# *EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF FEMALE OWNERSHIP ON BUSINESS TYPE AND CAPITAL AMONG SME's: EVIDENCE FROM INDONESIA*

**Yahya Agung Kuntadi ***
Management Department, Universitas Kristen Teknologi Solo, Indonesia
yahya.ukts@gmail.com

**Atur Tetty Lubis**
Business Law Department, Universitas Prasetiya Mulya, Indonesia
Tetty.Lubis@prasmul.ac.id

*Corresponding author: yahya.ukts@gmail.com

**ABSTRACT**

Many SMEs are initiated by women to support household economic needs, driven by necessity, the need for additional income, and a desire for business flexibility and autonomy. This trend reflects necessity-driven entrepreneurship, where women balance family responsibilities with income-generating activities. This study investigates the influence of gender on business type and capital among SMEs in Kecamatan Borobudur, Kabupaten Magelang, Indonesia, where female entrepreneurship plays a vital role in local economies. Using Chi-Square tests and Cramer's V, data from 1,018 SMEs were analyzed to determine whether gender significantly impacts business type and capital. The findings show statistically significant relationships, with Chi-Square values of 41.877 (p-value = 1.769×10−8) for business type and 36.918 (p-value = 4.788×10−8) for business capital, indicating that gender has a meaningful association with these variables. However, Cramer's V values of 0.2028 for business type and 0.1902 for business capital suggest that the effect sizes are small to moderate. This implies that while gender plays a role in shaping business decisions, it does not overwhelmingly determine the business type or capital structure. Notably, the data indicate that women entrepreneurs in the region are more likely to engage in certain business fields and access smaller amounts of capital compared to their male counterparts. The novelty of this research lies in its focus on SMEs in Kecamatan Borobudur, an underexplored area in gender and entrepreneurship studies. By examining gender's influence on both business type and capital in this rural context, the study provides fresh insights into how female entrepreneurship operates in smaller, localized economies. It emphasizes the importance of considering gender in entrepreneurship research and calls for further exploration of how external factors, such as market conditions and personal expertise, interact with gender to shape entrepreneurial outcomes.

***Keywords**:* Female ownership, business type, business capital, SMEs, Indonesia.

## INTRODUCTION

In many developing countries, the phenomenon of women as Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) owners is increasingly significant. This trend is often driven by the need for economic independence and the desire to supplement household income, particularly in regions where economic opportunities for women are limited by traditional gender roles (ILO, 2016). Women entrepreneurs frequently operate in sectors that align with their domestic responsibilities, such as culinary businesses or small-scale retail, where flexible working hours and manageable capital requirements make these enterprises more accessible (Tambunan, 2009; Brush et al., 2009). These sectors allow women to balance business activities with household duties, providing a viable path to economic participation in contexts where formal employment opportunities may be scarce or culturally restricted (Minniti and Naudé, 2010).

In Indonesia, the contribution of female entrepreneurs to the SME sector is substantial. Research by World Bank (2016) indicates that women-owned enterprises represent more than 50% of all small businesses and about 33% of medium-sized businesses. This demonstrates that they play a role in driving economic growth and generating employment on a scale comparable to that of male-owned SMEs. In August and September 2015, IFC conduct interview to 600 SMEs in 12 cities across Indonesia – of which 360 (60%) were owned by women. Despite their growing presence, gender disparities in entrepreneurship persist, with female entrepreneurs often facing greater challenges in accessing capital, markets, and business networks compared to their male counterparts. These disparities are not only reflective of broader socio-economic inequalities but also contribute to the types of businesses women tend to start and the scale at which they operate.

Research in developing countries has consistently highlighted the barriers women face in entrepreneurship. For instance, a study by Halkias et al. (2011) found that women in these regions are more likely to start businesses in sectors that are perceived as extensions of their domestic roles, such as food production and handicrafts. Additionally, women-owned businesses often operate with lower levels of capital due to limited access to financial resources, a situation exacerbated by cultural norms that prioritize men as the primary breadwinners (Brush et al., 2009). These gender disparities have significant implications for the types of businesses women can start and their potential for growth.

However, while the existing literature provides a broad understanding of the challenges faced by female entrepreneurs, there is a notable gap in research that specifically examines how female ownership influences the business type and capital structure within SMEs, particularly in localized contexts like Indonesia. Most studies have focused on generalized trends or specific sectors without a detailed analysis of how gender affects business decisions at the micro-level. Moreover, there is limited empirical evidence from regions such as Kecamatan Borobudur, Kabupaten Magelang, which have unique socio-economic and cultural characteristics that may shape the entrepreneurial experiences of women differently.

This research addresses this gap by exploring the influence of female ownership on business type and capital among SMEs in Kecamatan Borobudur, Kabupaten Magelang, Indonesia. By focusing on this specific region, the study aims to provide nuanced insights into the gender dynamics within SME ownership, contributing to a more localized understanding of the challenges and opportunities for female entrepreneurs. The findings are expected to inform policymakers and stakeholders about the specific needs and constraints of women entrepreneurs in similar contexts, potentially guiding more effective support and intervention strategies.

Based on the above research background the following research questions have been formulated:

1. How does female ownership influence the type of business among SMEs in the region?
2. What is the relationship between gender and the level of business capital among SMEs?
3. Is there a significant association between gender and both business type and capital among SMEs, and how strong are these associations?

These questions are designed to guide the investigation into the gender dynamics of SME ownership, focusing on how female ownership influences business type and capital, and the extent to which gender disparities are evident in the study area.

## LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

### 2.1. SMEs as a regional driver economic growth

SMEs are crucial for fostering regional economic growth due to their ability to create employment, stimulate innovation, and contribute to economic diversification. The World Bank (2021) notes that SMEs make up 90% of global businesses and account for more than 70% of employment, underscoring their essential role in economic progress. SMEs often operate in local markets, which allows them to respond quickly to regional economic conditions and create jobs in underserved areas (Beck et al., 2020). SMEs are significant job creators, particularly in regions where large corporations have limited presence. Research by Ayyagari et al. (2018) found that in developing countries, SMEs are key contributors to employment, particularly in sectors like retail, services, and manufacturing. This job creation is vital for reducing regional unemployment rates and enhancing the standard of living. SMEs are often at the forefront of innovation, particularly in technology and service sectors. Studies have demonstrated that SMEs contribute to regional innovation ecosystems by providing niche products and services and fostering competitive markets (Cooke et al., 2005). For instance, a study by Di Pietro et al. (2018) highlights that SMEs in Spain have driven technological advancements and increased productivity in regional economies. SMEs contribute to the diversification of regional economies by engaging in various industries and sectors. This diversification helps mitigate economic risks associated with dependence on a single industry. SMEs also play a crucial role in regional economic diversification, enhancing the resilience of local economies against global economic fluctuations.

The impact of SMEs on regional development is multifaceted, influencing economic structures, social cohesion, and regional competitiveness. Recent research has explored how SMEs contribution to regional development such as: (1). SMEs are vital for shaping regional economic structures by developing local supply chains and fostering business networks. A study by OECD (2019) found that SMEs contribute to regional economic structures by building local supply chains and fostering business networks, which in turn supports regional economic stability and growth; (2). SMEs often engage in community development, which enhances social cohesion and regional stability. Research by North and Smallbone (2006) indicates that SMEs contribute to social cohesion by creating local jobs and supporting community-based initiatives, which can lead to more stable and resilient communities; and (3). SMEs enhance regional competitiveness by driving innovation and improving local business environments. O'Gorman and Doran (2022) argued that SMEs contribute to regional competitiveness by adopting innovative practices and participating in regional development programs, which helps attract investment and improve local infrastructure.

Despite their significant contributions, SMEs face numerous challenges that can impact their ability to drive regional economic growth. Recent research has highlighted key challenges and opportunities such as: (1). Access to finance remains a significant barrier for SMEs, particularly in developing regions. Research by Beck et al., (2009) indicates that SMEs often struggle to obtain financing due to perceived risks and inadequate financial infrastructure. Addressing these barriers through targeted financial support and policy interventions can enhance the capacity of SMEs to contribute to regional growth; (2). The regulatory environment can either facilitate or hinder SME growth. A study by World Bank (2020) reported that favorable regulatory environments, such as simplified business registration processes and tax incentives, can significantly enhance SME performance and regional economic growth; and (3). The digital transformation of SMEs presents both challenges and opportunities. Research by Ghobakhloo and Hong (2014) shows that digital technologies can enhance the efficiency and competitiveness of SMEs, but the adoption of these technologies often requires significant investment and expertise. Supporting SMEs in their digital transformation can help them capitalize on new market opportunities and drive regional economic growth.

### 2.2. Female entrepreneurship in SMEs

Female entrepreneurship has gained significant attention over the past decade as a crucial component of economic development and gender equality. Women-led Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) have pivotal role in various economies, particularly in developing regions where they often serve as a key driver of innovation, employment, and social change. Despite progress in gender equality, female entrepreneurs continue to face unique challenges compared to their male counterparts. Recent studies highlight the persistent gender disparities in entrepreneurial activities, including differences in access to resources, market opportunities, and business outcomes. Some those challenges are: (1). One of the most significant barriers for female entrepreneurs is access to finance. According to the World Bank (2021), women entrepreneurs face greater difficulties in securing funding compared to men, largely due to systemic biases and differences in collateral requirements. UN-ESCAP (2021) found that female entrepreneurs are less likely to receive bank loans and venture capital, which limits their ability to scale their businesses; (2). Women entrepreneurs often encounter challenges in accessing markets and networks that are critical for business growth. Research by Brush et al. (2019) indicates that women-led businesses frequently experience barriers in establishing and leveraging networks, which can impede their market reach and business expansion; (3). Female entrepreneurs often juggle business responsibilities with domestic duties, impacting their business operations and growth potential. Women entrepreneurs are more likely to manage businesses that allow for flexible working hours to accommodate family responsibilities, which can influence the type and scale of their enterprises (Brush et al., 2009).

Understanding the motivations behind female entrepreneurship is essential for developing effective support mechanisms and policies. There are some common motivations for women to do entrepreneurship such as  economic necessity and personal fulfillment. Many women engage in entrepreneurship out of necessity rather than opportunity. Brush et al. (2009) found that female entrepreneurship is often driven by the need to supplement household income or create job opportunities in areas with limited employment options. This necessity-driven approach can result in women starting smaller-scale businesses with lower capital requirements. On the other hand, some women are motivated by the desire for autonomy, creativity, and personal growth. Carranza et al. (2018) highlights that opportunity-driven female entrepreneurs are more likely to engage in innovative sectors and pursue high-growth ventures, reflecting their aspirations for business success and personal fulfillment.

Female entrepreneurs contribute significantly to economic development by fostering innovation, creating jobs, and enhancing regional economic stability. The role of female entrepreneur in shaping economic landscapes and driving social change such as (1). Female-led SMEs are crucial for job creation, particularly in underserved regions. ILO (2015) reported women entrepreneurs contribute to local economies by generating employment opportunities and stimulating economic activity; (2). Women entrepreneurs often drive social innovation by addressing unmet needs and developing solutions that improve community well-being. Choudhary and Walia (2024) found that female entrepreneurs are more likely to engage in social enterprises and initiatives that address social challenges, reflecting their commitment to positive social impact and self confidence on their intention to become social entrepreneurs; Female entrepreneurs are inclined towards social entrepreneurship, aiming to address social issues, as shown by the positive impact of self-confidence and achievement motivation on their intention to become social entrepreneurs. (3). Female entrepreneurship plays a role in regional development by promoting economic diversification and resilience. Achtenhagen and Welter (2003) showed that women-led businesses contribute to regional economic stability by diversifying local economies and enhancing regional competitiveness.

While female entrepreneurship presents numerous benefits, women entrepreneurs face several challenges that impact their business success. Addressing these challenges requires targeted policies and support mechanisms. Those challenges are (1). Effective policies are needed to support female entrepreneurs and address the barriers they face. According to a study by OECD (2017), policies that provide targeted financial support, facilitate access to networks, and promote gender equality can enhance the success and growth of female-led SMEs; (2). Support programs that offer mentoring, training, and resources tailored to female entrepreneurs can improve their business outcomes. OECD (2021) reported the importance of support programs that address the specific needs of women entrepreneurs and foster their business development; (3).  Changing societal attitudes towards female entrepreneurship is crucial for creating a supportive environment. Gupta et al. (2009) highlighted the need for societal and cultural shifts to overcome gender biases and promote the recognition and support of female entrepreneurs.

Female entrepreneurship in SMEs is a critical factor in economic development, characterized by both opportunities and challenges. Recent research underscores the significant contributions of female entrepreneurs to job creation, innovation, and regional development. However, barriers such as access to finance, market access, and work-life balance continue to impact their success. Addressing these challenges through targeted policies, support programs, and societal change is essential for maximizing the potential of female entrepreneurs and fostering inclusive economic growth.

### 2.3. Business types of SMEs

The diverse nature of SMEs allows for a wide range of business types, each with its unique characteristics, challenges, and contributions to the economy. Several factors influence the business type of SME that entrepreneurs choose to establish, including economic conditions, personal expertise, and market demand. Economic conditions have a crucial role in shaping business types. Acs and Varga (2005) indicated that economic downturns may lead to a rise in necessity-driven entrepreneurship, with individuals starting smaller, less capital-intensive businesses to cope with economic challenges. Entrepreneurs' backgrounds and expertise significantly impact the type of SME they establish. Colombo and Grilli (2005) found that individuals with technical backgrounds are more likely to start technology-based enterprises, while those with service-oriented skills may focus on service SMEs. Market demand and available opportunities also drive business type selection. Varadarajan and Yadav (2002) stated that shifts in consumer preferences and technological advancements create opportunities for new types of SMEs, including those in e-commerce and digital services. The classification of SMEs into various business types, such as culinary sellers, non-culinary sellers, culinary producers, non-culinary producers, and service providers, is essential for understanding their role in the economy and tailoring support mechanisms to their specific needs.

Culinary sellers, often referred to as food vendors or retailers, form a significant portion of SMEs, particularly in regions with vibrant local food cultures. These businesses typically operate in markets, street stalls, or small shops, offering ready-to-eat meals, snacks, and beverages to consumers. Research indicates that culinary sellers are a vital component of the informal economy, providing affordable food options to lower-income populations while generating livelihoods for entrepreneurs, particularly women (ILO, 2018).

The culinary sector is attractive for SMEs due to its relatively low entry barriers, including minimal capital requirements and the ability to operate from home or small-scale facilities (Nkambule and Dlamini, 2022). However, these businesses often face challenges related to food safety regulations, competition, and access to resources such as quality ingredients and cooking facilities (Henson and Caswell, 1999). Innovation and adaptation in the culinary sector are particularly important in response to changing consumer preferences and economic conditions (Lee et al., 2019).

Non-culinary sellers encompass a wide range of retail businesses that do not involve food products. These SMEs sell goods such as clothing, electronics, household items, and handicrafts. In many developing countries, non-culinary sellers operate in traditional markets, small retail shops, or through online platforms (Agyapong, 2010). The proliferation of e-commerce has expanded opportunities for non-culinary sellers, allowing them to reach broader markets and reduce overhead costs associated with physical storefronts (Tiago and Veríssimo, 2014).

The non-culinary retail sector is characterized by intense competition and price sensitivity, which can be both a challenge and an opportunity for SMEs. Abor and Quartey (2010) showed that non-culinary sellers often face difficulties in securing inventory and managing supply chains, particularly in regions with inadequate infrastructure. However, successful SMEs in non-culinary also leverage social capital such as local cultural knowledge and community networks to build customer loyalty and differentiate their offerings (Anderson and Jack, 2002).

Culinary producers are SMEs involved in the production and processing of food products, including packaged foods, baked goods, and preserved items. These businesses play a crucial role in the food supply chain, providing products to both individual consumers and larger retail outlets (Garnett, 2013). Culinary production often requires more significant capital investment than retail operations, as it involves specialized equipment, adherence to food safety standards, and the ability to scale production efficiently.

Recent research highlights the growing importance of value addition in the culinary production sector. SMEs that focus on producing high-quality, niche, or organic food products are increasingly able to capture premium market segments and build strong brand identities (Sirieix et al., 2011). However, these businesses also face challenges related to market access, distribution logistics, and compliance with increasingly stringent food safety regulations (KPMG, 2018).

Non-culinary producers are SMEs engaged in the manufacturing and production of goods other than food, including textiles, furniture, artisanal crafts, and industrial components. This sector is vital for economic diversification, providing employment opportunities and fostering innovation (Gherghina et al., 2020). Non-culinary production often requires specialized skills, raw materials, and machinery, making it a more capital-intensive and technically demanding area for SMEs (Manolova et al., 2012).

In developing economies, non-culinary producers often struggle with issues such as limited access to financing, fluctuating raw material costs, and competition from larger firms (Dinh et al., 2010). However, SMEs in this sector can benefit from government support programs, partnerships with larger companies, and participation in global supply chains (UNIDO, 2021). The emphasis on sustainability and eco-friendly practices is also becoming increasingly relevant for non-culinary producers, driven by consumer demand and regulatory requirements (Dahlmann and Brammer, 2011).

Service providers represent a broad category of SMEs offering various services, including education, healthcare, transportation, financial services, and information technology. This sector is particularly important in economies transitioning from manufacturing to service-based structures, as it provides essential services that support other economic activities and contribute to overall economic resilience (Herrendorf et al., 2014).

Service-based SMEs often have lower capital requirements compared to manufacturing businesses, but they face challenges related to competition, customer retention, and the need for continuous innovation (Beck et al., 2005). Digitalization is transforming the service sector as SMEs increasingly implement digital tools to streamline operations, reduce costs, boost customer engagement, and broaden their market reach (Oluokun et al., 2024). The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated this digitalization trend, forcing many service providers to adapt quickly to digital platforms and remote service models (OECD, 2020).

The diverse business types within the SME sector each face unique challenges and opportunities. Culinary and non-culinary sellers, producers, and service providers contribute significantly to economic development, particularly in developing countries. Understanding the specific dynamics of each business type is crucial for policymakers, practitioners, and researchers aiming to support SME growth and sustainability.

## 2.4. Capital in SMEs

Capital is a critical determinant of the viability and growth of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs). Capital availability for SMEs is crucial in determining their capacity for growth, sustainability, and competitiveness. The levels of capital available to SMEs can vary widely, influencing not only the types of businesses that can be established but also their operational scope, scalability, and resilience in the face of economic challenges. Initial capital is a crucial determinant of an SME's ability to start operations, scale, and sustain itself in a competitive market. The level of initial capital influences the type of business activities that an SME can undertake, the technology it can adopt, the workforce it can employ, and its overall market reach (Beck et al., 2013).

In many developing economies, SMEs typically start with minimal capital, often sourced from personal savings, family loans, or informal credit sources (Nichter and Goldmark, 2009). Many SMEs rely on internal sources of capital, such as personal savings and reinvested profits. Beck and Demirguc-Kunt (2006) highlighted that internal funding is crucial for SMEs with limited external financing options. These internal sources often provide the initial capital needed to start and sustain operations. Besides that, Microfinance institutions (MFIs) and community-based lending programs are vital sources of capital for SMEs as well. A study by Christen et al. (2003) demonstrates that microfinance provides accessible credit for small-scale entrepreneurs, particularly in developing economies. These institutions offer small loans with relatively flexible terms, supporting SMEs that might otherwise struggle to secure funding. Government grants and subsidies, as well as funding from non-governmental organizations (NGOs), are significant sources of capital for low-capital SMEs. World Bank (2021) reported various government initiatives and NGO programs aim to provide financial support and resources to small businesses, enhancing their ability to operate and grow. Lastly, in digital technology era, crowdfunding platforms have emerged as an alternative source of capital for SMEs with limited financial resources. Moritz and Block (2021) revealed that crowdfunding allows small businesses to raise capital through online platforms by attracting contributions from a large number of people. This method is particularly useful for SMEs seeking to bypass traditional financing routes.

The availability and adequacy of this initial capital are often constrained by the entrepreneur's socio-economic background, access to formal financial institutions, and the broader financial ecosystem (Beck and Cull, 2014). The other challenges for SMEs in acquiring capital are (1). Access of financing; Beck et al. (2008) found that small-scale SMEs are frequently underserved by banks and financial institutions, which may view them as high-risk or unprofitable clients. (2). High cost of capital; The cost of borrowing can be prohibitively high for SMEs. Nguyen and Tran (2018) showed high-interest rates and stringent lending criteria can deter SMEs from seeking external financing, limiting their growth opportunities. (3). Limited collateral; SMEs with minimal capital often lack sufficient assets to serve as collateral for loans. Asian Development Bank (2022) reported that the lack of collateral is a significant barrier to securing financing for low-capital SMEs, affecting their ability to obtain necessary funds for expansion. (4). Financial management; Effective financial management is crucial for SMEs with limited capital. Abanis et al. (2013) emphasized that SMEs need robust financial management practices to ensure that limited resources are used efficiently and to maintain liquidity.

SMEs with a lower initial capital of such as less than 1 million rupiahs or equivalent often operate on the margins of the formal economy. These micro-enterprises are typically informal, family-run businesses, engaging in subsistence-level activities such as street vending, small-scale agriculture, or home-based production (Alessandrini et al., 2010). The limited capital restricts their ability to invest in necessary infrastructure, purchase inventory, or access technology, which in turn limits their growth potential and ability to compete in the broader market (Mishra and Naresh, 2018).

Studies have found that these micro-enterprises are particularly vulnerable to economic shocks and changes in local market conditions (Mano et al., 2012). For example, a downturn in consumer spending or an increase in input costs can significantly impact their operations, often leading to business closure or severe income reduction (Klinger and Schündeln, 2011). Furthermore, the lack of formal registration and access to formal financial services exacerbates these vulnerabilities, limiting their ability to secure loans or other forms of financial assistance (Drexler et al., 2014).

SMEs with capital between 1 million and 5 million rupiahs represent a more established segment of the micro-enterprise sector. These businesses are often involved in slightly larger-scale retail or production activities, such as small shops, food stalls, or craft manufacturing (Olugbola, 2017). The slightly higher level of capital allows these enterprises to invest in basic infrastructure, such as renting small retail spaces, purchasing more substantial inventories, or employing a small number of workers.

This level of capital, however, still imposes significant limitations on growth. SMEs in this category often struggle with cash flow management, as their capital is just enough to cover operational expenses but insufficient to absorb unexpected costs or expand the business significantly (Nareswari et al., 2022). Moreover, access to formal financial services is still restricted, although somewhat easier for those with more capital. However, it often demands collateral or a proven track record, which many of these businesses do not have (Aterido et al., 2011).

SMEs with initial capital ranging from 5 million to 10 million rupiahs are typically more formalized and may operate in more capital-intensive sectors such as small-scale manufacturing, specialized retail, or service provision (Cassar, 2014). These businesses can afford to invest in better-quality inputs, more advanced technology, and skilled labor, which enhances their competitive edge and market reach.

This capital level also allows SMEs to explore growth opportunities, such as expanding their product lines, entering new markets, or adopting digital tools to improve efficiency (Storey and Greene, 2010). However, these enterprises still face significant challenges, including the high cost of capital, difficulties in accessing larger loans, and the complexities of scaling operations while maintaining quality and profitability (Bremus, 2015). SMEs at this level are often at a critical juncture where strategic decisions can lead to substantial growth or stagnation (Robson et al., 2009).

SMEs with more than 10 million rupiahs in initial capital represent a relatively small but important segment of the SME sector. These businesses are often involved in more capital-intensive industries such as manufacturing, construction, or large-scale retail (Meles et al., 2016). The higher level of capital allows these enterprises to invest in significant infrastructure, advanced technology, and a larger workforce, enabling them to compete more effectively in both local and international markets.

SMEs with this amount of capital are more likely to access formal financial services, including bank loans, venture capital, and government grants, which further supports their growth and development (Brown et al., 2017). Nevertheless, these businesses encounter challenges such as the need for advanced management practices, the risk of over-expansion, and the complexities of dealing with regulatory environments (Klonowski, 2012). Despite these challenges, SMEs with higher levels of capital are better positioned to innovate and contribute significantly to economic growth and employment (Lamanna and González, 2007).

The level of business capital available to SMEs significantly influences their operational capacity, growth potential, and overall sustainability. SMEs with less capital often operate on the margins, facing significant challenges that limit their growth and resilience. In contrast, those with higher levels of capital are better equipped to invest in growth opportunities, though they also face complex challenges that require careful management. Understanding the dynamics of capital levels in SMEs is crucial for policymakers, financial institutions, and support organizations aiming to foster a vibrant and sustainable SME sector.

Capital is a fundamental aspect of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), influencing their ability to start, sustain, and expand operations. Access to and management of capital are critical for SMEs, as these factors impact their financial stability, growth potential, and overall success. The various sources of capital available to SMEs, and the challenges they face, and how to manage their financial resources are parts of regular maters for SMEs owners. Understanding these dynamics is essential for developing effective policies and support mechanisms to foster SME growth and stability.

### Hypothesis Development

Based on previous research and phenomenon in Indonesia, such as female entrepreneurship is often driven by the need to supplement household income or create job opportunities in areas with limited employment options (Brush et al. 2009). The culinary sector is attractive for SMEs due to its relatively low entry barriers, including minimal capital requirements and the ability to operate from home or small-scale facilities (Nkambule and Dlamini, 2022). SMEs with a lower initial capital of such as less than 1 million rupiahs or equivalent often operate on the margins of the formal economy. These micro-enterprises are typically informal, family-run businesses, engaging in subsistence-level activities such as street vending, small-scale agriculture, or home-based production (Alessandrini et al., 2010). Research by World Bank (2016) in Indonesia, indicates that women-owned enterprises represent more than 50% of all small businesses and about 33% of medium-sized businesses. Therefore, this research propose hypothesis that there is a association between gender and some characters of SMEs especially busines type and business capital.

## RESEARCH METHOD

This study employs a quantitative research design to investigate the impact of female ownership on Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), particularly in relation to business field type and business capital. The analysis utilizes secondary data from 1,020 SMEs in Kecamatan Borobudur (Borobudur District), Kabupaten Magelang (Magelang Regency), Indonesia, provided by the Department of Trade, Cooperatives, and SMEs of Magelang Regency. Data were analyzed using R software to understand how gender diversity relates to these variables. The data is processed to extract relevant information for this research, specifically focusing on SME gender ownership, business field type, and business capital.

The data on business field type consist of five categories: culinary business sellers, non-culinary business sellers, culinary business producers, non-culinary business producers, and business service providers. Meanwhile, the data on business capital consist of four categories: less than 1 million rupiah, 1 million to 5 million rupiah, 5 million to 10 million rupiah, and more than 10 million rupiah. Female SME ownership was the independent variable, categorized by presence or absence, while business field type and business capital served as dependent variables in two separate analyses.

Statistical analyses focused on identifying associations between female ownership presence and business field type, and between female ownership presence and business capital, using Chi-square tests. Cramér's V was calculated to measure the strength of these associations. The Benjamini-Hochberg correction method was applied to control the false discovery rate due to multiple comparisons. The results highlighted significant associations between female ownership presence and specific business field types and business capital categories, with Cramér's V providing insights into the strength of these associations.

**RESULTS**

The descriptive statistics of this research reveal that out of the total 1,018 SMEs, there are 566 female owners (56%) and 452 male owners (44%), as presented in Fig. 1. Regarding the business types of SMEs, as shown in Table 1, we found that 264 of the 448 culinary businesses are owned by females (59%). Only 91 of the 241 non-culinary businesses are owned by males (38%). Out of 129 SMEs in the culinary production sector, 81 are owned by females (63%). Meanwhile, out of 71 SMEs in the non-culinary production sector, 47 are owned by males (66%). Lastly, out of 129 SMEs in the service sector, 82 are owned by males (64%). Concerning business capital, as presented in Table 2, the gender proportions are as follows: Out of 599 SMEs with capital less than 1 million Rupiah, 368 are owned by females (61%). There are 146 female owners (55%) out of 265 SMEs with business capital ranging from 1 million to 5 million Rupiah. However, out of 80 SMEs with business capital ranging from 5 million to 10 million Rupiah, 51 are owned by males (61%). Lastly, out of 74 SMEs with business capital exceeding 10 million Rupiah, 51 are owned by males (69%).

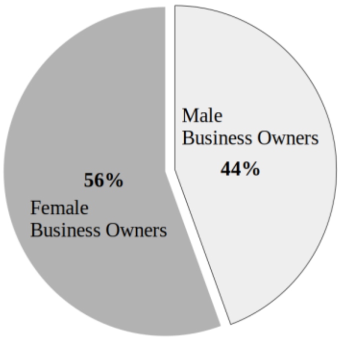


**Figure 1.**
**SMEs owners gender composition**

**Table 1. Gender Proportion on SME's Business Type**

| | Business Type | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Culinary Sellers | | Non-Culinary Sellers | | Culinary Producers | | Non-Culinary Producers | | Service Providers | |
| Female SMEs owners | 264 | 59% | 150 | 62% | 81 | 63% | 24 | 34% | 47 | 36% |
| Male SMEs owners | 184 | 41% | 91 | 38% | 48 | 37% | 47 | 66% | 82 | 64% |
| SMEs (n=1018) | 448 | 44% | 241 | 23% | 129 | 13% | 71 | 7% | 129 | 13% |

**Table 2. Gender Proportion on SME's Business Capital**

| | Business Capital (Rupiah) | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Less than 1 Million | | 1 Million up to 5 Million | | 5 Million up to 10 Million | | More than 10 Million | |
| Female SMEs owners | 368 | 61% | 146 | 55% | 29 | 36% | 23 | 31% |
| Male SMEs owners | 231 | 39% | 119 | 45% | 51 | 64% | 51 | 69% |
| SMEs (n=1018) | 599 | 59% | 265 | 26% | 80 | 8% | 74 | 7% |

**Table 3. Test of Chi-square and Cramer's V**

| Relationship | Alpha | df | Critical Value | Test Statistic | p-value | Cramer's V |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender and Business Type | 0.05 | 4 | 9.488 | 41.877 | $1.769 \times 10^{-8}$ | 0.2028 |
| Gender and Business Capital | 0.05 | 3 | 7.815 | 36.918 | $4.788 \times 10^{-8}$ | 0.1902 |

## DISCUSSION

The discussion contains a discussion of the research results which are linked to the research objectives. The discussion explains why the research results are the way they are, explains the logic of obtaining the findings, interprets the findings, and links them to relevant theories or research results. The descriptive analysis as presented on Fig.1., Table 1., and Table 2., provide insights into gender distribution across different business types and capital categories. The findings reveal a notable gender disparity in both the ownership of SMEs and the distribution of business types and capital. Out of 1,018 SMEs, 56% are owned by females, while 44% are owned by males. This higher proportion of female-owned SMEs suggests that women have a significant role in the SME sector in this region. Previous research has highlighted that women often engage in entrepreneurship to support household income and achieve economic independence, especially in developing countries (Brush et al., 2009). The predominance of female ownership may also reflect cultural or social factors where women are traditionally involved in specific types of businesses, such as culinary or small-scale retail (Halkias et al., 2011).

The analysis of business types reveals that female owners are predominantly involved in the culinary sector, with 59% of culinary businesses owned by women. In contrast, male owners are more likely to own non-culinary production (66%) and service sector (64%) businesses. These findings align with existing literature, which suggests that women are often drawn to businesses that can be managed alongside domestic responsibilities, such as food production and small-scale retail (Ahl, 2006). The overrepresentation of women in the culinary sector could also be attributed to cultural norms that associate women with cooking and food-related activities (Roomi & Parrott, 2008).

Interestingly, the male dominance in non-culinary production and service sectors indicates that men may have better access to resources or networks that allow them to engage in these industries. This could be due to gendered differences in social capital, where men have more opportunities to access information, funding, and business connections in certain sectors (Klyver & Grant, 2010). The gendered division of labor in these sectors may also reflect broader societal expectations regarding the roles of men and women in economic activities (Carter et al., 2009).

The distribution of business capital reveals that female-owned SMEs are more likely to operate with lower capital. Specifically, 61% of SMEs with capital less than 1 million Rupiah are owned by women, while only 31% of SMEs with capital exceeding 10 million Rupiah are female-owned. This finding aligns with research showing that women entrepreneurs often face greater financial constraints than their male counterparts, leading to smaller-scale businesses with lower capital investment (Coleman & Robb, 2012).

The higher proportion of male-owned SMEs with larger capital (over 5 million Rupiah) suggests that men may have better access to financial resources or are more willing to take financial risks. This could be due to societal expectations that men should be the primary breadwinners, which may encourage them to invest more heavily in their businesses (Marlow & McAdam, 2013). Additionally, the gender gap in access to credit and financial services could explain the lower capital among female-owned SMEs, as women often face barriers in obtaining loans or other forms of financing (Muravyev et al., 2009).

This study investigated the influence of female ownership on both business type and business capital among SMEs in Kecamatan Borobudur, Kabupaten Magelang, Indonesia. Utilizing Chi-Square tests and Cramer's V, the research aimed to determine whether gender significantly affects these business characteristics and how strong these associations are.

The Chi-Square test results indicate a significant association between female ownership and both business type and business capital among SMEs. The Chi-Square values of 41.877 for business type and 36.918 for business capital are well above the critical values for the respective degrees of freedom and significance levels: df = 4, $\alpha$ = 0.05 (9.488), df = 4, $\alpha$ = 0.01 (13.277), df = 3, $\alpha$ = 0.05 (7.815), and df = 3, $\alpha$ = 0.01 (11.345). These high Chi-Square values suggest that the observed frequencies of business types and capital levels significantly deviate from what would be expected if there were no association with female ownership. This strong statistical departure from the null hypothesis indicates that gender has a meaningful influence on business characteristics, underscoring the importance of considering female ownership in understanding SME dynamics.

However, the Chi-Square test, while indicating statistical significance, does not measure the strength of the association. This is where Cramer's V becomes essential. The Chi-Square statistic only shows that an association exists but does not indicate how strong that association is. The calculated Cramer's V values of 0.2028 for business type and 0.1902 for business capital suggest that, while there is a significant association, the effect size is moderate. This indicates that although gender contributes to determining business type and capital, it is not the sole or dominant factor. These findings align with the literature, which suggests that gender impacts entrepreneurial outcomes but interacts with a range of other variables (Agresti, 2018; Brush, 1992).

To interpret these results in the context of practical implications, the strong Chi-Square values indicate that gender differences are a relevant factor in business decisions among SMEs. However, the moderate Cramer's V values highlight the complexity of the influence, suggesting that gender is one of several factors influencing business outcomes. This complexity points to the necessity of considering other determinants such as market conditions, access to resources, and individual business strategies when evaluating the role of gender in entrepreneurship. Future research could benefit from exploring these additional factors to provide a more comprehensive understanding of how gender and other variables interact to shape business decisions (Field, 2013; Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007).

Cramer's V values, which measure the strength of the association, were 0.2028 for business type and 0.1902 for business capital. According to common thresholds (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2013), these values fall into the range of small to moderate association. This suggests that while gender does influence the choice of business type and the amount of business capital, the effect is not overwhelmingly strong. These findings align with the notion that female ownership affects business decisions but is moderated by other factors (Agresti, 2018).

The strength of association between female ownership and the business characteristics studied is assessed using Cramer's V, a measure of effect size in categorical data. The Cramer's V values obtained in this study are 0.2028 for business type and 0.1902 for business capital. According to established thresholds (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2013), these values fall within the range typically classified as small to moderate associations. This indicates that while there is a detectable relationship between female ownership and the characteristics of business type and capital, the association is not particularly strong. The small to moderate effect size suggests that gender influences these business aspects but does so in a way that is not overwhelmingly dominant.

A Cramer's V value of 0.2028 for business type implies a moderate level of association, suggesting that female ownership has a noticeable, albeit not overwhelming, impact on the type of business chosen by SMEs. Similarly, the value of 0.1902 for business capital reflects a comparable strength of association. These values indicate that while gender does play a significant role in determining both the business type and the amount of capital, it is not the sole or most critical factor influencing these decisions. This moderate effect size aligns with previous research indicating that gender influences business outcomes, but is moderated by a variety of other factors (Agresti, 2018; Brush, 1992).

The moderate strength of the association highlights the need to consider other variables that may interact with gender to influence business characteristics. For instance, factors such as market demand, access to financial resources, entrepreneurial experience, and socio-economic background can also play significant roles in shaping business type and capital. The moderate association observed in this study suggests that gender is one of several important factors, rather than the most influential one. Future research should aim to explore these additional factors in greater depth to provide a more nuanced understanding of how gender and other variables collectively impact entrepreneurial decisions and outcomes (Field, 2013; Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007).

The results are consistent with the literature on gender and entrepreneurship, which often finds that while gender has a statistically significant impact on various business outcomes, the effect size can vary. For instance, studies have shown that women-owned businesses often face different challenges and opportunities compared to their male counterparts, influencing their business choices and access to resources (Brush, 1992; Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007). However, the moderate strength of the association observed in this study suggests that gender is one of several factors influencing business outcomes, interacting with other elements such as market conditions, access to finance, and personal expertise.

The findings of this study, which reveal a significant yet moderately strong association between female ownership and business characteristics, align with a broader body of research on gender and entrepreneurship. Existing literature has consistently demonstrated that while gender does influence various aspects of business operation and outcomes, the strength of this influence can vary. For example, studies by Brush (1992) and Eddleston & Kellermanns (2007) have highlighted that female entrepreneurs often face different challenges and opportunities compared to their male counterparts, impacting their business decisions and performance. However, these studies also suggest that gender is one of many factors affecting entrepreneurial outcomes, rather than the most predominant one.

The moderate Cramer's V values observed in this study are consistent with the findings of Agresti (2018) and other scholars who have examined the effect sizes in similar contexts. Agresti's research emphasizes that while statistical significance can indicate a relationship, effect size measures like Cramer's V provide insight into the strength of that relationship. The moderate values in our study suggest that while female ownership does play a role in influencing business type and capital, this role is not overwhelmingly strong. This aligns with Agresti's view that gender is an important but not singular determinant of entrepreneurial decisions and outcomes.

Comparing these findings with those from other regions and contexts reveals both similarities and differences. For instance, studies conducted in Western countries often report varying degrees of influence of gender on entrepreneurial outcomes, with some indicating stronger effects due to differing socio-economic conditions and access to resources (Brush, 1992). In contrast, research in developing regions like Indonesia may show more nuanced effects, influenced by local economic conditions, cultural factors, and market dynamics. This comparison underscores the importance of context-specific research and the need to consider local factors when interpreting the impact of gender on entrepreneurship (Field, 2013; Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007).

## CONCLUSION, LIMITATION, SUGGESTION

### Conclusion

The study's findings highlight a significant yet moderate association between gender and business characteristics among SMEs in Kecamatan Borobudur, Kabupaten Magelang, Indonesia. The descriptive analysis reveals a higher proportion of female ownership in the SME sector, with women predominantly engaged in the culinary sector and operating businesses with lower capital. This gender disparity aligns with existing literature, suggesting that women often start businesses to support household income and are more likely to manage enterprises that can be balanced with domestic responsibilities.

The Chi-Square test results confirm a significant association between female ownership and both business type and capital, with high Chi-Square values indicating that gender differences are a relevant factor in these business decisions. However, the Cramer's V values, which measure the strength of this association, suggest that the influence of gender, while significant, is moderate. This implies that other factors, such as market conditions, access to resources, and individual business strategies, also may have contribution in shaping business outcomes.

These findings also underscore the complexity of gender dynamics in entrepreneurship. While gender has contribution in determining business type and capital, it is not the sole or dominant factor. This moderate effect size aligns with broader research indicating that gender interacts with a variety of other variables to influence entrepreneurial outcomes. Future research should continue to explore these additional factors to provide a more comprehensive understanding of how gender and other variables collectively impact business decisions and success.

The gender disparities observed in this study have significant implications for SME development policies. To promote gender equality in entrepreneurship, it is crucial to address the structural barriers that limit women's access to resources and opportunities. This could include providing targeted financial support for female entrepreneurs, offering training programs that enhance women's business skills, and promoting networks that connect women to markets and investors.

Moreover, policymakers should consider the specific needs of women in the culinary sector, where they are highly concentrated. Support for food-related businesses, such as access to markets, business development services, and food safety training, could enhance the sustainability and growth of these enterprises.

In conclusion, the data highlights the importance of understanding the gendered dynamics of SME ownership and the need for gender-sensitive policies to ensure equitable access to resources and opportunities for all entrepreneurs.

## Limitation

A limitation of this study lies in its geographic scope, focusing solely on SMEs in Kecamatan Borobudur, Kabupaten Magelang. While the results provide valuable insights into gender dynamics in SME ownership in this region, the findings may not fully capture the diversity of business environments in other parts of Indonesia, especially urban areas with different socio-economic contexts. Furthermore, the study primarily uses secondary data, which limits the exploration of qualitative aspects, such as the personal experiences of female entrepreneurs, their motivations, and the cultural factors that might influence their business decisions.

## Suggestion

For future research, it is suggested to expand the scope by including diverse regions across Indonesia to gain a more comprehensive understanding of gender influence on SMEs. Additionally, combining quantitative and qualitative methods, such as interviews or focus groups, would provide deeper insights into the challenges and motivations of female entrepreneurs. Exploring the role of external factors like government policies, market conditions, and access to networks could also enhance the understanding of how gender interacts with other variables in shaping SME success.

## REFERENCES

Abanis, T., Sunday, A., Burani, A., and Eliabu, B. 2013. "Financial Management Practices in Small and Medium Enterprises in Selected Districts in Western Uganda." *Research Journal of Finance and Accounting,* 4(2): 29-42.

Abor, J., and Quartey, P. 2010. "Issues in SME development in Ghana and South Africa." *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics,* 39(6): 218-228.

Achtenhagen, L. and Welter, F. 2003. Female entrepreneurship in Germany: context development and its reflection in German media. In: Butler, J. Ed. *New Perspectives on Women Entrepreneurship*. Information Age Publishing, Connecticut.

Acs, Z. J., and Varga, A. 2005. "Entrepreneurship, Agglomeration and Technological Change." *Small Business Economics*, 24(3): 323-334.

Agresti, A. 2018. *Statistical Methods for the Social Sciences* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Agyapong, D. 2010. "Micro, small and medium enterprises' activities, income level and poverty reduction in Ghana – A synthesis of related literature." *International Journal of Business and Management, 5*(12): 196-205.

Ahl, H. 2006. "Why Research on Women Entrepreneurs Needs New Directions." *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30(5): 595-621.

Alessandrini, P., Presbitero, A. F., and Zazzaro, A. 2010. "Bank Size or Distance: What Hampers Innovation Adoption by SMEs?" *Journal of Economic Geography,* 10(6): 845-881.

Anderson, A. R., and Jack, S. L. 2002. "The articulation of social capital in entrepreneurial networks: A glue or a lubricant?*" Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* 14(3): 193-210.

(ADB) Asian Development Bank. 2022. Financing Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises in Asia and the Pacific Credit Guarantee Schemes. ADB, Manila, PH.

Aterido, R., Hallward-Driemeier, M., and Pagés, C. 2011. "Big constraints to small firms' growth? Business environment and employment growth across firms." *Economic Development and Cultural Change, 59*(3): 609-647.

Ayyagari, M., Beck, T., and Demirgüç-Kunt, A. 2007. "Small and medium enterprises across the globe." *Small Business Economics*, 29(4): 415-434.

Beck, T., Demirguc-Kunt, A., and Levine, R. 2005. "SMEs, Growth, and Poverty: Cross-Country Evidence." *Journal of Economic Growth*, 10(3): 199-229.

Beck, T., and Demirguc-Kunt, A. 2006. "Small and Medium-Size Enterprises: Access to Finance as a Growth Constraint." *Journal of Banking and Finance,* 20(11): 2931-2943.

Beck, T., Demirguc-Kunt, A., and Singer, D. 2013. "Is small beautiful? Financial structure, size and access to finance." *World Development, 52*(2): 19-33.

Beck, T., and Cull, R. 2014. "SME Finance in Africa." *Journal of African Economies*, 23(5): 583-613.

Beck, T., Demirgüç-Kunt, A., and Martinez Peria, M. S. 2008. "Bank Financing for SMEs around the World: Drivers, Obstacles, Business Models, and Lending Practices." *Policy Research Working Paper Series 4785,* The World Bank.

Beck, T., Demirgüç-Kunt, A., and Levine, R. 2009. "Financial institutions and markets across countries and over time - data and analysis." *Policy Research Working Paper Series 4943,* The World Bank.

Bremus, F.M. 2015. "The debate about financing constraints of SMEs in Europe." DIW Roundup 66. Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung Berlin.

Brown, R., Mawson, S., and Mason, C. 2017. "Myth-busting and entrepreneurship policy: The case of high-growth firms." *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development, 29*(5-6):414-443.

Brush, C.G. 1992. "Research on Women Business Owners: Past Trends, a New Perspective, and Future Directions." *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16(4): 5-30.

Brush, C.G., de Bruin, A., and Welter, F. 2009. "A Gender-Aware Framework for Women's Entrepreneurship." *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 1(1): 8-24.

Carranza, E., Dhakal, C., and Love, I. 2018. Female Entrepreneurs: How And Why Are They Different? Jobs Working Paper Issue No. 20. World Bank Group, Washington, USA.

Carter, S.L., Marlow, S., and Henry, C. 2009. "Exploring the impact of gender upon women's business ownership." *International Small Business Journal*, 27 (2): 139-148.

Cassar, G. 2014. "Industry and startup experience on entrepreneur forecast performance in new firms." *Journal of Business Venturing, 29*(1): 137-151.

Christen, R., Lyman, T., and Rosenberg, R. 2003. "Microfinance Consensus Guidelines: Principles and Best Practices." *Microfinance Network Report*. The World Bank.

Choudhary, P. and Walia, S. 2024. Women Empowerment and Social Entrepreneurship: Empowering the Community for a Better Future. In P. Tyagi, V. Nadda, K. Kankaew, & K. Dube. Eds. *Dimensions of Regenerative Practices in Tourism and Hospitality*. IGI Global, Pennsylvania.

Cohen, J. 1988. Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Coleman, S., and Robb, A. 2012. A Rising Tide: Financing Strategies for Women-Owned Firms. California: Stanford University Press.

Colombo, M.G. and Grilli, L. 2005. "Founders' human capital and the growth of new technology-based firms: A competence-based view." *Research Policy*. 34(6): 795-816.

Cooke, P., Clifton, N., and Oleaga, M. 2005. "Social capital, firm embeddedness and regional development." *Regional Studies*. 39(8): 1065-1077.

Dahlmann, F., and Brammer, S. 2011. "Exploring and Explaining Patterns of Adaptation and Selection in Corporate Environmental Strategy in the USA." *Organization Studies*, 32(4): 527–553.

Dinh, H. T., Mavridis, D. A., and Nguyen, H. B. 2010. "The binding constraint on firms' growth in developing countries." Policy Research Working Paper Series 5485, The World Bank.

Di Pietro, F., Palacin-Sanchez, M.J., and Roldan, J.L. 2018. "Regional development and capital structure of SMEs." *Cuadernos de Gestión*. 18(1): 37-60.

Drexler, A., Fischer, G., and Schoar, A. 2014. "Keeping it simple: Financial literacy and rules of thumb." *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*. 6(2): 1-31.

Eddleston, K. A., and Kellermanns, F. W. 2007. "Destructive and Constructive Family Relationships: A Study of the Implications for Entrepreneurial Firm Performance." *Journal of Business Venturing*, 22(4): 545-565.

Field, A. 2013. *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics* (4th ed.). California: Sage Publications.

Garnett T. 2013. "Food sustainability: problems, perspectives and solutions." *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*. 72(1): 29-39.

Gherghina, Ș. C., Botezatu, M. A., Hosszu, A., and Simionescu, L. N. 2020. "Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs): The engine of economic growth through investments and innovation." *Sustainability*. 12(1): 1-22.

Ghobakhloo, M., and Hong, T. S. 2014. "IT Investments and Business Performance Improvement: The Mediating Role of Lean Manufacturing Implementation." *International Journal of Production Research,* 52(18): 5367-5384.

Gupta,V.K., Turban, D.B., Wasti, S.A., and Sikdar, A. 2009. "The Role of Gender Stereotypes in Perceptions of Entrepreneurs and Intentions to Become an Entrepreneur." *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(2): 397-417.

Halkias, D., Nwajiuba, C., Harkiolakis, N., and Caracatsanis, S. M. 2011. "Challenges facing women entrepreneurs in Nigeria." *Management Research Review,* 34(2): 221–235.

Henson, S., and Caswell, J. 1999. "Food Safety Regulation: An Overview of Contemporary Issues." *Food Policy*, 24(6): 589-603.

Herrendorf, B., Rogerson, R., and Valentinyi, Á. 2014. Growth and Structural Transformation. In: P. Aghion & S. Durlauf. Eds. *Handbook of Economic Growth*, Elsevier, Amsterdam.

(ILO) International Labour Organization. 2015. Women and the Future of Work: Beijing +20 and Beyond. GED. International Labour Office. ILO, Geneva, SUI.

(ILO) International Labour Organization. 2016. Women at Work: Trends 2016. International Labour Organization. International Labour Office. ILO, Geneva, SUI.

(ILO). International Labour Organization. 2018. Women and men in the informal economy: a statistical picture (third edition). International Labour Office. ILO, Geneva, SUI.

Klinger, B., and Schündeln, M. 2011. "Can entrepreneurial activity be taught? Quasi-experimental evidence from Central America." *World Development,* 39(9): 1592-1610.

Klonowski, D. 2012. "Liquidity gaps in financing the SME sector in an emerging market: Evidence from Poland." *International Journal of Emerging Markets, 7*(3): 335-355.

Klyver, K., and Grant, S. 2010. "Gender Differences in Entrepreneurial Networking and Participation." *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship,* 2(3): 213-227.

(KPMG) Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler. 2018. Ten Key Regulatory Challenges of 2019 – Resiliency amidst innovation. KPMG International, SUI.

Lamanna, F., and Gonzalez, A.S. 2007. "Who Fears Competition from Informal Firms? Evidence from Latin America." Policy Research Working Paper No. 4316, The World Bank.

Lee, C., Hallak, R. and Sardeshmukh, S.R. 2019. "Creativity and innovation in the restaurant sector: Supply-side processes and barriers to implementation." *Tourism Management Perspectives,* 31(3): 54-62.

Mano, Y., Iddrisu, A., Yoshino, Y., and Sonobe, T. 2012. "How can micro and small enterprises in Sub-Saharan Africa become more productive? The impacts of experimental basic managerial training." *World Development,* 40(3): 458-468.

Manolova, T. S., Brush, C. G., Edelman, L. F., and Shaver, K. G. 2012. "One size does not fit all: Entrepreneurial expectancies and growth intentions of US women and men nascent entrepreneurs." *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* 24(1-2): 7-27.

Marlow, S., and McAdam, M. 2013. "Gender and Entrepreneurship: Advancing Debate and Challenging Myths; Exploring the Mystery of the Under-Performing Female Entrepreneur." *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research,* 19(1): 114-124.

Meles, A., Porzio, C., and Sampagnaro, G. 2016. "Ownership structure, firm performance and investment: Evidence from the Italian manufacturing industry." *Small Business Economics,* 47(1): 1-13.

Minniti, M., and Naudé, W. 2010. "What do we know about the patterns and determinants of female entrepreneurship across countries?" *European Journal of Development Research,* 22(3):277-293.

Mishra, C., and Naresh, A. 2018. "Impact of microfinance on poverty alleviation in developing economies: A systemic review." *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, 23*(4): 1850024.

Moritz, A., and Block, J. 2021. "Crowdfunding and SME financing: Trends and empirical evidence." *Journal of Business Venturing*, 36(2): 160-176.

Muravyev, A., Talavera, O., and Schäfer, D. 2009. "Entrepreneurs' Gender and Financial Constraints: Evidence from International Data." *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 37(2): 270-286.

Nareswari, N., Nurmasari, N.D., and Putranti, L. 2023. "Financial Constraints of Micro, Small, and Medium-sized Enterprises (MSMEs) in the Indonesia Creative Industries." *Journal of Economics, Business, and Accountancy Ventura*, *25*(3): 312-321.

Nichter, S., and Goldmark, L. 2009. "Small firm growth in developing countries." *World Development, 37*(9): 1453-1464.

Nguyen, T., and Tran, V. 2018. "Access to finance and capital constraints in SMEs: An empirical study." *Financial Management*, 47(4): 111-136.

Nkambule, S., and Dlamini, B. T. 2022. "Barriers to market entry for food vendors in rural Eswatini." *African Journal of Business Management*, 16(1): 50-59.

North, D., and Smallbone, D. 2006. "Developing entrepreneurship and enterprise in Europe's peripheral rural areas: Some issues facing policy-makers." *European Planning Studies*, 14(1): 41-60.

(OECD) The Organization for Economic Cooperation Development. 2017. Enhancing the Contributions of SMES in a Global and Digitalised Economy. OECD Publishing, Paris, FRA.

(OECD) The Organization for Economic Cooperation Development. 2019. OECD SME and Entrepreneurship Outlook 2019. OECD Publishing, Paris, FRA.

(OECD) The Organization for Economic Cooperation Development. 2021. Entrepreneurship Policies through a Gender Lens. OECD Studies on SMEs and Entrepreneurship. OECD Publishing, Paris, FRA.

(OECD) The Organization for Economic Cooperation Development. 2022. Small Business, Big Impact: Understanding the Contribution of SMEs to the Global Economy. OECD Publishing, Paris FRA.

O'Gorman, C., and Doran, M. 2022. "SMEs and regional competitiveness: A review of the evidence." *Regional Studies*, 56(4): 759-772.

Olugbola, S. A. 2017. "Exploring entrepreneurial readiness of youth and start-up success components: Entrepreneurship training as a moderator." *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge, 2*(3): 155-171.

Oluokun, A., Idemudia, C. and Iyelolu, T.V. 2024. "Enhancing digital access and inclusion for SMEs in the financial services industry through cybersecurity GRC: A pathway to safer digital ecosystems." *Computer Science & IT Research Journal*, 5(7): 1576-1604.

Robson, P. J. A., Haugh, H. M., and Obeng, B. A. 2009. "Entrepreneurship and innovation in Ghana: Enterprising Africa." *Small Business Economics, 32*(3): 331-350.

Roomi, M. A., and Parrott, G. 2008. "Barriers to Development and Progression of Women Entrepreneurs in Pakistan." *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 17(1): 59-72.

Sirieix, L., Kledal, P.R. and Sulitang, T. 2011. "Organic food consumers' trade-offs between local or imported, conventional or organic products: a qualitative study in Shanghai." *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 35(6): 670-678.

Storey, D. J., and Greene, F. J. 2010. *Small business and entrepreneurship*. London: Pearson Education.

Tambunan, T. 2009. "Women entrepreneurship in Asian developing countries: Their development and main constraints." *Journal of Development and Agricultural Economics*, 1(2): 27-40.

Tiago, M. T. P. M. B., and Veríssimo, J. M. C. 2014. "Digital marketing and social media: Why bother?" *Business Horizons, 57*(6): 703-708.

(UNIDO) United Nation Industry Development Organization. 2021. *Industrial development report 2021: Industrializing in the digital age*. UNIDO, Vienna, AUT.

(UN-ESCAP) United Nation-Economi adn Social Commision for Asia the Pacific. (2021). Catalyzing Financial Innovation for Women: Evidence-Based Financial Solutions for Women Entrepreneurs. UN-ESCAP, Bangkok, THA.

Varadarajan, P.R., and Yadav, M.S. 2002. Marketing strategy and the internet: An organizing framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science.* 30 (4): 296-312.

World Bank. 2016. Women-owned SMEs in Indonesia: A golden opportunity for local financial institutions. IFC. The World Bank Group.

World Bank. 2020. Doing Business 2020 : Comparing Business Regulation in 190 Economies. World Bank Group, Washington, D.C., USA.

World Bank. 2021. Supporting Small and Medium Enterprises in Developing Economies. World Bank Group, Washington, D.C., USA.

World Bank. 2021. SME Finance: Policy Guide for Developing Countries. World Bank Group, Washington, D.C., USA.