in state support (Still and Timms, 1998)” (p.435).</p> <p>“While the results show a slightly more conservative approach to expansion by women in the nation-wide sample, the WISE women respondents in proportionately greater numbers have expanded and want to grow in future. A possible interpretation of the finding is that WISE businesses were smaller and more likely to be located at home and therefore more likely to be in an expansionist mode in terms of a business development cycle” (p.435).</p>	

**Reference**

Martin, L. (2001). More jobs for the boys? Succession planning in SMEs. *Women in Management Review*, 16(5), 222-231.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	Both the incidence of planning and the identification of female successors were lower than anticipated in this study of 128 companies with less than 50 employees. No company selected a female successor despite strong existing candidates, whether relatives or internal managers. Daughters were inappropriate for succession – they were “too good” for the workplace or were “doing something better”, i.e. teaching, health care, etc. Although female relatives benefited from resources for holidays or home improvements, only male relatives were seen as “heirs apparent” in terms of work status and treatment. Female relatives were neither developed nor encouraged as managers, despite frequently acting as mentors and trainers for the selected male successor. Views of successors and non-successors are expressed and concerns for policy-makers identified given the potential disappearance of firms without successors, and the neglect of available potential female managers.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Succession planning</li> <li>• Small firms</li> <li>• skills</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-54 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transference of the company to the next generation within the same family, or continuation of the company following owner-manager retirement through other means in non-family run companies, have both been the focus for various previous studies. Traditionally, financial implications and the impact of taxation provide an impetus for succession planning to occur (Kimhi, 1997; Foxetal., 1996; Upton, 1998; Barton, 1993) while management of family human resource implications is the key to effective transition from one generation to the next (Birleyand, 1998; KetsdeVries, 1996; Morris et al., 1996, Barnes and Hershon, 1981; Handler,1990).</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>		<b>Theory Name:</b>

- The findings also echo Crampton and Mishra's (1999) study exploring barriers to women's advancement to more senior managerial roles in the beliefs expressed that the personalities of women are not suitable for promotion or that women themselves are not suitable for owner-manager roles, especially in male-dominated organisations.

### Key citations from the article

“In the USA alone, it is anticipated that women will soon own 50 percent of all US businesses and that there will be an upsurge in female inheritance, ownership and management of companies founded immediately post-war over the period 2000-2020; Daniels,1997; Achua, 1997)” (p. 222).

“Men were more likely to inherit the family firm in a 1989 study by Curran and Burrows, 1989), but by 1998 the Barclays Bank review of businesses run by 18-24 year olds found 5 percent of the male and 2 percent of the female entrepreneurs in its sample were “carrying on the family business”. This “family” connection is a natural focus for succession research. Both UK and US reports attribute growing significance to family influence on the national economy, Aronoff and Ward, 1995). While 90 percent of US businesses are family owned and controlled, Ibrahim and Ellis, 1994), in the UK evidence is also emerging of the recognition of family firms as a potential market segment; Dunn, 1998)” (p. 223).

“A family business has also been described as one owned or managed by one or more family members (Handler, 1989) or as companies where two or more extended family members influence the direction of the business through the exercise of kinship ties, management roles or ownership rights (Davis and Tagiuri, 1982)” (p. 223).

“Where family roles were explored as part of succession planning, CEO's planned to pass on their company to a male relative (usually their son or sons) in 53 percent of all family-owned concerns. There was no instance of a daughter being identified as a beneficiary to continue as senior manager, although profits from the business might be passed on as money or in goods house, car etc.). This itself might be a problem for the company's survival and progress” (p. 229).

“Where programmes are put into place to aid succession planning through advice, mentoring etc., it would be interesting to explore how gender issues are tackled in the process” (p.229).

“Those without succession plans who were coming up to possible retirement did not reinvest in the same way they might if the business was to stay in the family, and their long term plans were often limited to “selling up”. US observers plot national economic growth associated with continuance of family firms since capital will remain in the business following succession, rather than the assets being disbursed” (p. 229).



**Reference**

Martin, L. (2001). Are women better at organisational learning? An SME perspective. *Women in Management Review*, 16(6), 287-297.

<b>Required Element</b>	<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> abstract (indicate if none)	The study compared male and female owned and managed SMEs and the impact of gender on the organisational learning taking place in these firms. This explores how the learning process is managed and developed, which staff are drawn into the process and how the organisational memory is developed within female and male run organisations. The managers described their own management style and these views were compared with those of their staff. In the process, patterns of internal communication were identified within female managed firms which aid organisational learning; which were not found within male-run firms. As a result it is argued that communication needed for organisational learning is facilitated by female management processes even when the women involved have adopted 'male' management role models due to pressures within their business sector, while external links and networking need to be developed to aid success in these organisations.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender</li> <li>• Organisational learning</li> <li>• Innovation</li> <li>• Small to medium sized enterprises</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UK</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-55 – be brief in the summary)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Innovation is positively related to business performance in small firms, whether demonstrated by the introduction of new products, services and processes or by the re-innovation of existing products and processes (Deakins, 1996; Coshand Hughes, 1992, 1996; Wooetal., 1989, among many). On a regional basis, the West Midlands Regional Development Plan 2000) echoes national policy documents in defining innovation as the provision of new products or services or as development or positive change in existing products, services or working methods.</li> </ul>
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sectors were selected to provide a mixture of male and female run enterprises, since some sectors have</li> </ul>

	been found to have a lower proportion of female owner managers and workforces (Rolfe et al., 1990; Storey, 1994)
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**Key citations from the article**

“Wyerand Mason, 1999) describe organisational learning as “strategic learning processes within small firms which successfully sustain development”. These are management approaches based on “empowering key individuals within the firm to facilitate learning activities which allow the firm to cope with unpredictable change situations” (p.287).

“Organisational learning allows the company to cope with open-ended change through the development of communication within the company and across firms” (p.288).

“Given the range of studies about societal gender impacts which compare male and female managers and emphasise the better empathy and communication of female managers (Claes, 1999), female owner managers in small firms might be expected to instigate organisational learning more effectively than their male counterparts. Their collaborative, communicative and empathic skills, formerly perceived as weaknesses can come to be viewed as valuable skills, while formerly perceived “masculine” strengths are described as inflexible and one-dimensional (Claes, 1999)” (p.288).

“Given the higher levels of female owner managers in service sector firms, female run firms might be expected to practise Duetero learning, and to use organisational learning as a way to innovate, deal with change and develop than their male counterparts” (p.295).

“Despite this, the way in which female-run organisations functioned, even when the female owner manager had adopted “masculine” management styles, shows their preference for the features and processes of organisational learning” (p.295).

**Reference**

Still, L.V., & Timms, W. (2000). Women's business: the flexible alternative workstyle for women. *Women in Management Review*, 15(5/6), 272-283.

<b>Required Element</b>		<b>AB Entry</b>
<b>Author-provided</b> (indicate if none)	<b>abstract</b>	Women's participation in the small business sector is a growing phenomenon worldwide. While considerable research has been conducted into the reasons why women enter small business and their penchant for operating solo operations or micro-businesses (up to five employees) less is known about the heterogeneous nature of women in small business and the reasons behind their "failure" to "grow" their businesses. The research reported here concerns a major study into the status of women in small businesses in Australia. Apart from examining barriers which may prevent women from expanding their businesses the findings address a new paradigm of women in small business. This paradigm captures the multiple trajectories that women follow in their businesses the type of businesses that they operate and their relation to the stages of a woman's/business life cycle. The findings hold important implications for policymakers who are attempting to devise programmes to assist this growing segment of the small business sector.
<b>Keywords</b> (5-7)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women</li> <li>• Small firms</li> <li>• Growth</li> <li>• Paradigms</li> <li>• Australia</li> <li>• Barriers</li> </ul>
<b>Country</b>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Australia</li> </ul>
<b>Key Highlights</b> (3-56 – be brief in the summary)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women's participation in the small business sector is a growing phenomenon worldwide. While considerable research has been conducted into the reasons why women enter small business, and their penchant for operating solo operations or micro businesses (up to five employees), less is known about the heterogeneous nature of women in small business and the reasons behind their "failure" to "grow" their businesses.</li> <li>• Because little is known at a policy level about the reasons behind this defining characteristic of WOBs, the Commonwealth Government's</li> </ul>

	Office of the Status of Women commissioned the authors to identify impediments which women may face as small business owners/managers in the expansion of their businesses (Commonwealth Office of the Status of Women, 1999).
<b>Theory Used</b>	<b>Theory Name:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Much research into the ``growth`` of small businesses has been either gender neutral, or based on stages of growth (McMahon, 1998; Hanks and Chandler, 1992; Holmes and Zimmer, 1994).</li> <li>• Hanks et al. (1993) point out that ``non-growth`` and ``growth`` are both valid strategic choices for small business operators, either male or female.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Key citations from the article</b></p> <p>“Women have played a major part in this growth in small business. Of the 1.3 million small business operators in 1997 (latest information available, Commonwealth Office of the Status of Women (1999), Women in Australia, 849,600 (65 per cent) were male and 462,300 (35 per cent) were female” (p.272).</p> <p>“For some time the Australian Government has viewed small business and small business expansion as an opportunity for improved economic growth, particularly through employment (DIST, 1996). Because of the increasing entry of women into small business, the Government assumed they would follow normal business growth practices and employ more people as their businesses grew. In fact, the Employment and Skills Formation Council’s 1994 issues paper on employment adopted this basic premise (ESFC, 1994)” (p.272).</p> <p>“If size were taken as the criterion, the overwhelming majority of WOBs in Australia would fit the above description of ``success- disengagement``. Churchill and Lewis’ notion is supported by Cliff (1998) who found that WOBs were more likely to establish maximum business size thresholds beyond which they preferred not to expand, and that these thresholds were smaller than those set by MOBs” (p.273).</p> <p>“The latter finding holds important portends for policy makers because it reveals that by segmenting the small business sector into various broad segments, much of the richness, diversity and dynamism of the sector is lost from a policy perspective” (p.281).</p> <p>“The establishment of certain thresholds to accommodate other life aspects appears to be a plausible explanation for the size limitation of a number of WOBs. However, Baines et al. (1997) present a slightly different perspective on the growth issue. Investigating 104 male and female micro-business owners, they were interested in the impact of household and family on business growth, especially employment. Four broad categories of ``intentions to grow`` were uncovered:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) growth rejecting;</li> <li>(2) growth ambivalent;</li> <li>(3) growth enthusiastic; and</li> <li>(4) growth without employment.” (p.274). </li></ol>	

“...the major literature review undertaken by the Flinders University of South Australia (1996) found four clusters of ‘‘obstacle issues’’ which impacted to some extent gender differences in entrepreneurial experiences and the matter of growth and non-growth. These were the gender division of domestic labour, the gendered labour market, the gendered distribution of wealth (such as access to finance and accumulation of assets), and gendered stereotypes, perceptions and attitudes regarding women’s role in business and society” (p.274).