This article is an accepted version. Please cite the published version:

Beyond teaching: the extended role of informal entrepreneurship education and training in challenging contexts (2024-10-15) doi: https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEBR-09-2023-0917

Beyond Teaching: The Extended Role of Informal Entrepreneurship Education and Training in Challenging Contexts

Abstract

Purpose: We seek to understand how informal entrepreneurship education and training (EET) processes support marginalised women in challenging institutional contexts into gainful participation in entrepreneurial activities, facilitating empowerment and emancipation.

Design/Methodology/Approach: The study employs an inductive qualitative approach drawing on in-depth individual interviews, a focus group, and observation of how female informal EET educators facilitate hands-on EET to marginalised female entrepreneurs in Uganda.

Findings: We specify a range of novel complementary practices that informal EET educators undertake during the main instructional EET stage and present the wraparound purposive work, both pre-and-post the instructional stage, they enact to support female empowerment processes for their disadvantaged learners. We then propose a grounded model capturing practices enacted by EET practitioners that illuminates ways in which informal EET can contribute to processes of empowerment and emancipation.

Contributions: Our contributions are twofold. First, we conceptualise EET educators as institutional entrepreneurs undertaking institutional work beyond core teaching. Second, we specify a range of novel complementary practices they undertake before, during, and after the conventional instructional part. This illuminates how EET can contribute to processes of empowerment and emancipation.

Originality/Value: Drawing on data from a unique institutional context, we illuminate novel practices enacted by informal EET educators thereby extending both the pedagogy and the realm of entrepreneurship education with implications for grander empowerment and emancipatory outcomes beyond the development of entrepreneurial competencies.

INTRODCUTION

In recent years, there has been a growing acknowledgement of the contributions made by female enterprise to employment, poverty reduction, productivity, and the larger economic development effort within Sub-Saharan Africa (Dabić et al., 2022; Mwaura, 2016; Ojong et al., 2021; World Bank, 2019). In line with research that highlights gender and ethnicity-based barriers in entrepreneurship globally (Ahl, 2006; Al-Dajani et al., 2015; Carter et al., 2015), prevalent gender disparities are found to greatly constrain women's entrepreneurial activity in such contexts (Chant, 2013; Lourenço et al., 2014; Said & Enslin, 2020). To help women navigate such constraints, entrepreneurship education and training (EET) is commonly promoted as a channel to enhance entrepreneurial skills and performance, to narrow gender disparities in business and wider society (Elert et al., 2020; Kuratko, 2005). Within the realm of official development assistance particularly, such training and other human resource development efforts have been a core pillar of capacity development programmes. Here, the aim is to improve livelihoods and support social transformation through the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes among underprivileged communities in developing countries (Kühl, 2009; Vallejo & Wehn, 2016).

Linkages between education and empowerment outcomes are well established, with scholars suggesting that EET could have empowerment potential for individuals (Gutiérrez et al., 1995; Kyrö, 2006). The scope of EET has expanded beyond formal education programmes to include informal unaccredited provisions that primarily foster real-life entrepreneurial practice (Solomon, 2007). While this informal EET is considered particularly relevant for those in contexts of disadvantage (Santos et al., 2019), there remains a dearth of research on

EET and impoverished women in challenging developing country contexts (Arthur & Adom, 2020; Koyana & Mason, 2017). The implication is thus that gaps remain in our understanding of the ways in which EET promotes gainful participation in entrepreneurship for marginalised women in developing countries and generally how EET supports processes of empowerment in such contexts.

Within this line of work, recent research has increasingly recognised the need to better understand the erstwhile neglected role and place of entrepreneurship educators (Wraae & Walmsley, 2020; Wraae et al., 2021). Indeed, research suggests that entrepreneurship educators (henceforth EET practitioners) not only encounter the fundamental challenge of facilitating learning in a dynamic, unpredictable, and non-linear world (Haase & Lautenschläger, 2011). They also operate within a broader institutional setting with multiple objectives and stakeholders which influences the nature and efficacy of the educational interventions (Pittaway, Luke & Cope, 2007; Wraae & Walmsley, 2020). Operating in such complex and ambiguous environments undoubtedly impacts many aspects of entrepreneurship education (Ramsgaard et al., 2023; Thomassen et al., 2020a; Toutain et al., 2017). These include questions to do with the agency of EET practitioners, their perceived roles, and practices they enact in various institutional contexts (Fiet, 2001; Neck & Corbett, 2018; Seikkula-Leino et al., 2010; Wraae et al., 2021).

It follows that within challenging institutional environments, like in Sub-Saharan African developing countries, informal EET practitioners that help support and empower marginalised women into gainful entrepreneurial activities. Yet within the embryonic research on

entrepreneurship educators, little is known about the practices enacted by informal EET practitioners in such challenging contexts. Extant research suggests that in such contexts, non-usual actors supporting disadvantaged entrepreneurs often become institutional intermediaries, providing vital services that help entrepreneurs navigate institutional voids (Mair & Marti, 2009; Sydow et al., 2022). Further, given the nature of challenges faced, other research suggests that such actors become institutional entrepreneurs (Garud et al., 2007). They undertake the institutional work of purposively creating, maintaining, and disrupting structures that govern behaviour and outcomes in society (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). In contexts of severe institutional voids, such institutional work may require "wraparound" approaches that encompass a range of complementary actions to enhance the wellbeing and empowerment of underprivileged groups (Mair & Marti, 2009).

In this vein, this paper addresses the following two-part research question: how and through what practices do informal EET practitioners a) promote the gainful participation of marginalised women in entrepreneurship? and b) support processes of female empowerment in challenging institutional contexts? To achieve this, we conducted an inductive study drawing on interviews and a focus group with twelve informal EET practitioners in Uganda. Uganda is a low-income East African country with well-known institutional voids associated with poverty, gender inequality, and a history of economic, military, and political challenges.

By focusing on practices enacted by informal EET practitioners in complex institutional contexts, we build on discussions emphasising the importance of practice (Champenois et al., 2020) and context (Welter, 2011; Welter et al., 2019). This is within the realm of

entrepreneurship research, particularly EET research (Ramsgaard et al., 2023; Thomassen et al., 2020a). Further, we respond to calls highlighting the potential of the unique context of the sub-Saharan African region to contribute novel insights to mainstream business research and theory (Okafor & George, 2016). Accordingly, this paper advances two key contributions. First, drawing on empirical evidence, we specify a range of novel complementary actions that educators undertake, including pre-and-post the main instructional EET part. These are pivotal to empowering and enhancing gainful participation of marginalised women in entrepreneurial activities. This allows us to advance the conceptualisation of informal EET practitioners as institutional entrepreneurs who undertake institutional work that goes beyond core teaching. Second, we propose a grounded model that illuminates mechanisms of institutional work through which informal EET contributes to processes of empowerment and emancipation among disadvantaged women in challenging contexts (Dungey & Ansell, 2020; Santos et al., 2019).

The remainder of the paper is organised as follows: the theoretical background covers key concepts from extant literature, before the methodological approach is set out. The findings and their discussion provide a basis for our conclusions and proposed implications, and avenues for future research.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Developments in Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy: The Role of Educators

Entrepreneurship education and pedagogy has undergone significant evolution over the last forty years – developing from a largely teacher-centred education focused on teaching about entrepreneurship (Hägg & Gabrielsson, 2020). Drawing on the key pillars of the entrepreneurship teaching model (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008), Hägg and Gabrielsson (2020) outline recent developments in entrepreneurship education. They show that since the 2010s, entrepreneurship education has become increasingly learner-centred with pedagogy extending beyond new venture creation to include broader entrepreneurial competencies. These include learners seeking to develop broad entrepreneurial competencies such as the entrepreneurial mindset, that are useful as life skills, beyond business contexts (Casulli, 2022; Mawson et al., 2023). A key EET development has been "a shift from how to teach entrepreneurship towards how students can learn valuable lessons for life through entrepreneurial education" (Hägg & Gabrielsson, 2020, p. 839). Here, scholars highlight innovative developments including the use of scaffolded experiential learning approaches (Bosman, 2019; Neergaard & Christensen, 2017; Pittaway et al., 2023), guided learning (Hägg, 2020), engaging students as co-learners (Verduijn & Berglund, 2020), pedagogical nudging (Neergaard et al., 2021) and mindset training (Casulli, 2022; Mawson et al., 2023).

Other research underlines the changing role of the entrepreneurship educator, where greater emphasis is placed on content aggregation to support customised student learning according to "individual student interests, motivations and needs… with the learner directly involved in the entrepreneurial learning process" (Henry, 2020, p. 671-2). Bell (2022) also advocates for the espousal of a humanist positive *whole-person* approach in entrepreneurship education, while Walmsley and Wraae (2022) point to the empowerment and emancipatory potential of

entrepreneurship education. Considered together, these developments have significant implications on the role of EET practitioners in such processes.

Overlooked in EET research, however, is the less-formal business training, commonly addressed from a performance implications perspective (Idris et al., 2023). Generally, informal EET encompasses programmes that are usually unaccredited and do not lead to certification, while formal EET is often credit-bearing education, mostly ‘about’ entrepreneurship with less focus on practical entrepreneurial activity (Matlay, 2008). Crucially, informal EET provisions primarily foster entrepreneurship skills and entrepreneurial practice (Solomon, 2007). Given their focus on supporting practical entrepreneurship, informal EET provisions are prevalent within capacity building agendas for developing countries (Arthur & Adom, 2019; Koyana & Mason, 2017; McKenzie, 2021). However, limited research has explored this from an EET perspective. Amid the pedagogical developments discussed above, the role of context has also been highlighted as pivotal in gaining a fuller understanding of EET (Ramsgaard et al., 2023; Thomassen et al., 2020). As such, a critical exploration of contextual dimensions of EET is essential to understand informal EET in developing countries.

Entrepreneurship Education Context: Influences on Educators

To enact practices that contribute to learners’ development, context is a critical factor for entrepreneurship educators to consider in the design and delivery of EET (Hannon, 2018; Thomassen et al., 2019). Extant research acknowledges that EET educators are embedded within contexts comprising students, educational processes, institutions, and the community,

wherein they engage in a series of dialogic relationships that, in turn, influence their role (Jones & Matlay, 2011; Wraae & Walmsley, 2020). To enhance context framing, within research that calls for increasingly humanist approaches in EET (Bell, 2022; Henry, 2020), a key aspect of context commonly excluded from literatures is the learner's context at the personal level, including personal circumstances, motivations and needs.

For informal EET practitioners, the complex interactions between various levels of context may have significant impact upon the design and delivery of EET, particularly where learners are vulnerable and operating within wider contexts of disadvantage. Such vulnerable learners may include: the impoverished, illiterate or semi-illiterate groups, or remote rural dwellers seeking gainful entrepreneurship opportunities (Chauke, 2015; Gavigan et al., 2020; Koyana & Mason, 2017; Lourenço et al., 2014; Santos et al., 2019); women operating in extreme poverty or experiencing gender-based vulnerability such as women engaging in sex-work or experiencing gender-based violence (O'Neill et al., 2013); and refugees or women in post-war areas (Akello, 2013; Mukasa, 2017), among others. With such cases, research suggests that tailored interventions - rather than generic EET - tend to offer more beneficial outcomes (Elert et al., 2020).

In addition, within challenging environments, the interaction of context levels may result in outcomes that call for the extension of the scope of EET beyond teaching. Thus, for the women in *personally* vulnerable contexts operating in challenging *meso* contexts (O'Neill et al., 2013), informal EET practitioners may require undertaking purposive engagement activity at the recruitment stage before such potential learners can enrol and embark on the main EET

offering. Here, in considering the pertinent factors at both the personal and meso contexts, the scope expands beyond educational content to include the practices that EET practitioners enact in response to contextual demands. Similarly, Wraae and Walmsley (2020 p. 263) find that in dealing with multiple stakeholders in the community and their institution, educators viewed their role as one that includes many "quasi-liaison" tasks.

Thomassen et al. (2019) further note that considerations of context also help EET practitioners understand which contextual elements can be influenced proactively and which must be adhered to. This suggests that entrepreneurship educators will often need to evaluate contextual structures and undertake agentic practices towards the achievement of desired EET learning objectives and outcomes (Fiet, 2001; Neck & Corbett, 2018; Seikkula-Leino et al., 2010; Wraae et al., 2021). Building on the empowerment and emancipatory potential of entrepreneurship education (as highlighted by Walmsley and Wraae (2022)), this suggests that in certain contexts, entrepreneurship educators may require to undertake tasks that qualify as institutional work. This is of particular relevance within developing countries where institutional environments are less developed, highlighting the need for research in such contexts to illuminate the agentic work that EET educators undertake in response to prevalent institutional structures. In Uganda particularly, EET may work to support female entrepreneurial engagement by specific groups facing barriers and constraints defined by institutional structures. This includes women facing barriers to labour market participation, such as marginalised female war survivors in the north (Akello, 2013; Mukasa, 2017); rural women entrepreneurs (Gavigan et al., 2020); necessity entrepreneurs (Langevang et al.,

2012); and females whose agricultural output is largely constrained by patriarchal power and societal norms (Lourenço et al., 2014).

Institutional Work in Entrepreneurship Education and Training

In many developing countries, a myriad of institutional factors combine to create and exacerbate disadvantage along gender lines. For example, laws governing inheritance or property rights can (re)produce relative disadvantage and impact upon women's ability to fund their participation in formal EET (Anosike, 2019). Domestic roles, 'gender-appropriate' roles for work, and social interactions interfere with or greatly constrain women's engagement with EET programmes (Amine & Staub, 2009; Arthur & Adom, 2020; Gavigan et al., 2020; Koyana & Mason, 2017; Lourenço et al., 2014). As part of capacity building efforts within development assistance, such concerns have led to a surge of informal EET interventions in many countries that tend to focus on supporting entrepreneurs from disadvantaged - or marginalised - groups (Arthur & Adom, 2020; Koyana & Mason, 2017; McKenzie, 2021). Implemented by policy and development practitioners, the objective of these programmes is to develop practical entrepreneurial abilities and skills that enhance gainful entrepreneurial activity. Among other development outcomes, these programmes aim to increase income generating activities to enable financial independence, empowerment, and emancipation (Dungey & Ansell, 2020; Gavigan et al., 2020; Koyana & Mason, 2017; Lourenço et al., 2014).

Within such contexts, this renders informal EET *institutional work* - "the purposive action of individuals and organizations aimed at creating, maintaining and disrupting institutions"

(Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006, p. 215), with those undertaking institutional work termed 'institutional entrepreneurs' (Battilana et al., 2009; Garud et al., 2007). Viewed from this perspective, EET in challenging institutional contexts may be conceptualised as work that disrupts extant structures of disadvantage and endeavours to build towards structures that are fairer for their targeted learner entrepreneurs, such as marginalised women. Indeed, extant research on EET also highlights self-efficacy and entrepreneurial performance outcomes, thereby enhancing individual and collective empowerment and emancipation (Adom & Anambane, 2019; Alkhaled & Berglund, 2018; Dungey & Ansell, 2020; Gavigan et al., 2020; Koyana & Mason, 2017; Lourenço et al., 2014). However, research is yet to clearly identify the specific practices and mechanisms of the institutional work undertaken by informal EET practitioners. Further, links between these informal EET practices and wider empowerment and emancipation processes and outcomes require to be illuminated.

Previous research on institutional work in challenging institutional contexts highlights the need to adopt creative approaches to overcome barriers (Mair & Marti, 2009; Sydow et al., 2022). In addition, research has found that institutional work undertaken in contexts characterised by severe institutional voids may require combinations of complementary actions to comprehensively and sustainably enhance the wellbeing and empowerment of the target underprivileged groups (Mair & Marti, 2009). While the literature identifies capacity development and community development as critical (Lovat & Toomey, 2009; Pigg, 2002; Schuftan, 1996), further empirical research is necessary to better understand how the practices and mechanisms of informal EET contribute to these themes. This is especially the case for marginalised women whose pursuit of empowerment may be more challenging; requiring that

women are afforded expanded access and control over three related dimensions of resources, agency, and achievement amid a history of entrenched disadvantage (Bruton et al., 2010; Kabeer, 1999).

METHODOLOGY

To address this relatively under-theorised issue, our research lends itself to an inductive qualitative study (Gioia et al., 2013) to attain a deeper understanding from the perspective of informants (Cope, 2005; Creswell & Poth, 2016). We conducted fieldwork in Uganda, a developing economy whose institutional environment presents a suitable empirical context for our research question. Research documents that several institutional challenges constrain the socioeconomic endeavours of women in Uganda (Namatovu et al., 2012). In recent years, the incidence of female breadwinners (often operating as necessity entrepreneurs) has increased (Lourenço et al., 2014) as a result of endemic political instability that precipitated social displacements, unemployment, and large-scale male migration from rural to urban areas (Spitzer & Twikirize, 2013). Also, the continued weak implementation of government policies has limited women to informal, micro, and short-lived enterprise (Komunte, 2015). Other barriers include the lengthy and inflexible business registration procedures and discriminatory socio-cultural conditions – with limited access to inheritance rights for women (Namatovu et al., 2012). The latter is further linked to banks' inflexible financial products that require collateral (Fred et al., 2018). Given that the majority of Ugandan women entrepreneurs do not access formal entrepreneurial training, it is argued that their skills are inadequate for successful business development and operation (Komunte, 2015; Langevang

et al., 2012). These challenging institutional conditions have resulted in the need for basic EET, commonly delivered by third sector organisations, development practitioners and volunteers (Gavigan et al., 2020). This study draws on data from a sample of EET practitioners that work with disadvantaged women in this context.

Participant Selection Approach

Participants were selected purposively considering they had lived experiences relevant to our research question (Cope, 2005). Their demographics ensured heterogeneity (Annex I), capturing different fields of informal entrepreneurial teaching, at multiple levels, and from varied geographical regions of the country, critical for the reliability of the study and generalisation of findings (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Regarding their professional work, there was a Christian spiritual leader, a primary school teacher, a professional accountant, three secondary school teachers, a business consultant, a university lecturer, two business managers and two housewives. In terms of education, one attained advanced secondary school, three possessed tertiary professional training, and seven were Bachelors and Postgraduate university graduates. For societal responsibilities, one runs a community-based association and the other is a community leader (local council chairperson). The Uganda Women Entrepreneurs Association from which majority of the participants attained entrepreneurial training served as an access route, however, the rest of the participants were contacted through snowballing.

Data Collection

We drew from several data sources including individual interviews, the focus group, participant observation, and field notes to enable data triangulation and credibility (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The individual interviews lasted between one hour to 90 minutes and closed at twelve participants when apparent data saturation was attained with additional data found to essentially mirror previous interviews (Saunders et al., 2018). The focus group involved seven of the 12 interview participants and field notes were taken to further support and validate data collected (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Participant observation took place at participants' premises of operation. All interactions were conducted in English. During recruitment, all participants were informed of the study's purpose and written consent was obtained, not only ensuring that ethical research guidelines were met, but also mitigating against participant reticence and promoting sincere responses (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Throughout, the field researcher assumed the role of a neutral listener and observer, allowing participants to raise issues they felt were relevant and intervening only to seek clarifications or refocus deviations (Cope, 2005).

Data Analysis

To achieve a trustworthy thematic analysis (Nowell et al., 2017), a step-by-step grounded analysis was undertaken following (Gioia et al., 2013). First, data were transcribed verbatim, and codes were assigned to statements that captured participants' experiences (Creswell & Poth, 2016). Secondly, the coded units of meaning were scrutinised and only those deemed relevant for the study were selected for further analysis. Here, we rigorously examined the coded units to generate themes in relation to the practices enacted by participants. Thirdly, emerging themes shown in Figure I (see Annex III for the expanded version) built into the

final aggregated themes from which the conceptual model (Figure II) emerged based on analytical findings and their interpretations (Korstjens & Moser, 2018).

[Insert Figure I here]

FINDINGS

This study explored the practices of informal EET practitioners to understand how their enacted practices promote the gainful participation of marginalised women in entrepreneurship, and support processes of female empowerment and emancipation in challenging institutional contexts. Our analysis highlighted three aggregate themes (Figure I). The first two aggregate themes constitute different informal EET, and other complementary practices enacted to foster participation and empowerment: pre-EET (engaged outreach) and during EET (entrepreneurial capacity building). The third aggregate theme focuses on post-EET practices: entrepreneurial community building.

Pre-EET: Engaged Outreach

Our findings highlight three practices enacted by EET practitioners pre-EET: targeted recruitment, collaborating with partners and intermediaries, and co-defined learner-centred outcomes.

***Targeted Recruitment*.** First, in their targeted recruitment practices, we find that EET practitioners purposively recruit disadvantaged women, indicating a specific intention to generate broader change. For example, P5 who operates within post-conflict districts specifically recruits ex-combatants, people experiencing conflict-related trauma and child-mothers (women ostracised because of raising 'fatherless' children - often following rape or rebel abduction). Similarly, P4 specifically targets young female school-leavers, introducing them to "*tailoring and catering, to help them acquire knowledge they require to earn a living to survive*." While there are many reasons behind the incidence of girls leaving school early in Uganda, many do so due to teenage pregnancy or early marriage. Other EET practitioners target housewives without an independent income, refugees, and sometimes even employed women seeking opportunities to enhance their financial wellbeing: "*If they have jobs, it's something extra to add unto what they earn*" (P6).

To boost enrolment chances, the informal EET practitioners employ advertising tactics that enhance direct accessibility to the educators. P2, for example, uses colourful photos and posters, attracting interested learners. She notes: "*They normally see what I do from the posters at my salon and get interested, and request to do trainings*." More innovatively, P12 acts as her own marketing ambassador: "*I wear what I make, and some find me sewing at the workshop*". A more prevalent mode of recruitment that EET practitioners leverage on, is word of mouth, including online presence: "*I market myself on social media platforms like Facebook and WhatsApp. That is how they find me. For example, TASO* [The AIDS Support Organisation] *found me from Facebook*." (P9). In these contexts, beyond mere awareness, referrals can be an effective way for targeted recruitment, as P8 observes: "*Referrals from individuals and NGOs that work with other networks recommend my services to each other*."

***Collaborating with Intermediaries and Partners*.** The second pre-EET practice under engaged outreach involves collaboration with other actors. P12 highlights just how effectively this can work in challenging contexts: "*We go to the L.Cs* [Local Councils, village-level community leaders] *asking for people we can train a skill.*" P5 also notes that working with The Private Sector Foundation Uganda exposed her to The Uganda Women's Entrepreneurship Association (UWEAL) and the opportunity to deliver agriculture and craft training. Our findings suggest that the engaged outreach undertaken by EET practitioners is more than a micro-scale practice. Rather, it entails a cooperative and collaborative approach (with formal partners and intermediaries such as NGOs or development organisations, in paid or voluntary roles) which aims to contribute to wider empowerment efforts and broaden the pool of potential learners (through access to databases). For instance, P3 illustrates: "*I volunteered as a trainer in many instances when I worked with UWEAL*." P12 adds: "*When I joined efforts with the NGOs, the first job I got was in Action for Development directed at women*." Other educators also directly apply for advertised remunerated positions for entrepreneurship educator roles within government or NGO projects while others cited being approached by such organisations through referrals or as a result of exposure such as through social media.

***Co-defined learner-centred outcomes*.** Crucially, findings suggest that the engagement practices of EET practitioners entail working with potential learners to co-define learning outcomes in-line with learners' needs and aspirations. Effectively, the intention is decidedly not to deliver pre-packaged EET. Here, EET practitioners firstly expose learners to *potential* positive outcomes in order that learners are better able to visualise how EET may help them

and how learning may be implemented in their lives. P2, focusing on women in post-conflict rural districts narrates: "*I tell the women who are traumatised, 'You are still traumatised because you don't have a source of money. If you're able to meet your basic needs, you're able to pay your children's school fees, those thoughts will stop crossing your mind'*." Similarly, P4 highlights the impact of entrepreneurial activity at household levels: "*My role is to improve on the livelihood of women in our community with challenges in sustaining a job and a home. I understand their challenges because I've been working as a community leader and open my home as a demonstration site. I use mushroom growing as a home cottage industry to show these women the need to have some income to contribute to their homes as they do other chores at home or other businesses*."

EET practitioners provide choice and voice to enable increasingly learner-centred outcomes. P7 notes: "*For every step of my training, people are made aware of opportunities. My first result is arousing interest once they're exposed to a variety of skills. These varied skills become options when the time comes to choose their life careers*." The learner-centred approach also enables the women to exercise choice in customising and adapting course content, in-line with individual needs and interests. P6 offers technical guidance, noting "*I always encourage that when they choose crop husbandry, they do animal husbandry as well because whatever the crop industry needs, can be provided for by the animal husbandry and vice versa"*. P6 adds that the women choose *"what they want to start with*." At a more practical level, P5 indicates where learner-centred preferences are pivotal: "*Most of these women are semi-literate, they prefer I use the local language*."

Considered together, pre-EET practices appear to be necessitated by the inhibiting contexts of the targeted learners. These practices, however, serve to create the conditions that enable the delivery of EET to hard-to-reach women in contexts of disadvantage that is learner-centred with empowerment potential. Indeed, all participants exhibited a strong desire to help empower the less fortunate through EET. For example, P8 defines the EET they practice as "*teaching others the entrepreneurship skill that you know, to better their lives*".

During-EET: Entrepreneurial Capacity Development

During the delivery of EET, EET practitioners enact specific entrepreneurial capacity development practices – including technical, business and soft skills - to ensure increasingly holistic development (Annex II). Findings reveal two key practices during this stage: scaffolded experiential learning and person-centred support.

Scaffolding learning. This practice highlights three teaching practical methods that include experiential staged learning, facilitated peer learning, and coaching. In experiential staged learning, EET practitioners help develop hands-on skills through illustrative and participatory learning practices. P7 observes*: "We elaborate many things in uncomplicated language ... they see the production process and know what can be done. So, they get experience touching with their hands, tasting, smelling, everything!"* This is coupled with peer-learning and site visits to facilitate social learning through accumulation of social capital (experienced entrepreneur to aspirant entrepreneur), which enables sharing, complementing, and learning through networking. EET practitioners employ role models or assume the position of role models, providing aspirational examples that substantively enable an *'it is possible'* narrative:

"*I give them role models so that they see how* [the role models] *come up with their businesses, to gain guidance and information to do better*." (P1). Through coaching, EET practitioners support goal-orientated learner-centred development in specific areas: "*I will hold your hand, but you will do the work. I am like the glue that holds your pieces together and helps you with where you want to go.*" (P3).

Person-centred support. Findings also suggest a move from a learner-centred approach to an increasingly *person*-centred form of support. EET practitioners offer learning aligned with need, critical for processes of empowerment in institutionally challenging contexts (Gavigan et al., 2020; Lourenço et al., 2014). Further indications of this move towards empowering, person-centric support are found in EET practitioners offering training for reduced or no fees: *"There's a family of a young girl whose mother died... So, the girl and her six siblings didn't have anything. In such a scenario I can't ask for anything from such a person. I just give. So many times, I've found myself in scenarios such as these. I tell them to come and train so that they are able to acquire skills to sustain themselves."* (P5). They also provide advice and mentorship as P8 narrates, "*We guide entrepreneurs on where to improve in their SMEs*." Lastly, they also sponsor and chaperon their learners, building towards further development of their EET skills: "*whenever I have an opportunity with an organisation with offers for development, I identify students with the right mindset and engage them.*" (P3)

Post-EET: Entrepreneurial Community Development

The post-EET community development process reveals two practices geared towards sustaining woman-to-woman connections and interdependence: promoting social

mobilisation and advocacy and building a sustainable pipeline of institutional entrepreneurs. These actions suggest outcomes beyond individual entrepreneurial proficiency; they suggest impact at the collective level (Alkhaled & Berglund 2018; Inglis, 1997; Rubyutsa et al., 2023).

Promote social mobilisation and advocacy. This is achieved by organising group action and building partnerships to foster sustainable empowerment outcomes. In organising for group action, EET practitioners work to identify resources to support and sustain group activities. P3 discloses, "*We have government, Private Sector Foundation, and World Bank grants for those that come as a group*." Additionally, they introduce processes to enable market participation, peer support and mitigate against competition. For example, P11 explains how they "*categorized them into clusters so as to have a standard price so that they weren't exploited*." P10 adds, "*The small, struggling groups with no focused goal, we encourage them to work together and get them market*." In building partnerships, the outcomes of EET extend beyond the individuals supported to impact the wider communities in which they are situated, helping tackle structures of disadvantage: "*Now the L.Cs* [Local Council community leaders] *welcome the fact that we are able to give school dropouts skills to start in life, of course this also develops the community*." (P11).

Build a sustainable pipeline of institutional entrepreneurs. EET practitioners also extend into community development as the learners and alumni are further encouraged to offer informal peer accountability and support as well as undertake institutional work. Here, they identify 'fast learners' - those well placed to pass on acquired knowledge to peers: "*I picked three groups of women and trained them for free, as a start-up kit to train others*." (P12). Further, EET practitioners support and resource sustainable and scalable EET and outcomes

thereof by, for example, "*preparing books with templates and drawings that ease people's work; something they can look at and easily transfer into a design.*" (P12). Moreover, EET practitioners also nurture role models and ambassadors, as P11 confirms: "*What I consider as success is when somebody becomes a role model in the community.*" This is reinforced by P4: "*When my student becomes a community role model, I refer her colleagues to her*." P2 spoke proudly of a former learner that has since advanced to gain a strong political position that she uses to represent the interests of disadvantaged women nationally, beyond being a highly inspirational feat: "*One of those women went back to school, stood for Member of Parliament and is working in the president's office now*." EET practitioners enact practices that seek to not just support individual disadvantaged women but build collective capacity to effectively challenge institutions responsible for such disadvantage.

DISCUSSION

We sought to understand how informal EET practitioners promote both the gainful participation of marginalised women in entrepreneurship and support processes of female empowerment in challenging institutional contexts. Based on our analysis, we make two key contributions. First, we position EET practitioners as institutional entrepreneurs. Second, we develop a grounded model capturing practices enacted by EET practitioners that illuminate the ways in which EET can contribute to processes of empowerment and emancipation (Figure II).

Informal EET Practitioners as Institutional Entrepreneurs

Our findings demonstrate that the practices of EET practitioners indeed align with definitions of institutional work (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006), and institutional entrepreneurship (Battilana et al., 2009; Garud et al., 2007). Firstly, through a targeted approach to engaged outreach (pre-EET), they specifically recruit marginalised women with intersecting vulnerabilities (trauma victims, refugees, child-mothers, women with limited education, for example). In enacting this, EET practitioners work to effectively challenge structures of disadvantage and address the discriminatory socio-cultural conditions (Namatovu et al., 2012) and their resulting constraints. These constraints include, for example, business skills deficiencies (Komunte, 2015) that inhibit the participation of women in gainful entrepreneurship. Further, EET practitioners indicate a meaningful orientation towards helping women "*better their lives*" (P8) in the face of severe disadvantage through 'beyond teaching', person-centred support. Additionally, EET practitioners work to continually confront institutional structures that create and perpetuate disadvantage among marginalised women. Building on research highlighting agentic actions of entrepreneurship educators pertaining to education aspects (Fiet, 2001; Neck & Corbett, 2018; Seikkula-Leino et al., 2010; Thomassen et al., 2020; Wraae et al., 2021), we illuminate how EET practitioners in challenging contexts further expand on EET to undertake wider institutional work.

Indeed, we find that this institutional work extends beyond the micro level, as EET practitioners enable cascading outcomes within the entrepreneurs' wider community in distinct ways. First, they engage with wider stakeholders, including community leaders and other intermediaries, at the recruitment and enrolment stages (pre-EET). Second, post-EET, through community development work, they mobilise their alumni female learner

entrepreneurs into a growing and impactful collective. These findings resonate with research that highlights how female entrepreneurs acting with others can achieve collective empowerment and emancipation from oppressive structures (Alkhaled & Berglund, 2018; Rubyutsa et al., 2023). Indeed, our findings further align with research from adult education that argues that educators enable emancipation when they 'become part of the power struggle of an oppressed people' (Inglis, 1997). Our findings show how EET practitioners support such empowerment and emancipation processes in a sustainable way through the engaged outreach and recruitment, person-centred capacity building, and community and pipeline building activities they undertake. In this case, emancipation is not 'brought' by an educator, rather, it 'emerges from within the oppressed themselves' (Inglis, 1997).

Informal EET Practices and Female Empowerment Outcomes: A Grounded Model

Building on the previous discussion, our findings have identified novel complementary practices, enacted by EET practitioners before, during and after the conventional instructional part, that illuminate the ways in which EET can contribute to processes of empowerment and emancipation (Figure II). We note that these practices, in many ways, align with and enrich recent innovative developments in EET scholarship more widely.

Our findings highlight that, in view of the challenging contexts that marginalised women operate within (thus rendering them hard-to-reach, seldom-heard and easy-to-ignore (Fluegge et al., 2019)), EET practitioners as institutional entrepreneurs are proactively impelled to act. They introduce and enact a number of pre-EET 'wraparound' engagement outreach practices that seek to overcome the institutional forces that disadvantage and marginalise such women.

They do this through targeted recruitment, collaboration with intermediaries and partners, and working with learners to co-determine learning outcomes. These, in turn, enable disadvantaged and marginalised women to access the entrepreneurial capacity development programmes offered by EET practitioners. In the absence of engaged outreach, we propose that female disadvantage and marginalisation fundamentally inhibits pursuit of entrepreneurial capacity development (Figure II), perhaps partly explaining the high incidence of women's entrepreneurial failure in Uganda (Komunte, 2015).

[Insert Figure II here]

Building on broader higher education literatures on widening participation (Fluegge et al., 2019; Scull & Cuthill, 2010), we highlight the critical role of engaged outreach in the wraparound practices. Here, the complementary practice of co-defining (practitioner and learner) learning outcomes in-line with learners' needs and aspirations as posited by recent EET research (Henry, 2020; Verduijn & Berglund, 2020). We propose that together, these engaged outreach practices lay a strong foundation for the next stage, entrepreneurial capacity development (during EET).

During-EET, to support learning, informal EET practitioners employ scaffolded experiential approaches (Bosman, 2019; Neergaard & Christensen, 2017; Pittaway et al., 2023) and person-centred support, bearing out Bell's (2022) vision of a whole-person approach in EET. Complementing EET research (Hägg, 2020; Neck & Corbett, 2018), we find that in scaffolded experiential learning, EET practitioners employ peer-learning, coaching, and guiding approaches to enable the development of applied entrepreneurial capacity. Further, our

findings describe an increasingly person-centred support (Henry, 2020), where learning is customised, based on learners' individual interests and needs co-designed with the learners. We extend the positive person-centred advances by highlighting that EET practitioners in challenging contexts adopt a more holistic *whole-person* approach by specifically considering their learners' position of disadvantage and marginalisation. Indeed, for some EET practitioners, they adopt an empathy-driven approach, demonstrated by the provision of low or no cost training opportunities for those in greatest need.

Based on our findings, we posit that entrepreneurial capacity development practises enacted by EET practitioners aid female empowerment processes since they promote the gainful participation of marginalised women in entrepreneurial activities. This allows marginalised women to secure a livelihood and greater autonomy to meet their needs as well as enjoy other social and wellbeing benefits of economic participation, including competence, esteem, and extended social connections. In turn, this means that entrepreneurial capacity development works to mitigate against severe female disadvantage and marginalisation afflicting women in the respective communities (Figure II). This enables greater access to resources, agency, and achievement in line with the women's empowerment framework (Bruton et al., 2010; Kabeer, 1999). Subsequently, such melioration of severe female disadvantage and marginalisation will work to abate contextual factors that inhibit access to entrepreneurial capacity development which would further enable a virtuous cycle in processes of empowerment and reduction of disadvantage.

Still, extant research shows that capacity development interventions at the individual level are limited (Al-Dajani et al., 2015; Pigg, 2002). Thus, capacity development has increasingly

been implemented at meso and macro levels (Kühl, 2009; Vallejo & Wehn, 2016), and includes efforts to build collective strength, advocacy, and expand choice (Lovat & Toomey, 2009; Pigg, 2002; Schuftan, 1996). Findings demonstrate that EET practitioners as institutional entrepreneurs move beyond individual-level capacity development, enacting community development practices that promote social mobilisation and advocacy. This includes organising for social action and building partnerships that facilitate conscientisation and wider community engagement. Such practices have been argued to move beyond empowerment towards more substantive emancipation. In this thread, empowerment enhances greater autonomy for individuals within given institutional structures while emancipation seeks to change such structures to enhance collective freedom (Alkhaled & Berglund, 2018; Inglis, 1997; Rubyutsa et al., 2023).

Furthermore, research from these challenging institutional contexts cautions that interventions with empowering intentions may inadvertently have disempowering outcomes. These include entrenching dependency and the introduction of structures that may introduce new constraints on participants' agency and alternatives (Al-Dajani et al., 2015; Lovat & Toomey, 2009). Our findings, however, highlight practises that may militate against such outcomes. In line with their role as institutional entrepreneurs, we establish that EET practitioners proactively enable the development of an increasingly sustainable pipeline of institutional entrepreneurs by developing the women as accountable peers and future trainers. This aligns with studies that affirm that true emancipation must emerge from within the oppressed themselves (Inglis, 1997). Building on these advances, we contribute to EET and institutional entrepreneurship literatures by highlighting the importance of enabling 'institutional entrepreneur pipelines' in empowerment dynamics.

In effect, we posit that in combining individual entrepreneurial capacity development with community development work, EET educators bolster the processes of female empowerment and emancipation in challenging contexts. Accordingly, this more forcefully combats the underlying structures of female disadvantage and marginalisation which in turn fuels the virtuous cycle of EET's contributions to female empowerment and emancipation. In illuminating these mechanisms, we expand extant research on entrepreneurship support programmes in the Global South that highlights similar dynamics (Al-Dajani & Marlow, 2013; Mair & Marti, 2009; Rubyutsa et al., 2023).

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

We investigated practices enacted by informal EET practitioners in fostering gainful participation of marginalised women in entrepreneurship and supporting processes of female empowerment and emancipation in a challenging institutional context: Uganda. Our inductive study offers a rich empirical depiction of their enacted extended practices and a nuanced theoretical understanding of the mechanisms through which informal EET can enhance both the gainful participation in entrepreneurship and greater empowerment among marginalised groups. The analysis unveiled two contributions. First, we extend the conceptualisation of informal EET practitioners by demonstrating how their work effectively renders them institutional entrepreneurs, rather than mere educators. This is attributed to their intentionality and agentic work challenging incumbent institutional structures and fostering change. Second, we developed a grounded model illuminating how they concurrently enact engaged

outreach, entrepreneurial capacity development and community development. The model depicts how they enable marginalised women's access to capacity development opportunities, entrepreneurial competencies and undertake sustainable collective steps towards empowerment and emancipation.

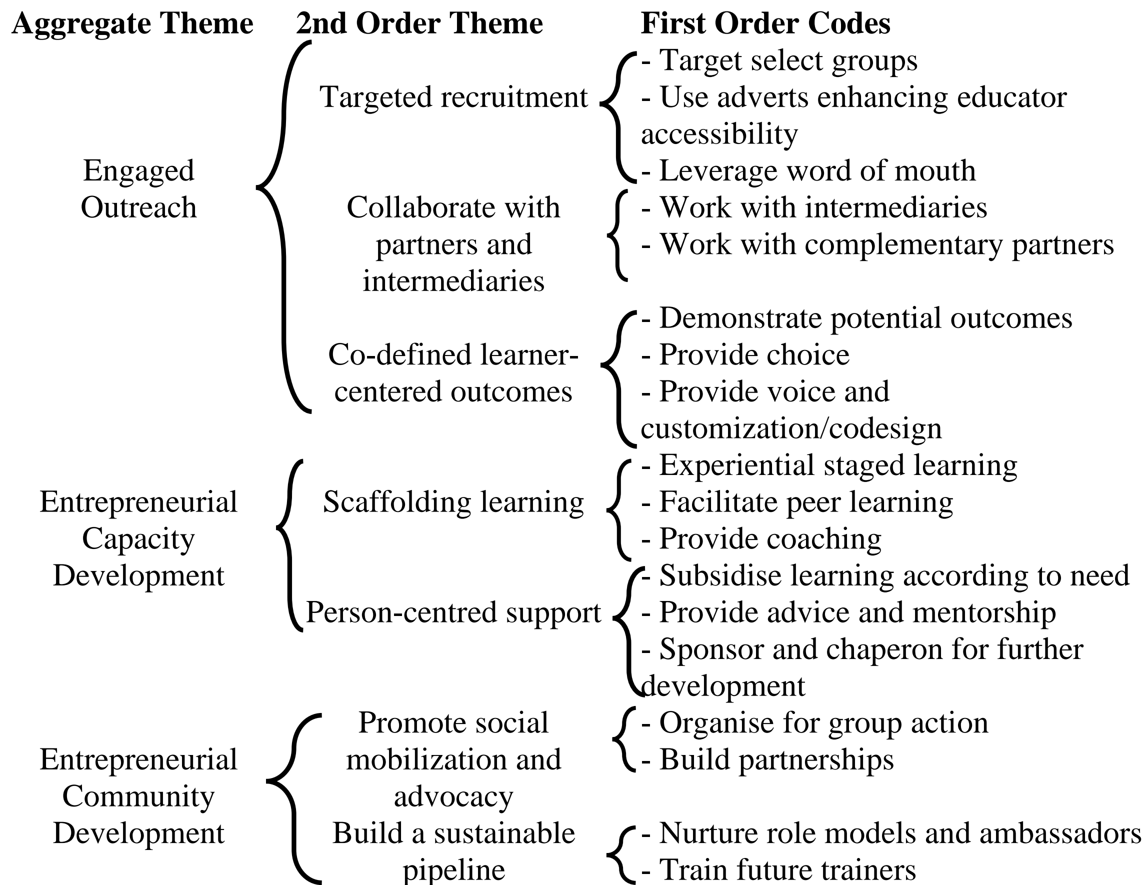
We offer implications for EET research and practice. Recent research envisions a more person-centred humanist entrepreneurship education (Bell, 2022; Henry, 2020), with significant empowerment and emancipation potential in line with similar debates in education scholarship (Walmsley & Wraae, 2022). We draw on data from a unique institutional context, to empirically bear out propositions as well as extend nuanced theoretical understanding on the following research issues: institutional entrepreneurship (Battilana et al., 2009; Garud et al., 2007; Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006), development (Kühl, 2009; McKenzie, 2021; Vallejo & Wehn, 2016), and empowerment and emancipation (Inglis, 1997; Kabeer, 1999). The implication for research here is that drawing on context (Thomassen et al., 2019), especially unique institutional contexts, there is much scope to advance theory in entrepreneurial education cross-fertilising insights from sister fields.

For policy, notwithstanding concerns relating to entrepreneurship being considered a policy panacea, our study shows that informal EET has an important role to play in efforts to enhance gainful entrepreneurship and emancipation among the marginalised in society. However, amid concerns that such interventions do not work in such contexts (McKenzie, 2021), our study proposes that to work effectively, informal EET should be complemented by engaged outreach and community level reinforcements. Thus, policy should consider wraparound approaches, beyond mere teaching. Furthermore, policy evaluation should place an emphasis

on targeted empowerment processes for traditionally marginalised groups (Kabeer, 1999), beyond business performance.

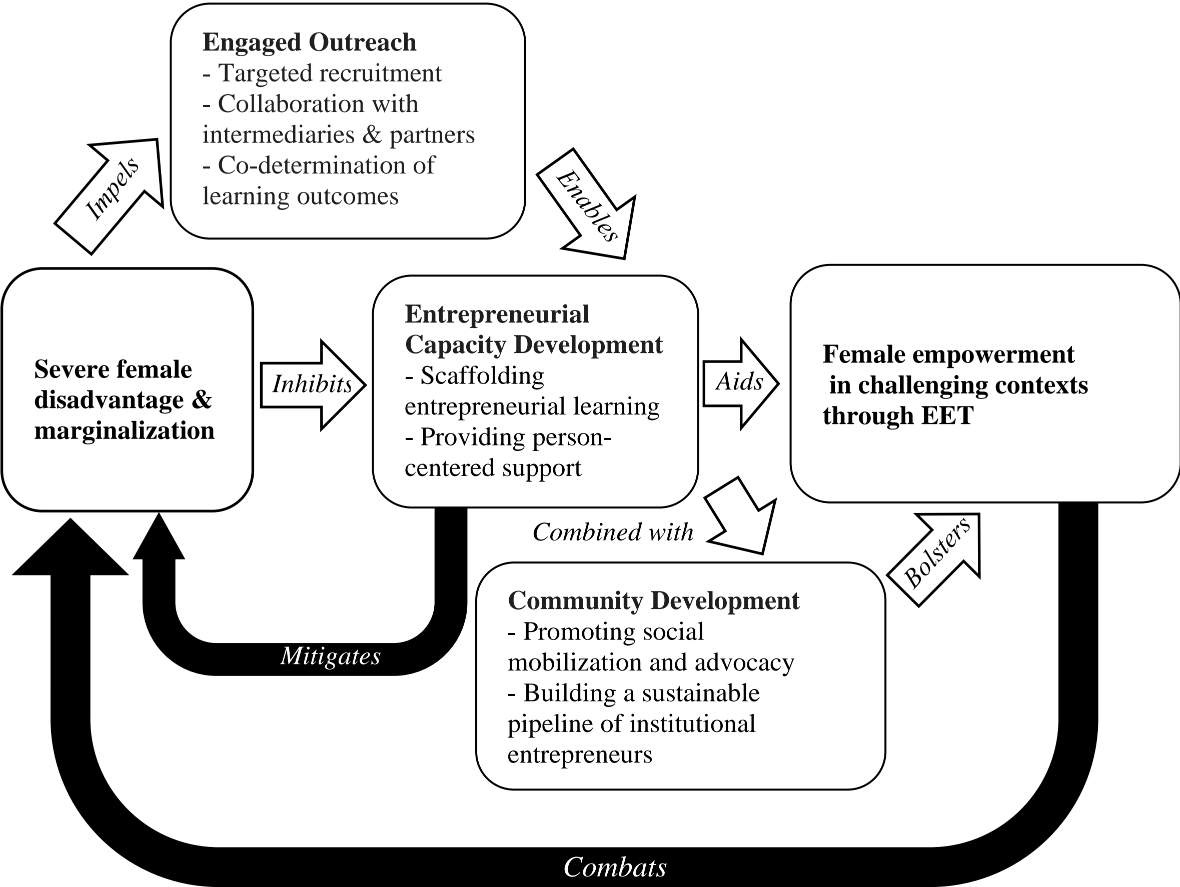
This study is, however not without limitations. We acknowledge that the day-to-day practices of a small sample of female informal EET practitioners' working with marginalised women in specific contexts within Uganda may be very different from EET in other contexts. While this study proffers novel insights, future research, adopting comparative approaches in similar or distinct contexts, could offer further understanding on the link between informal EET and empowerment or emancipation processes. Further, we recognise that the gender dimension, both on the part of the educators and the learners, requires further investigation to fully understand the complexity our findings suggest. In all, this study demonstrates that informal EET warrants a prominent position in academic, policy and wider debates on the role of entrepreneurship and education in modern society.

Figure 1: Data Structure



Source: Figure created by authors

Figure II: Mechanisms of EET Institutional Work Contributing to Women's Empowerment and Emancipation. A Grounded Model



Source: Figure created by authors

REFERENCES

Adom, K., and& Anambane, G. (2019),. “Understanding the role of culture and gender stereotypes in women entrepreneurship through the lens of the stereotype threat theory”,. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies,* Vol. 12 No. 1(1), pp. 100-124, doi:. 10.1108/JEEE-07-2018-0070.

Ahl, H. (2006),. “Why research on women entrepreneurs needs new directions”,. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol., 30 No. 5(5), pp. 595-621, doi:. 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2006.00138.x.

Akello, G. (2013),. “Experiences of forced mothers in northern Uganda: the legacy of war”,. *Intervention,* Vol. 11 No. (2), pp. 149-156, doi: 10.1097/WTF.0b013e3283625d3c..

Al-Dajani, H., Carter, S., Shaw, E. and& Marlow, S. (2015). “Entrepreneurship among the displaced and dispossessed: Exploring the limits of emancipatory entrepreneuring”. *British Journal of Management,* Vol. 26 No. (4), pp. 713-730, doi: 10.1111/1467-8551.12119..

Al-Dajani, H., and& Marlow, S. (2013),. “Empowerment and entrepreneurship: A theoretical framework”,. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research,* Vol. 19 No. 5(5), pp. 503-524,3. doi: 10.1108/IJEBR-10-2011-0138.

Alkhaled, S., and& Berglund, K. (2018),. “‘Annd now I’m free’: Women’s empowerment and emancipation through entrepreneurship in Saudi Arabia and Sweden”. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* Vol. 30 No. 7-8(7-8), pp. 877-900, doi: 10.1080/08985626.2018.1500645.

Amine, L. S., & and Staub, K. M. (2009),. “Women entrepreneurs in sub-Saharan Africa: An institutional theory analysis from a social marketing point of view”,. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* Vol. 21 No. (2), pp. 183-211, doi: 10.1080/08985620802182144..

Anosike, P. (2019),. “Entrepreneurship education as human capital: Implications for youth self-employment and conflict mitigation in Sub-Saharan Africa”,. *Industry and Higher Education,* Vol. 33 No. (1), pp. 42-54, doi:. 10.1177/0950422218812631.

Arthur, K. N. A., and& Adom, A. Y. (20192020),. “Explorative study of entrepreneurship training programmes in Christian institutions in Ghana”, . *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, Vol. 14 No. (5), pp. 713-727, doi: 10.1108/JEC-12-2018-0109..

Battilana, J., Leca, B., and& Boxenbaum, E. (2009), . “H2 how actors change institutions: towards a theory of institutional entrepreneurship”,. *The Academy of Management Annals*, Vol. 3 No. 1(1), pp. 65-107, doi: 10.1080/19416520903053598.

Bell, R. (2022), “. Supporting students and society: Underpinning entrepreneurship education with a humanistic philosophy”, in Larios-Hernandez, G. J., Walmsley, A. and Lopez-Castro, I. (Eds), . In Theorising Undergraduate Entrepreneurship Education: Reflections on the Development of the Entrepreneurial Mindset,(pp. 157-172). Cham: Springer International PublishingPalgrave Macmillan, pp. 157-172,. doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-87865-8.

Bosman, L. (2019),. “From doing to thinking: Developing the entrepreneurial mindset through scaffold assignments and self-regulated learning reflection”,. *Open Education Studies,* Vol. 1 No. 1(1), pp. 106-121, doi: 10.1515/edu-2019-0007..

Bruton, G. D., Ahlstrom, D., and& Li, H. (2010), “. Institutional theory and entrepreneurship: where are we now and where do we need to move in the future?”, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 34 No. (3), pp. 421-440, doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2010.003.

Carter, S., Mwaura, S., Ram, M., Trehan, K., & and Jones, T. (2015),. “Barriers to ethnic minority and women’s enterprise: Existing evidence, policy tensions and unsettled questions”, . *International Small Business Journal,* Vol. 33 No.(1), pp. 49-69, doi: 10.1177/0266242614556823..

Casulli, L. (2022),. “What do we talk about when we talk about entrepreneurial mindset training?”, in Larios-Hernandez, G. J., Walmsley, A. and Lopez-Castro, I. (Eds), Theorising Undergraduate Entrepreneurship Education: Reflections on the Development of the Entrepreneurial Mindset, Palgrave Macmillan, pp.137-156, doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-87865-8.In *Theorising undergraduate entrepreneurship education: Reflections on the development of the entrepreneurial mindset* (pp. 137-156). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Champenois, C., Lefebvre, V., and& Ronteau, S. (2020), “. Entrepreneurship as practice: systematic literature review of a nascent field”,. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* Vol. 32 No. (3-4), pp. 281-312, doi: 10.1080/08985626.2019.1641975..

Chant, S. (2013),. “Cities through a “gender lens”: a golden “urban age” for women in the global South?”, *Environment and Urbanization,* Vol.25 No. 1(1), pp. 9-29, doi: 10.1177/0956247813477809..

Chauke, P. K. (2015),. “An assessment of survivalist enterprises in the Capricorn District Municipality”,. *Development Southern Africa,* Vol. 32 No. (5), pp.613-622, doi: 10.1080/0376835X.2015.1044074..

Cope, J. (2005),. "Researching entrepreneurship through phenomenological inquiry: Philosophical and methodological issues",. *International Small Business Journal,* Vol. 23 No.(2), pp. 163-189, doi: 10.1177/0266242605050511..

Creswell, J. W., & and Miller, D. L. (2000),. "Determining validity in qualitative inquiry",. *Theory into Practice,* Vol. 39 No. (3), pp. 124-130, doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip3903_2.

Creswell, J. W., and& Poth, C. N. (2016),. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*,. Sage SAGE Ppublications, Thousand Oaks, CA..

Dabić, M., Dana, L.- P., Nziku, D. M.., and& Ramadani, V. (Eds) (2022),. *Women Entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa: . Cham: Springer Nature. Historical framework, ecosystem, and future perspectives for the region*, Springer Nature, Cham.

Dungey, C. and& Ansell, N. (2020),. "'Not all of us can be Nurses': Proposing and Resisting Entrepreneurship Education in Rural Lesotho",. *Sociological Research Online*, Vol. 27 No. 4, pp. 823-841, doi: 1360780420944967.

Elert, N., Wennberg, K., and& Sjöö, K. (2020),. *When less is more: why limitedimited entrepreneurship education may result in better entrepreneurial outcomes*, IFN Working Paper, No. 1322, Research Institute of Industrial Economics (IFN), Stockholm.. International Review of Entrepreneurship, Forthcoming.

Fayolle, A. and& Gailly, B. (2008),. "From craft to science: Teaching models and learning processes in entrepreneurship education",. *Journal of European industrial training,* Vol. 32 No. 7, pp. 569 -593, doi: 10.1108/03090590810899838.

Feng, L. and& Sumettikoon, P. (2022), ". A pPromotion of fFemale eEntrepreneurship eEducation eEcosystem to eEmpower gGirls and wWomen", . *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research,* 98(Vol. 98), pp. 284-301.

Fiet, J. O. (2001),. “The pedagogical side of entrepreneurship theory”,. *Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 16 No.*(2), pp. 101-117, doi: 10.1016/S0883-9026(99)00042-7. .

Fluegge, T., Anderson, L., Buysse, A., Dean, A., De Neve, I., Dewaele, A., Guareschi, M., Mancini, M. C., Pohlenz, P. and, & Rusinovic, K. (2019),. “Universities and their Communities: A state-of-the art review of community university partnerships and community academic partnerships in Belgium, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom”, SEU Project. (Available from www.seuproject.eu)..

Fred, A., Nduhura, A., & and Ronald, M. (2018),. “Promoting entrepreneurship through the mind-set change approach: Empirical evidence from women entrepreneurs in Uganda”,. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management United Kingdom,* Vol. VI No.6(10), pp. 415-426.

Garud, R., Hardy, C. and& Maguire, S. (2007), “. Institutional entrepreneurship as embedded agency: An introduction to the special issue”,. *Organization Studies,* Vol. 28 No. (7), pp. 957-969, doi: 10.1177/0170840607078958..

Gavigan, S., Ciprikis, K., and& Cooney, T. (2020), “. The impact of entrepreneurship training on self-employment of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda”, . *Small Enterprise Research,* Vol. 27 No.(2), pp. 180-194, doi: 10.1080/13215906.2020.1769715..

Gill, M. J. (2015). A Phenomenology of Feeling: Examining the Experience of Emotion in Organizations, in. Härtel, C. E., Zerbe, W. J. and Ashkanasy, N. M. (Eds), New Ways of Studying Emotions in Organizations, (pp. 29-50). Emerald Group Publishing Limited, (pp. 29-50)., doi:. 10.1108/S1746-979120150000011003

Gioia, D. A., Corley, K. G., and& Hamilton, A. L. (2013),. “Seeking qualitative rigor in inductive research: Notes on the Gioia methodology”,. *Organizational Research Methods,* Vol. 16 No.(1), pp. 15-31, doi: 10.1177/1094428112452151.

Gutiérrez, L. M., DeLois, K. A., & and GlenmMaye, L. (1995),. “Understanding empowerment practice: Building on practitioner-based knowledge”,. *Families in Society,* Vol. 76 No.(9), pp. 534-542, doi: 10.1177/104438949507600903..

Haase, H., and& Lautenschläger, A. (2011),. “The ‘Tteachability Ddilemma’ of entrepreneurship”,. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal,* Vol. 7(2), pp. 145-162, doi: 10.1007/s11365-010-0150-3.

Hägg, G. (2021),. “The study group method-how cooperative learning among peers contributes to experiential entrepreneurship education”, . *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, Vol. 44 No. (1), pp. 75-102, doi: 10.1504/IJESB.2021.117932.

Hägg, G. and Gabrielsson, J. (2020),. “A systematic literature review of the evolution of pedagogy in entrepreneurial education research”,. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research,* Vol. 26 No.(5), pp. 829-861, doi: .10.1108/IJEBR-04-2018-0272.

Hannon, P. D. (2018),. “On becoming and being an entrepreneurship educator: a personal reflection”,. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* Vol. 30 No. (7-8), pp. 698-721, doi: 10.1080/08985626.2018.1464259.

Henry, C. (2020),. “Reconceptualizing the role of the future entrepreneurship educator: an exploration of the content challenge”,. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* Vol 32 No.(9-10), pp. 657-676, doi: 10.1080/08985626.2020.1737416.

Idris, B., Saridakis, G., & and Johnstone, S. (2023),. “Training and performance in SMEs: Empirical evidence from large-scale data from the UK”,. *Journal of Small Business Management,* Vol. 61 No. (2), pp. 769-801, doi: 10.1080/00472778.2020.1816431..

Inglis, T. (1997), “. Empowerment and emancipation”,. *Adult Education Quarterly,* Vol. 48 No. (1), pp. 3-17, doi: 10.1177/074171369704800102..

Jones, C., and Matlay, H. (2011), “. Understanding the heterogeneity of entrepreneurship education: going beyond Gartner”,. *Education Training,* Vol. 53 No.(8/9), pp. 692-703, doi: 10.1108/00400911111185026.

Kabeer, N. (1999),. “Resources, agency, achievements: Reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment”,. *Development and Change,* Vol. 30 No.(3), pp. 435-464, doi: 10.1111/1467-7660.00125..

Komunte, M. (2015),. “Usage of mobile technology in women entrepreneurs: A case study of Uganda”,. *The African Journal of Information Systems*, Vol. 7 No. (3), pp.52-743.

Korstjens, I., and Moser, A. (2018), “. Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 4: Trustworthiness and publishing”,. *European Journal of General Practice,* Vol. 24 No.(1), pp. 120-124, doi: 10.1080/13814788.2017.1375092..

Koyana, S., and Mason, R. B. (2017), “. Rural entrepreneurship and transformation: the role of learnerships”,. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, Vol. 23 No. (5), pp. 734-751, doi: 10.1108/IJEBR-07-2016-0207.

Kühl, S. (2009),. “Capacity development as the model for development aid organizations”,. *Development and Change*, Vol. 40 No. (3), pp. 551-577, doi: 10.1111/j.1467-7660.2009.01538.x.

Kuratko, D. F. (2005),. “The emergence of entrepreneurship education: Development, trends, and challenges”,. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 29 No. (5), pp. 577-597, doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2005.00099.x.

Kyrö, P. (2006),. “The continental and Anglo-American approaches to entrepreneurship education—differences and bridges”, in Fayolle, A. and Klandt, H. (Eds), . International Entrepreneurship Education:, Issues and Newness, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK, pp. 93-111, doi: 10.4337/9781847201652.

Langevang, T., Namatovu, R., & and Dawa, S. (2012),. “Beyond necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship: motivations and aspirations of young entrepreneurs in Uganda”,. *International Development Planning Review,* Vol. 34 No. (4), pp. 439-460, doi: 10.3828/idpr.2012.26.

Lawrence, T. B., & and Suddaby, R. (2006), “. 1.6 inInstitutions and institutional work”, in Clegg, S. R., Hardy, C., Lawrence, T. B. and Nords, W. R. (Eds), . The Sage Handbook of Organization Studies, 2nd Edition, London, SAGE, pp. 215-254, doi: 10.4135/9781848608030.n7.

Lourenço, F., Sappleton, N., Dardaine-Edwards, A., McElwee, G., Cheng, R., W. Taylor, D. W. and, & G. Taylor, A. G. (2014),. “Experience of entrepreneurial training for female farmers to stimulate entrepreneurship in Uganda”, . *Gender in Management: An Iinternational Jjournal*, Vol. 29 No. (7), pp. 382-401, doi: 10.1108/GM-05-2013-0054..

Lovat, T., and& Toomey, R. (Eds) (2009), “. Values education and quality teaching: the double helix effect”,. Springer, Dordrecht.

Mair, J., & Marti, I. (2009),. “Entrepreneurship in and around institutional voids: A case study from Bangladesh”, . *Journal of Business Venturing,* Vol. 24 No. (5), pp. 419-435, doi: 10.1016/j.jbusvent.2008.04.006.

Matlay, H. (2008),. “The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial outcomes”,. *Journal of Ssmall Bbusiness and Eenterprise Ddevelopment*, Vol. 15 No. (2), pp. 382-396, doi: 10.1108/14626000810871745.

Mawson, S., Casulli, L., and Simmons, E. L. (2023), “. A competence development approach for entrepreneurial mindset in entrepreneurship education”, . *Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy,* Vol. 6 No. (3), pp. 481-501, doi: 10.1177/25151274221143146.

McKenzie, D. (2021), “. Small business training to improve management practices in developing countries: re-assessing the evidence for ‘training doesn’t work’”. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy,* Vol. 37 No. (2), pp. 276-301, doi: 10.1093/oxrep/grab002.

Mukasa, N. (2017), . “War-child mothers in northern Uganda: the civil war forgotten legacy”,. *Development in Practice,* Vol. 27 No. (3), pp. 354-367, doi: . 10.1080/09614524.2017.1294147

Mwaura, S. (2016), “. The productivity of knowledge mobilisation, knowledge capitalisation and product-related firm transmutation: exploring the case of small-scale garment-makers in Nairobi, Kenya”, . *Industry and Innovation,* Vol. 23 No.(7), pp. 575-594, doi: 10.1080/13662716.2016.1195251.

Namatovu, R., Dawa, S., Katongole, C., & and Mulira, F. (2012),. “Understanding women micro and small business entrepreneurs in Uganda”, ICBE-RF Research Report No. 01/12, Trust Africa (Available online: https://trustafrica.org/publication/understanding-women-micro-and-small-business-entrepreneurs-in-uganda/).

Neck, H. M., and & Corbett, A. C. (2018), “. The scholarship of teaching and learning entrepreneurship”, . *Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy,* Vol. 1 No. (1), pp. 8-41, doi: 10.1177/2515127417737286.

Neergaard, H., and & Christensen, D. R. (2017),. “Breaking the waves: Routines and rituals in entrepreneurship education”, . *Industry and Higher Education,* Vol. 31 No.(2), pp. 90-100, doi: 10.1177/0950422217692479. .

Neergaard, H., Robinson, S., and& Jones, S. (2021),. “Transformative learning in the entrepreneurship education process: the role of pedagogical nudging and reflection”, n. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, Vol. 27 No. (1), pp. 251-277, doi: 10.1108/IJEBR-04-2020-0235. .

Nowell, L. S., Norris, J. M., White, D. E. and, & Moules, N. J. (2017), “. Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustworthiness criteria”, . *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* Vol. 16 No. (1), 1609406917733847pp. 1-13, doi: 10.1177/1609406917733847.

O’Neill Berry, M., Kuriansky, J., Lytle, M. C., Vistman, B., Mosisili, M. S., Hlothoane, L., Matlanyane, M., Mokobori, T., Mosuhli, S. and, & Pebane, J. (2013), “. Entrepreneurial training for girls empowerment in Lesotho: A process evaluation of a model programme”, . *South African Journal of Psychology,* Vol. 43 No. (4), pp. 445-458, doi: 10.1177/0081246313504685.

Ojong, N., Simba, A. and, & Dana, L. (2021),. Female entrepreneurship in Africa: A review, trends, and future research directions”,. *Journal of Business Research,* Vol.132, pp. 233-248, doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.04.032. .

Okafor, A. and, & George, O. (2016),. “Theorising the concept of product branding: A qualitative approach to the history of branding; the case of the Nigerian milk industry”, . *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, Vol. 8 No. (2), pp. 84-96, doi: 10.5539/ijms.v8n2p84..

Pigg, K. E. (2002), “. Three faces of empowerment: Expanding the theory of empowerment in community development”, . *Community Development,* Vol. 33 No. (1), pp. 107-123, doi: 10.1080/15575330209490145. .

Pittaway, L. A., Tantawy, M. M., Corbett, A. C. and, & Brush, C. (2023), “. Improving Doctoral Educator Development: A Scaffolding Approach”, . *Journal of Management Education,* Vol. 47 No. (6), pp. 618-648, doi: 10.1177/10525629231197219.

Pittaway, L., and& Cope, J. (2007),. “Entrepreneurship education: A systematic review of the evidence”. *International Small Business Journal,* Vol. 25 No(. 5), pp. 479-510, doi: 10.1177/0266242607080656.

Ramsgaard, M. B., Thomassen, M. L., and Middleton, K. W. (2023). Progressing Context in Entrepreneurship Education: Reflections from a Delphi Study, in Block, J.H., Halberstadt, J., Högsdal, N., Kuckertz, A. and Neergaard, H. (Eds), Progress in Entrepreneurship Education and Training. Springer, Cham, pp. 155-170, doi: 10.1007/978-3-031-28559-2_11. . *Progress in Entrepreneurship Education and Training*, 155.

Rubyutsa, J. M., Achtenhagen, L., Stendahl, E., and Musekura, C. (2023), . “Advancing Rural Entrepreneurship in Rwanda Through Informal Training–Insights fFrom Paulo Freire’s Pedagogy of the Oppressed”, *Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 347-376, doi: 10.1177/25151274231204342.

Said, I., & and Enslin, C. (2020), .“ Lived experiences of females with entrepreneurship in Sudan: Networking, social expectations, and family support”,. *SAGE Open,* Vol. 10 No. 4(4),, pp. 1-12, doi: 10.1177/2158244020963131.2158244020963131.

Santos, S. C., Neumeyer, X., and& Morris, M. H. (2019), “. Entrepreneurship education in a poverty context: An empowerment perspective”,. *Journal of Small Business Management,* Vol. 57 No. S1, pp. 6-32, doi: 10.1111/jsbm.12485.

Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., Burroughs, H., and& Jinks, C. (2018),. “Saturation in qualitative research: exploring its conceptualization and operationalization”,. *Quality & Quantity,* Vol. 52, pp. 1893-1907, doi: 10.1007/s11135-017-0574-8..

Schuftan, C. (1996),. “The community development dilemma: what is really empowering?” *Community Development Journal,* Vol. 31 No.(3), pp. 260-264, doi: 10.1093/cdj/31.3.260.

Scull, S. and , & Cuthill, M. (2010), “. Engaged outreach: using community engagement to facilitate access to higher education for people from low socio-economic backgrounds”, . *Higher Education Research & Development,* Vol. 29 No. (1), pp. 59-74, doi: 10.1080/07294360903421368..

Seikkula-Leino, J., Ruskovaara, E., Ikavalko, M., Mattila, J. and, & Rytkola, T. (2010), “Promoting entrepreneurship education: the role of the teacher?”,. *Education + training*, Vol. 52 No. (2), pp. 117-127, doi: 10.1108/00400911011027716.

Solomon, G. (2007), “. An examination of entrepreneurship education in the United States”, . *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development,* Vol. 14 No. (2), pp. 168-182, doi: 10.1108/14626000710746637..

Spitzer, H. and& Twikirize, J. M. (2013), .“ War-affected children in northern Uganda: No easy path to normality”, . *International Social Work,* Vol. 56 No. 1(1), pp. 67-79, doi: 10.1177/0020872812459067.

Sydow, A., Cannatelli, B. L., Giudici, A., and& Molteni, M. (2022),. “Entrepreneurial workaround practices in severe institutional voids: Evidence from Kenya”. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 46 No. (2), pp. 331-367, doi: 10.1177/1042258720929891.

Thomassen, M. L., Williams Middleton, K., Ramsgaard, M. B., Neergaard, H. and, & Warren, L. (2020),. “Conceptualizing context in entrepreneurship education: a literature review”,. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research,* Vol. 26 No. (5), pp. 863-886, doi: 10.1108/IJEBR-04-2018-0258.

Toutain, O., Fayolle, A., Pittaway, L. and , & Politis, D. (2017), “. Role and impact of the environment on entrepreneurial learning”, . *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development,* Vol. 29 No. 9-10, pp. (9-10), 869-888, doi: 10.1080/08985626.2017.1376517.

Vallejo, B., and& Wehn, U. (2016), “. Capacity development evaluation: The challenge of the results agenda and measuring return on investment in the global south”,. *World Development,* Vol. 79, pp. 1-13, doi: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2015.10.044.

Verduijn, K. and , & Berglund, K. (2020), “. Pedagogical invention in entrepreneurship education: Adopting a critical approach in the classroom”, . *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research,* Vol. 26 No. (5), pp. 973-988, doi: 10.1108/IJEBR-04-2018-0274.

Walmsley, A. and , & Wraae, B. (2022),. "Entrepreneurship education but not as we know it: Reflections on the relationship between Critical Pedagogy and Entrepreneurship Education", . *The International Journal of Management Education,* Vol. 20 No. (3), pp. 1-11, doi: 10.1016/j.ijme.2022.100726 100726.

Welter, F. (2011),. "Contextualizing entrepreneurship—conceptual challenges and ways forward", . *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 35 No. 1(1), pp. 165-184, doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2010.00427.x.

Welter, F., Baker, T. and, & Wirsching, K. (2019), ". Three waves and counting: The rising tide of contextualization in entrepreneurship research", . *Small Business Economics, Vol. 52*, pp. 319-330, doi: 10.1007/s11187-018-0094-5..

World Bank. (2019),. *The World Bank Annual Report 2019: Ending Poverty, Investing in Opportunity*, World Bank Group, Washington DC. .

Wraae, B., Brush, C. and, & Nikou, S. (2021), ". The Entrepreneurship Educator: Understanding Role Identity", . *Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy, Vol. 5 No.* (1), pp. 3-35, doi: 10.1177/2515127420979662..

Wraae, B., & and Walmsley, A. (2020), ". Behind the scenes: spotlight on the entrepreneurship educator", . *Education + Training*, Vol. 62 No. (3), pp. 255-270, doi: 10.1108/ET-01-2019-0009.