

Promoting Women Empowerment for Inclusive and Sustainable Industrial Development in the Middle East and North Africa region

A study on women entrepreneurship development in Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia



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TABLE OF ACRONYMS

CAWTAR	CENTER OF ARAB WOMAN FOR TRAINING AND RESEARCH
GEM	GLOBAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP MONITOR
ILO	INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION
MENA	MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH-AFRICA
MOOC	MASSIVE OPEN ONLINE COURSES
OECD	ORGANIZATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT
UNESCO	UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANIZATION
UNIDO	UNITED NATIONS INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION
WB	WORLD BANK



Promoting women's empowerment for Inclusive and Sustainable Industrial Development in the MENA region is a project implemented by the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO). The project, which is funded by the Italian government and labelled by the Union for the Mediterranean (UfM), aims to improve the economic participation of women and to thereby create the conditions for inclusive and sustainable growth in the MENA region, by making use of the strong potential of female entrepreneurs in Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia. In this regard, the project is fully in line with the recently adopted Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), specifically, SDG 1: 'End poverty in all its forms everywhere', SDG 5: 'Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls', SDG 8: 'Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all', SDG 9: 'Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation', and SDG 16: 'Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels'.

The project was born from the observation that the MENA region has the world's largest disparity between men and women in terms of entrepreneurship (OECD, 2014). According to recent data, while women own and manage between 31% and 38% of enterprises on a worldwide level, in the countries of the MENA region, this number is only 13% (ILO, 2015) to 15% (WB, 2013¹).

There is no standardised national data which would allow for a comparison of entrepreneurship in the six countries concerned here, but in 2013, it was estimated that the percen-

¹The World Bank conducted a survey of 5,887 enterprises in 10 countries in the MENA region between 2003 and 2010. The findings showed that only 15% of the enterprises belonged to women.

tage of enterprises belonging at least in part to women in the MENA region was 22.7%, compared with the worldwide average of 35.2%. In the six countries covered by the project, the rates were as follows: Egypt: 16.1%, Jordan: 15.7%, Lebanon: 43.5%, Morocco: 31.3%, West Bank and Gaza: 12.6%, and Tunisia: 49.5%. The respective figures for these countries with regard to women-run enterprises are: 7.1%, 2.4%, 4.4%, 4.3%, 1.2% and 8.5%².

With the aim of helping women to strengthen their economic independence in the six target countries, UNIDO's project was designed as a holistic approach embracing three levels of intervention:

1. On a macro level, it aims to support, facilitate and nurture the policy dialogue between the key stakeholders with the objective of producing a set of recommendations and action points endorsed by all parties to promote women entrepreneurship in the region,
2. At the meso level, the goal is to strengthen the capacities of national professional women's associations so that they are able to provide female entrepreneurs with higher-quality and demand-driven services to support the creation and growth of their enterprises, and effectively promote an environment that is more conducive to the development of women's entrepreneurship.
3. On a micro level, it promotes promising women-led investments in the target countries through training, coaching, identification and facilitation of business partnerships opportunities and access to finance.

² Source: <http://www.enterprisesurveys.org/Data/ExploreTopics/gender#middle-east-north-africa>

The implementation of the project is based on a strong partnership with six local, national associations in the countries concerned: Association for Women's Total Advancement and Development (AWTAD, Egypt), Business & Professional Women Amman (BPWA, Jordan), The Lebanese Association for Development, Al Majmoua (Lebanon), Association des Femmes Chefs d'Entreprises du Maroc (AFEM, Morocco), Business Women Forum (BWF, Palestine), Femmes et Leadership (F&L, Tunisia), and their respective ministries of industry.

A study on female entrepreneurship in the six target countries was conducted within the framework of the activities planned for the project. The aim of the study was to 1) provide an up-to-date set of information regarding the state of development of female entrepreneurship in the targeted countries; 2) identify the challenges faced by women in the creation and development of their enterprises; 3) produce recommendations for an entrepreneurial ecosystem which is more favourable to women; and 4) provide evidence-based input in support of the dialogue between public and private stakeholders.

The study was conducted on the basis of a literature review and an online survey carried out via six national partner associations. A questionnaire covering seven areas of investigation and consisting of 55 questions was developed by the Centre of Arab Woman for Training and Research (CAWTAR) in close collaboration with project partner women's associations in the countries concerned and the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO). A first iteration was conducted over August and September 2015, which collected data from approximately 400 female entrepreneurs in the target countries.

The preliminary findings of this study were summarised in a working document presented during the Conference on Women's Economic Empowerment in Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia, organised by UNIDO in Milan on 14 October 2015.

Since then, a second iteration of data collection was conducted in April and May 2016. This second wave of the survey comprised some modifications to the methodology, including a translation of the questionnaire into Arabic and the recruitment of researchers. Through this second wave, 810 additional female entrepreneurs were consulted, bringing the total number of respondents to 1,210.

A detailed analysis of the data collected was conducted in June 2016. This publication reports on that analysis.



- » This report presents and analyses data gathered from 1,210 women entrepreneurs in 6 MENA countries: Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Tunisia, Morocco and Palestine. The survey questionnaire was conducted on-line, through six women's associations in the countries included in the study. Both in scale and approach, the study distinguishes itself as original and informative.
- » The findings of the analysis are evident, relevant and have given rise to a series of recommendations that can guide public policy and stakeholder strategies toward promoting and developing women's entrepreneurship so that it can extend into the long-term and create economic and social wealth.
- » This is true even where the work sample is affected by certain selection and representativeness biases due to the presence of specific features of those women's professional associations who organised the administration of the questionnaire.

ABOUT THE WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS SURVEYED

- » The women entrepreneurs in the sample tend to be young (age 40, on average), for the most part university graduates, with the exception of the Lebanese, and have around 10 years of experience in their entrepreneurial activities. The vast majority founded their own businesses (between 65% and 83%), or took over their family businesses as leaders.
- » The respondents' entrepreneurial motives were positive in the sense that they arose from identified business opportunities, from a yearning for personal achievement, independence or freedom, or from a recognition of their own qualifications and skills. The Lebanese respondents reported more

negative motives, for example in many cases, the decision to become an entrepreneur stemmed from the need to escape a challenging personal situation.

- » The respondents dedicate a great deal of time to their businesses, the average work week ranging, for the majority, from 30 to 50 hours. 39% of the women entrepreneurs from Lebanon and 31% of those from Tunisia spend more than 50 hours per week at managing their businesses. According to the survey results, such levels of engagement do not have a negative impact on family life.
- » Generally speaking, the surveyed women entrepreneurs do not receive regular remuneration from their businesses, and often report having to turn to other sources of paid activity to supplement their income. Two groups of countries emerged on this aspect: those in which respondents were most likely to seek supplementary income, Jordan (49.3%), Egypt (46.9%) and Palestine (42.5%) and those in which they did so much less frequently: Lebanon (17.1%), Tunisia (22.8%) and Morocco (27.5%).
- » The women entrepreneurs in the sample reported in the vast majority that they benefit from support in their entrepreneurial activities primarily through family and, to a lesser degree, through friends and colleagues. Associations and financial institutions also contribute to this support, though to a far more modest degree, except in Morocco and Lebanon (resulting, in the latter country, from the partner association's focus on micro-credit).
- » 25 to 50% of the respondents had opportunities to work with mentors and all benefited from support or assistance in solving problems and developing needed skills.

THE DISTINCTIVE CHARACTERISTICS AND OBJECTIVES OF WOMEN-OWNED BUSINESSES

- » The businesses run by women entrepreneurs operate mainly in the services, merchant and craft sectors. A small percentage is involved in the manufacturing industries and agriculture.
- » The share of individual businesses is relatively low (between 50% of Moroccan businesses and 9% of Tunisian businesses).
- » These businesses' governance structures and number of shareholders are tightly correlated to their size. The shareholder structure is primarily family-based.
- » A significant percentage of the women entrepreneurs' work in Palestine (46.67%) and in Egypt (29.94%) is home-based.
- » The main obstacles to entrepreneurship cited by the women entrepreneurs in the sample are, by order of importance, lack of financing, lack of experience, and lack of contacts. In some countries (Egypt, Jordan, Palestine), these obstacles are felt even more acutely.
- » In their start-up stage, these businesses are financed primarily using equity, with significant differences between Egypt (80.8%) and Jordan (58.6%). It is in the latter that women entrepreneurs most frequently call upon business angels (22.6%). Significant use is also made of bank credit, with sharply contrasting situations between Morocco (46.5%), and Tunisia (34.6%) on the one hand and, Palestine (14.8%) on the other hand, where receiving bank credit during the start-up phase appears to be more of a challenge.
- » The average number of people employed by the businesses

of the women entrepreneurs in the sample ranges from 2.03 (Lebanon) to 9.37 (Morocco). These figures can be explained by the strong focus on micro-credit of the Lebanese association that took part in the survey and by the high percentage of family-run businesses in the Moroccan sample.

- » The businesses represented in the survey have limited exports of their products, except for Tunisian businesses of which 20% have export levels exceeding 50%. A large percentage of businesses do not have any operations in export: Morocco (74.36%), Lebanon (69.38%) and Palestine (64.74%).
- » Obstacles to growth are connected, generally, with access to capital, recruitment, access to new markets and international markets and, in certain countries, to political conditions (Jordan, Lebanon, Palestine and Tunisia), the cost of public services (Jordan, Palestine, and Tunisia), or the lack of economic growth (Lebanon, Palestine and Tunisia).
- » The short-term objectives of the women entrepreneurs in the sample focus their business goals on growth and expansion, albeit with differences between countries. Women entrepreneurs in Morocco, Tunisia and Palestine, for instance, list one-year objectives that are more strongly focused on recruitment, capital increase and market share abroad than those of respondents from the other three countries.
- » Where recruitment is concerned, the women entrepreneurs questioned had a relatively strong preference for hiring women and qualified employees with professional skills.
- » During the months leading up to the survey, the main sources of financing included self-financing, equity funds (savings, family, friends) and bank credit, with variations, to a certain extent, by country. For instance, self-financing is signifi-



cant in Jordan, Tunisia, Lebanon and Morocco, while bank credit is extensively used in Morocco. In Lebanon, 23.3% of the women entrepreneurs surveyed turn to pawnbrokers.

PERCEPTIONS ABOUT WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN CONTEXT

- » Between 20% (Egypt) and 40% (Lebanon) of women entrepreneurs in the sample feel that their environment is discriminatory toward women. However, fewer than 13% of Tunisians shared that perception.
- » Along the same lines, a small majority of respondents (though more than 78% in Tunisia) felt that support provided to women entrepreneurs is the same as that provided to men. This feeling was less strongly shared in Lebanon (46.99%) and in Palestine (47.22%).
- » The factors that affect the businesses of women entrepreneurs in the sample most negatively are the regulatory environment, followed by laws and public order.
- » Access to financing is more difficult for women, according to a large percentage of respondents. This perception is more prominent in Lebanon, Tunisia, Jordan and Morocco, and much less so in Egypt.
- » Women entrepreneurs in the sample feel that it is more difficult to be taken seriously as a women in business. Having to manage male employees, achieving work-life balance and effectively dealing with the administration are also seen as challenges specific to women.
- » The way respondents assess their own skills compared to those of men show that they perceive themselves as less

skilled when it comes to international communication, networking, delegation, consulting and decision-making. In contrast, they see themselves as more competent in influencing others, solving problems, providing support, handling remuneration and inspiring. There are visible differences between the Egyptians, Jordanians and Lebanese, on the one hand, and the Moroccans, Palestinians and Tunisians on the other hand. The women entrepreneurs from the latter group appear to be more confident in their skills than those from the former.

- » Barriers to entrepreneurship, observed by the women entrepreneurs surveyed, lie in the existence of stereotypes and preconceptions about the role and ability of women and the inability of political and economic leaders to grant positions with major responsibilities to women.
- » According to respondents, in order to succeed, women must learn to manage themselves and manage others successfully. They also require recognised experience in their field and need to maximise their entrepreneurial skills.

CRITICAL FACTORS FOR THE SURVIVAL AND EXPANSION OF BUSINESSES CREATED AND HEADED BY WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN THE SAMPLE

- » Women entrepreneurs with a university degree have a higher number of employees than those who did not benefit from the same education. However, the percentage of women employed is higher when the female entrepreneur is single and a non-university graduate.
- » The longer women have been entrepreneurs, the larger their

businesses; however, that same experience in business is negatively correlated with the percentage of women employed in the business.

- » It follows from the above that higher education is a factor that is conducive to business expansion and job creation and that women are more likely to employ other women when they have modest expansion aspirations and when they have neither been enrolled in university education nor received any other higher education.
- » When businesses are managed by multiple shareholders, the percentage of women employees is always higher when the business leaders are women.
- » The positive discrimination toward women at the time of hiring, which emerges from the above, is probably more a result of the difficulties women face managing male employees, as confirmed to a certain extent by the survey, rather than a reflection of solidarity between women.
- » Business size also depends on governance structure. The family run businesses managed by women are markedly smaller than those with male-female or male governance.
- » Family run businesses in the sample are also larger in size compared to newly founded businesses, in particular those in the industrial and agricultural sectors.
- » Family run businesses export more, on average, than do newly founded businesses. One's network also influences performance in terms of export. The women entrepreneurs who post the lowest numbers in terms of export are those without a network and without a university degree.
- » The effect of the network on export plays a particularly signi-

ficant role for less educated women entrepreneurs without a university degree. Next, the family network proves most decisive for them.

- » On average, among married women, educated women grant themselves remuneration more than less educated women, while among single women, those who are less educated grant themselves remuneration more regularly than do women with a university degree.
- » There appears to be a connection between the involvement of women entrepreneurs in association networks and business performance, in terms of their ability to generate regular income for their leaders. Involvement in association networks can not only help businesses expand, but they can also be the reflection of more pronounced entrepreneurial engagement on the part of these female entrepreneurs.
- » Educated women entrepreneurs have greater growth aspirations in terms of hiring, capital increase and increase in export than do less educated women. Stated aims are higher on average when the woman is single. This can reflect the fact that single women are more inclined to take the risks inherent to grow compared to married women.
- » Women with a university degree work more for their businesses than do women without degrees. In addition, single women work an average of two hours more per week compared to their married counterparts.
- » Paradoxically, whereas women entrepreneurs with university degrees are more involved in their entrepreneurial activities and perform better, one out of every two educated women also maintains another salaried activity, a characteristic that clearly sets them apart from their less educated counterparts.



- » Home-based working women entrepreneurs in the sample are, in the majority, less engaged in their businesses, and continue to hold supplementary work on the side.
- » The women most engaged in their businesses are those who are married and have their own premises to host their entrepreneurial activities. Single women who are less educated and are sole shareholders to their businesses also post very high levels of engagement.
- » There are also different levels of engagement depending on the firm's type of financing. Single women entrepreneurs are more engaged when they have taken out bank credit, while married women are more engaged when they have financed their businesses using equity capital.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING THE INFORMATION SYSTEM ON WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN MENA COUNTRIES

- » Set up a dynamic assessment tool for women's entrepreneurship. A GEM specifically designed for women's entrepreneurship and MENA countries could become a tool that offers, over time and across space, multiple opportunities to compare and track the development of the trend. The creation of an "Observatory on Women's Entrepreneurship in the MENA Countries" could also prove beneficial.
- » In each of these scenarios, the programmes could be financed by the countries involved as well as by international partner institutions. The programmes could include all stakeholders: the public authorities, women's associations, university research laboratories, international institutions, etc.

- » The programmes would encourage and facilitate the production of knowledge (research, theses, etc.) relating to women's entrepreneurship, by guiding work on major subjects of concern resulting from the regular surveys taken.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROMOTING WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND FACILITATING ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOURS AMONG WOMEN

- » Communicate, via the media, about women's entrepreneurship, its contributions and the roles of women in MENA countries. One series of measures could consist, for instance, of communications (including poster campaigns) that give exposure to women entrepreneur role models and show that starting a business has become an easy (or at least easier) undertaking for women.
- » Adjust institutional frameworks to make them more appropriate for women's entrepreneurship, especially in terms of securing access to financing, hiring qualified employees and gaining access to specific markets (public, major corporations, international)
- » Develop and assess the effectiveness of teaching about entrepreneurship in schools and universities. Design and implement women specific programmes at all levels of the educational system, in particular drawing on new technologies (e.g., MOOCs). Develop training and qualification programmes about entrepreneurship for teachers. Aim to achieve multiple targets: awareness raising, skills acquisition, and the development of new behaviours. Develop tools and programmes to measure the impact of this teaching.

- » Target public policies by situation (founding a business, taking over a business, taking succession of a family business, growth vs. necessity entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship, organisational entrepreneurship, rural entrepreneurship, etc.) and profile (youth/seniors, educated/less educated, scientific, engineers and researchers, job-seekers, disadvantaged populations, etc.).

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ESTABLISHING THE CONDITIONS NEEDED FOR LONG-TERM, WEALTH-CREATING WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP

- » Foster access to entrepreneurial "know-how" for women and at the same time make universities more "entrepreneurial". Develop public-private partnerships focused on entrepreneurship. Design and set up, at universities, training programmes focused on the main needs of women entrepreneurs and aimed at developing their entrepreneurial skills by giving priority to experience-based learning. Qualitatively develop the support provided to businesses by creating spaces specially dedicated to them and appropriate structures: incubators, seed company clusters, entrepreneurship centres for women. Design and implement support programmes in accordance with the project dynamics and profiles of women entrepreneurs. Develop training and qualifying programmes for those providing support so that they are better "equipped" when facing the wide range of issues and complexity inherent in support situations.
- » Gear women's entrepreneurship toward industrial sectors and sectors with high added value. Concentrate on female

doctoral candidates, female engineering school and technological university students, offering them learning programmes specifically focused on technological and industrial research. Target female laboratory researchers and organise research promotion initiatives building upon entrepreneurial activities. Connect women who wish to become entrepreneurs but who have not yet identified opportunities with invention patent banks, research laboratories and projects that are "dormant" in companies.

- » Build or reinforce entrepreneurial ecosystems at the local level. These ecosystems could involve all local stakeholders and draw upon, in a significant way, the strengths, resources and characteristics of the urban or rural territories.

METHODOLOGY OF THE SURVEY

Women's entrepreneurship is a key topic on both political and academic agendas. The phenomenon and its development are of concern to political decision-makers in most countries, at a time when women are laying claim to the ability to enjoy—under the same conditions as men—professional status in line with their qualifications, either as salaried employees or entrepreneurs. From the academic standpoint, research on the topic has expanded considerably over the past few years, in an attempt to better understand women's entrepreneurship, in particular its precursors and economic and social repercussions.

This report presents the results of a survey taken on a sample of women entrepreneurs, conducted between Summer 2015 and Spring 2016, in six countries of the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region: Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia.

The survey questionnaire was developed by the Centre of Arab Woman for Training and Research (CAWTAR), in close conjunction with women's professional associations in the relevant countries and the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO). In addition to the quantitative data, the questionnaire was designed to put emphasis on women's voices and perceptions, giving them a central place throughout the entire process of data collection and analysis.

The conceptual questions that guided the formulation of the questionnaire were the following:

- » Who are MENA women entrepreneurs? How do they perceive themselves as women entrepreneurs? What motivated them to become entrepreneurs? What are the economic sectors they are investing in? How do they balance managing a business and coping with family responsibilities?
- » What do women perceive as being the most important legal, regulatory (and other) constraints in the business environment as entrepreneurs? What are the major challenges women face in the creation and development of their enterprises? What kind of support do they expect from governments, associations, BDS and other relevant stakeholders?
- » To what extent are financial and business services used and suitable for women, considering the existing country-specific gender constraints: cultural barriers/lack of women's mobility,

time constraints, etc.? What investment challenges and opportunities do women face?

- » How do they perceive their abilities as women entrepreneurs in comparison with men? How do culture and social norms affect women entrepreneurship in the country?
- » Do women in the MENA region advocate for their rights? Are women empowered as groups and have their voices been able to influence decision-making? Does the coordination mechanism that ensures dialogue within women's associations function well? If not, what can be done to strengthen women's associations and networking and to enhance dialogue within and among those groups as well as between women's groups and decision makers? How can leadership be fostered among women's representatives?

In order to achieve a comprehensive picture of the status of women entrepreneurs in the MENA region, the survey covered seven interconnected areas through 55 questions:

- » **Personal and business characteristics that distinguish women business owners**
- » **Social norms and perspectives**
- » **Optimism and outlook for business growth**
- » **Membership in associations and networking**
- » **The business environment: government policies, regulations and laws**
- » **Institutional support and access to credit and financial services**
- » **BDS, technology, mentoring, counselling and training**

Taking into account the lack of reliable and standardized data on the female entrepreneur population in the target countries, a non-probability quota sampling method has been adopted and the objective of 200 women entrepreneurs to be surveyed per country has been set. The retained definition for woman entrepreneur has been the following « *a woman who has, alone or with one or more partners, started up, bought or inherited a business, is assuming the related financial, administrative and social risks and responsibilities and is participating in the firm's day-to-day management* » (Lavoie 1988)³.

³ LAVOIE, D. 1988. Women entrepreneurs: Building a stronger Canadian Economy. Ottawa : Canadian Advisory Council on the status of Women, 64 p.

The questionnaire was conducted on-line via the Survey-Monkey platform, through six women's associations in the countries included in the study: *the Association for Women's Total Advancement and Development* (Egypt), *Business and Professional Women Amman* (Jordan), *Lebanese Association for Development, Al Majmoua* (Lebanon), *Association des Femmes Chefs d'Entreprises du Maroc* (Morocco), *Business Women Forum* (Palestine), *Femmes Et Leadership* (Tunisia).

The analyses shown in this report are based on the 1,210 questionnaires completed and suited for use, divided up between the countries as follows:

Egypt:	177 women respondents
Jordan:	203 women respondents
Lebanon:	210 women respondents
Morocco:	204 women respondents
Palestine:	214 women respondents
Tunisia:	202 women respondents

We are thankful to the associations who partnered for this achievement, for all the work they completed to collect this data, by calling upon and rallying the women entrepreneurs from their networks. The conclusions drawn from this material will help bring to light the situation of women entrepreneurs in these six MENA countries.

However, the respondents in each country should not be considered representative samples of the women entrepreneur populations in this country. Consequently, it is important to keep in mind that the results shown and commented on here pertain first and foremost to the survey respondents and not to all women entrepreneurs in the countries studied.

The partner associations in particular contacted members of their own networks who, in some cases, matched relatively typified profiles of women entrepreneurs⁴.

⁴ The Lebanese association, for instance, is heavily focused on micro-credit, and as a result it tends to support those women who have created their own jobs and/or developed micro-businesses. The other associations contacted women entrepreneurs with markedly different profiles.

We will come back to these aspects of methodology and survey organisation in the section on recommendations, which will focus on ways to improve on the data collection stage in order to make it more reliable.

In terms of methodology, data were analysed using STATA software. We proceeded by running multiple types of analysis:

- » basic descriptive analyses of the variables characterizing women entrepreneurs, their motivations, their degree of engagement and their businesses;
- » multivariate analysis in an attempt to identify the factors determining the survival and development of these businesses. The latter analyses made it possible for us to better control for possible bias.

This report contains the introductory chapter and three additional chapters. Chapter II sets out the characteristics of the women entrepreneurs in the sample, their motivations and the profile of the businesses they head. The following chapter analyses the factors determining the survival and development of businesses headed by the women entrepreneurs surveyed, crossing variables in an attempt to explain entrepreneurial performance. The final chapter, based on the study results and analyses produced offers a series of recommendations to improve women's entrepreneurship in the six MENA countries considered in this work.

PROFILES OF THE WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS SURVEYED, PERCEPTIONS AND BUSINESS CHARACTERISTICS

II.1. SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES

II.1.1 AGE OF RESPONDENTS

The average age is between 35.11 (Egypt) and 42.74 (Tunisia). Respondents were relatively young, as entrepreneurship is an activity undertaken for the most part between the ages of 30 and 35.

II.1.2 FAMILY STATUS

In most of the countries in the sample, the share of women entrepreneurs who are married is in the range of 55 to 60%, peaking in Jordan (64.36%) and reflecting a low in Egypt (38.82%), a country in which the percentage of single women entrepreneurs is by far the highest (51.18%). Generally speaking, the percentage of single women entrepreneurs in the countries' samples varies between 24 and 30%. It should be noted, in three out of the six countries, that divorced women account for more than 10% of the population observed (Morocco: 14.36%; Lebanon: 12.02%; Tunisia: 11.44%).

The average number of children was greater than 2 in three countries: Palestine (3.14), Lebanon (2.77) and Jordan (2.37). It is lowest in Egypt (1.43), where it appears to be consistent with the percentage of single women in the sample of women entrepreneurs in the country. In all sub-samples, the average number of children is significantly lower than the average number of children across the population (source: World Bank), except Lebanon (2.77 vs. 1.7).

II.1.3 EDUCATION

The women entrepreneurs in the sample, across all six countries, generally have a high level of education. However, a number of variations can be observed between Egypt, where 92.4% of the women entrepreneurs surveyed have a university education, and Lebanon, a country in which only 32.35% of the individuals in the sample have reached that level of education.

In the latter country, 34.31% of women entrepreneurs have received secondary education and 16.18% technical training. Also with high numbers are the women entrepreneurs who have been enrolled in technical education in the samples in Morocco (27.36%) and Tunisia (19.8%).

It should be noted that the differences in levels of education are not the reflection of major variations in the MENA countries, but rather in the sample structures. When comparing UNESCO figures on the percentage of educated women enrolled in tertiary education in MENA countries, with the percentage observed in this sample, significant differences emerge. In Egypt and Jordan, educated women entrepreneurs in the sample (92.44% and 80.1%) are over-represented compared to the average percentage of educated women having been enrolled in tertiary education in the said countries (52.08% and 48.41%). In contrast, in Lebanon, the population of non-educated entrepreneurs is particularly large when compared to the average number of women enrolled in tertiary education in those countries, according to UNESCO data. These differences reflect a sampling bias in the data gathered. The results shown in this report consequently reflect the standing of women entrepreneurs surveyed in these countries. We interpret these relations as being indicative of the standing of women in our sample, without generalising about all women entrepreneurs in MENA countries.

TABLE 2: LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

	Education (% of respondents)				Share of women having been enrolled in tertiary education (source: UNESCO)
	Primary	Secondary	Technical	University	
Egypt	1.16	5.81	0.58	92.44	52.08
Jordan	4.48	11.94	3.48	80.1	48.41
Lebanon	17.16	34.31	16.18	32.35	55.74
Morocco	1	5.47	27.36	66.17	46.28
Palestine	1.91	17.7	11	69.38	58.52
Tunisia	3.47	19.31	19.8	57.43	64.32

Note: UNESCO data: Egypt (2013), Jordan (2011), Lebanon (2010), Morocco (2010), Palestine (2011), Tunisia (2011)

TABLE 1: SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

	Age	Average number of children	Fertility rate (World Bank)	Marital status (% of respondents)			
				Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed
Egypt	35.11	1.43	3.3	51.18	38.82	7.65	2.35
Jordan	42.24	2.37	3.4	26.73	64.36	5.45	3.47
Lebanon	41.73	2.77	1.7	27.4	55.29	12.02	5.29
Morocco	41.82	1.62	2.5	24.26	58.42	14.36	2.97
Palestine	38.18	3.14	4.2	30.43	59.42	4.83	5.31
Tunisia	42.74	1.92	2.1	23.88	59.7	11.44	4.98

Note: The fertility rate is defined as the average number of children per woman, as provided by the World Bank (2014)

II.2 THE BUSINESSES

II.2.1 REGISTRATION

In three out of five countries, nearly 80% or more of the businesses founded had been officially registered (Jordan: 79.55%; Tunisia: 89.5%; Morocco: 95.92%). Palestine (67.88%) and Egypt (61.67%) come in behind. Lebanon, where 39.51% of the businesses had been officially registered, posts the highest percentage of informal women's entrepreneurship observed in the sample. These results obviously pertain only to the population surveyed and are not representative of the situations in each of the countries.

TABLE 3: PERCENTAGE OF BUSINESSES REGISTERED

Egypt	61.67
Jordan	79.55
Lebanon	39.51
Morocco	95.92
Palestine	67.88
Tunisia	89.5

II.2.2 TYPES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Creating a new business appears to be the most characteristic behaviour for the majority of women entrepreneurs in the survey, with Jordan posting the highest figure (83.16%) and Tunisia the lowest (64.29%). Taking over the family enterprise is the second characteristic entrepreneurial behaviour chosen by women entrepreneurs, as illustrated by the figures from Morocco (20%), Palestine (16.75%) and Lebanon (15.76%). This outcome is not surprising in cases where the family is central to the social and economic fabric of the country.

TABLE 4: FORMS OF FEMALE ENTREPRENEURSHIP (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	New business	Family business
Egypt	79.38	15.00
Jordan	83.16	10.71
Lebanon	75.37	15.76
Morocco	66.50	20.00
Palestine	77.49	16.75
Tunisia	64.29	13.78

TABLE 5: BUSINESSES BY SECTOR (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	SECTOR				
	Agriculture	Manufacturing Industries	Services	Trade	Craft
Egypt	1.60	18.4	26.4	13.6	40.00
Jordan	2.60	11.04	44.16	22.73	19.48
Lebanon	4.06	10.15	23.86	48.73	13.20
Morocco	3.11	11.92	48.19	26.42	10.36
Palestine	3.85	9.34	22.53	14.29	50.00
Tunisia	14.81	13.76	32.8	13.76	24.87

II.2.3 SECTORS

The women entrepreneurs in our sample established their companies primarily in the services, trade and craft sectors, often with significant differences across countries.

In Tunisia, for instance, the agricultural sector (14.81%) is more heavily represented among surveyed women than in any other country. As for manufacturing industries, Egypt (18.4%) and, to a lesser degree, Tunisia (13.76%) top the list. In the services sector, Morocco (48.19%) and Jordan (44.16%) are in the lead. In Lebanon, women entrepreneurs are heavily involved in trade (48.73%), while in the craft sector, Palestine (50%), Egypt (40%) and Tunisia (24.87%) are the stand-out countries.

Overall, only Tunisia exhibits a relatively well-balanced portfolio, with positions ranging from 13.76% (manufacturing and trade industries) to 32.8% (services), in each of the service areas analysed. In the other countries, businesses run by women tend to be concentrated in certain sectors. This is true in Egypt, with craft (40%), Jordan with services (44.16%), Lebanon with trade (48.73%), Morocco with services (48.19%), and Palestine with craft (50%). Agriculture related activities are under-represented in the sample, which seems to emphasise the latter's extremely urban nature.

II.2.4 OWNERSHIP STRUCTURES

Besides the women entrepreneurs surveyed, other shareholders participate in the ownership structures of the businesses in the sample. There too, differences emerge between countries. While Egypt (3.34 additional owners, on average) and Jordan (2.2) are the countries where the number of owners is highest, in the four other countries, the average number of owners is 2 to 4 times lower: Morocco (0.77), Lebanon (0.94), Palestine (1.14) and Tunisia (1.18). The ownership structure and number of shareholders is correlated with business size, as demonstrated in Chart 6a.



TABLE 6: BUSINESS OWNERSHIP STRUCTURE

	Percentage of businesses	Number of Owners	Business ownership structure (% of respondents)				
	Multi-shareholder		Institutions	Family-owned	Foreign investors	Male	Female
Egypt	81.92	3.34	19.00	53.00	2.00	52.00	62.00
Jordan	59.11	2.21	23.70	48.40	14.40	62.80	45.30
Lebanon	72.86	0.94	5.30	66.10	5.30	53.50	39.30
Morocco	50.00	0.77	6.60	71.40	4.40	64.80	35.20
Palestine	71.50	1.14	18.80	67.70	5.50	38.80	58.80
Tunisia	91.30	1.18	8.10	67.40	10.50	65.10	50.00

Note: Governance membership is measured by the number of positive responses out of the total number of respondents operating more than one shareholder. The total can exceed 100% as some firms' shareholder structure includes men and women, as well as foreigners and family members and/or institutional players. The column listing the number of owners specifies the number of owners in addition to the person surveyed.

In the majority of cases, the other business shareholders in the sample are family members. In Lebanon, Morocco, Palestine and Tunisia, approximately 70% of respondents with ownership structures consisting of multiple shareholders are family members. In Egypt and Jordan, ownership structure does not rest solely with families, with 19% and 23.7% of women entrepreneurs, respectively, working with institutional partners. Businesses in Jordan and Tunisia are the ones in which foreign investments are the most highly represented (14% and 10% of respondents, respectively). The other businesses in the sample had few foreign shareholders.

The gender of the partners involved also varied by country. In Egypt and Palestine, the majority of shareholders are women (62% and 58.8%, respectively). In contrast, in Jordan, Morocco and Tunisia, partners are for the most part men (62.8%, 64.8% and 65.1% respectively). In Lebanon, the gender make-up is balanced between men and women, taking into consideration the non-response rate.

There is a positive correlation between business size and governance. The higher the number of workers employed by a business, the higher the number of shareholders. This finding is particularly significant in Morocco.

TABLE 6A: CORRELATION BETWEEN BUSINESS SIZE AND GOVERNANCE

Country	Correlation between business size and governance
Egypt	0.0383
Jordan	0.0363
Lebanon	0.2116
Morocco	0.5570*
Palestine	0.1859
Tunisia	0.1592

II.2.5 START-UP FINANCING

Unsurprisingly, start-up capital comes from equity capital, informally referred to as the *Three Fs (Family, Friends, Fools)*, with significant differences observed between Egypt (80.8%) and Jordan (58.6%). The latter is the country in which women entrepreneurs most frequently call upon business angels (22.6%) and make significant use of bank credit (28.1%). It should be noted that women entrepreneurs in Morocco (46.5%) and Tunisia (34.6%) are the ones in the sample who most frequently make use of bank credit in contrast with Palestine (14.1%), a country where it appears difficult to secure bank credit, at least in the early years of the start-up.

TABLE 7: START-UP FINANCING (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Bank credit	Business Angels	Equity capital
Egypt	11.3	4.5	80.8
Jordan	28.1	22.6	58.6
Lebanon	25.2	12.8	64.7
Morocco	46.5	2.4	70.5
Palestine	14.1	10.7	76.1
Tunisia	34.6	7.9	75.2

II.2.6 STATUS OF PREMISES

The premises used for business activities can be the women entrepreneur's property, be rented (or co-rented), or combined with the private home. The percentage of women entrepreneurs owning their business premises is higher in Morocco (46.35%), in Tunisia (33.67%) and in Lebanon (33%). Rental is the preponderant strategy in Jordan (64.5%), in Tunisia (53.27%) and in Lebanon (52.22%). Lastly, more women entrepreneurs are home-based in Palestine (46.67%) and in Egypt (29.94%). This finding can be linked with the mobility issues listed as a major obstacle to entrepreneurship by 37.9% of Palestinians (see Table 19).

TABLE 8: CHARACTERISTICS OF BUSINESS PREMISES (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Owned	Leased	Home	Co-leased
Egypt	24.2	40.13	29.94	5.73
Jordan	18	61	17.5	3.5
Lebanon	33	51.23	14.78	0.99
Morocco	46.35	37.5	12.5	3.65
Palestine	15.9	36.41	46.67	1.03
Tunisia	33.67	50.25	13.07	3.02

II.2.7 NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES

The average number of people employed by businesses run by women entrepreneurs in the sample varies between 2.03 (Lebanon) and 9.37 (Morocco). With the exception of Lebanon, the average number of employees is greater than 6, which is significant, considering the surveyed companies' number of years in the business, on average, between 6.32 and 9.37 years (see

following item). This difference can be explained by the number of employees being far higher in family-owned businesses than in newly founded businesses. For instance, the average number of employees in Morocco amounted to 15 in family owned businesses and to only 5.92 in newly founded businesses. The size gap disparity between newly founded businesses and family owned businesses is also noteworthy in Palestine (4.44 as compared to 11.11) and in Egypt (5.47 as compared to 13.95), but far less noticeable in Jordan (7.69 as compared to 8.22), Tunisia (7.75 and 7.03) and Lebanon (2.00 and 2.04). Lebanon's results can be attributed to the fact that the women surveyed in Lebanon are, for the most part, entrepreneurs with access to micro-credit, relevant primarily to very small enterprises.

TABLE 9: NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Average	Newly found-ed business	Family business	Percentage of women
Egypt	6.71	5.47	13.95	0.575
Jordan	7.68	7.69	8.22	0.609
Lebanon	2.03	2.00	2.04	0.821
Morocco	9.37	5.92	15.00	0.625
Palestine	6.32	4.44	11.51	0.731
Tunisia	8.89	7.75	7.03	0.632

Note: Statistics apply to businesses with fewer than 50 employees

The proportion of women in these headcount numbers, ranging from 57.5% (Egypt) to 82.1% (Lebanon), tends to show that women entrepreneurs primarily hire women.

II.2.8 NUMBER OF YEARS IN THE BUSINESS

On average, the women entrepreneurs in the sample have lengthy experience in their business. Between the two extremes, Palestine (6.96 years), Egypt (7.21 years) and Jordan (11.47 years), average experience in the business is around 10 years. With this experience, women entrepreneurs are quite capable of starting and even consolidating their firm's development.

II.2.9 BUSINESS CAPACITY TO PROVIDE REMUNERATION FOR ITS LEADER

In most cases, women entrepreneurs are not able to derive regular remuneration (in the form of salary) from their activities. Women entrepreneurs in Morocco are the most likely to be able to grant themselves regular remuneration (75.25%), where only 40% of the women entrepreneurs from other countries report paying themselves a regular salary.

This difficulty in securing remuneration appears to be one of the reasons why women engage in other salaried activity, as demonstrated in Table 10. Two groups of countries emerge here: on the one hand those most likely to seek supplementary income, Jordan (49.3%), Egypt (46.9%) and Palestine (42.5%) and on the other hand those that seek it markedly less, Lebanon (17.1%), Tunisia (22.8%) and Morocco (27.5%). Several hypotheses can explain the decision to turn to an alternate salaried activity. The first one is that some women with salaried employment decide to embark on entrepreneurial activities in order to supplement their income. Entrepreneurial activity then becomes a form of "back-up" entrepreneurship, which provides extra income, without being the primary activity of the women surveyed. The second hypothesis that might explain the decision to engage in another salaried activity is connected to the firm's stage of development. When a business is in a transitory stage of development, a woman may have to turn to another source of salaried activity, until her business reaches

optimal size, providing her with regular income. The third and final hypothesis is connected with the woman's role in the business. Some of the women surveyed referred to playing a "secondary" role in the family owned or newly founded business. As a result, their work in the firm did not make it possible for them to enjoy regular remuneration, and in turn they had to engage in other salaried activity. Each of these three hypotheses could become the focus of specific studies. The goal would be to determine which hypothesis matches which specific women entrepreneur profile in reality. Furthermore, the differences in entrepreneurial engagement—as measured by involvement in another salaried activity—observed across countries may have differential impacts on the growth of companies and the development of female entrepreneurship, which could be worthy of analysis in a future survey.

TABLE 10: ENTREPRENEURIAL EXPERIENCE

	Experience in the business	Regular salary	Other salaried activity
Egypt	7.21	37.42	46.89
Jordan	11.47	40.61	49.26
Lebanon	8.91	42.64	17.14
Morocco	10.57	75.25	27.45
Palestine	6.96	36.82	42.52
Tunisia	9.88	37.76	22.77

Note: entrepreneurial experience is measured as the number of years a women has spent in the business. The other variables are measured by dividing the number of respondents by the number of observations.

The following chart also highlights that women entrepreneurs without a university degree remunerate themselves more regularly compared to educated women. In Egypt, the percentage of women remunerated by their entrepreneurial activity is almost two times higher among women entrepreneurs with little education, compared to those with a university degree (66.67% compared to 35.33%).

Among educated women, the lack of regular income drawn from their entrepreneurial activity appears to be compensated by another salaried activity. Table 11 demonstrates that the percentage of women involved in another salaried activity is higher when they are educated. Educated women, in other words, do appear to engage in entrepreneurial activity alongside their salaried activity for the aforementioned reasons. For instance, in Palestine and in Egypt, nearly 50% of the women in the sample are involved in a salaried activity other than managing their own business.

TABLE 11: REGULARITY OF OWNER REMUNERATION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Regular salary		Other salaried activity	
	No university degree	University degree	No university degree	University degree
Egypt	66.67	35.33	15.38	49.69
Jordan	33.33	42.68	22.50	56.52
Lebanon	44.53	40.63	6.52	39.39
Morocco	86.57	69.70	13.24	34.59
Palestine	40.88	38.30	28.13	49.66
Tunisia	30.95	42.86	13.95	29.31

II.3

DEGREE OF ENGAGEMENT OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN THE SAMPLE AND CONSEQUENCES

II.3.1 WEEKLY WORK VOLUME

Women entrepreneurs dedicate a great deal of time to their businesses. For the majority, the average workweek ranges from 30 to 50 hours. Approximately one-fourth of Egyptian (23.84%) and Palestinian (24.35%) women dedicate less than 30 hours per week to their businesses, compared with Lebanese (8.13%) and Tunisian women (10.31%). In contrast, 39.29% of the women entrepreneurs from Lebanon and 31.44% from Tunisia spend more than 50 hours per week managing their businesses. These results are consistent with the high percentage of Palestinian women and low percentage of Lebanese women involved in salaried work alongside their entrepreneurial activity.

TABLE 12: ENTREPRENEURIAL DEDICATION (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Entrepreneurial dedication in number of hours spent working in the business		
	Less than 30 h	Between 30 and 50 h	Over 50 h
Egypt	23.84	54.97	21.19
Jordan	19.17	52.85	27.98
Lebanon	8.13	52.63	39.29
Morocco	14.85	62.38	22.77
Palestine	24.35	49.22	26.42
Tunisia	10.31	58.25	31.44

TABLE 13: PERCEIVED WORK/LIFE BALANCE (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Very positively	25.83	33.16	35.41	33.66	39.18	21.13
Positively	51.66	52.85	50.72	54.46	49.48	50
Negatively	7.28	3.63	6.22	1.98	3.61	7.73
Very negatively	0.66	1.04	0.00	0.00	1.55	2.06
No opinion	14.57	9.33	7.66	9.9	6.19	19.07

While that degree of involvement could have an impact on family life, the results show that in all countries considered, the effect was seen as positive or highly positive (between 86 and 88%, except in Egypt and Tunisia, which came in 10 and

TABLE 14: SUPPORT FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITY (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
No	22.10	25.60	24.30	11.30	14.10	21.80
Yes, from my family	55.90	49.70	53.80	48.10	57.90	55.90
Yes, from my colleagues and friends	35.60	25.60	38.60	21.10	32.70	35.60
Yes, from my association network	14.80	19.20	10.00	42.10	21.50	14.90
Yes, from financial institutions	4.90	3.40	61.90	17.10	8.90	4.90

15 points behind, respectively). Not surprisingly, the women entrepreneurs who most frequently report feeling negative or highly negative consequences are the Egyptians (8%) and Tunisians (10%). In contrast, the percentage of Moroccan women entrepreneurs reporting similar negative consequences is low (less than 2%), possibly due to the fact that they are less likely to concurrently report feeling unsupported by their network (see Table 14).

II.4

SUPPORT NETWORKS⁵

II.4.1 SUPPORT IN ACTIVITIES

The vast majority of women entrepreneurs in the sample declared that they benefited from support in their entrepreneurial activities. The women entrepreneurs in Morocco (11.3%) and Palestine (14.1%) were less likely not to receive support. For the others meanwhile, the proportion varies from 21.8% (Tunisia) to 25.6% (Jordan).

Family is the primary support network. More than 50% of women entrepreneurs, on average, cited receiving family support, with peaks in Tunisia and Egypt (56%) and in Palestine (58%).

Colleagues and friends come next, supporting the Lebanese (38.6%), Tunisian and Egyptian (35.5%) women entrepreneurs far more than the others.

The contributions of networks and professional associations are more varied, with 42.1% of Moroccan women entrepreneurs⁶ making reference to them, and only 10% of Lebanese women reporting they utilize them. This difference is due primarily to the respondents' selection bias. The Lebanese women were contacted through a micro-credit organisation, while the women from other countries in the sample were approached primarily through associations of women leaders. This selection bias is due to the high percentage of women benefiting from association support, while 62% of Lebanese women state that they turn to business centres and financial institutions, distinguishing themselves very clearly from other women entrepreneurs in the sample, who are below 9%, with the notable exception of Morocco (17.1%).

These findings reflect differing practices when it comes to the use of support networks, apart from the family, which remains the leading source of support, and for which the level of consensus is highest.

II.4.2 NETWORK AND ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP

Women entrepreneurs generally choose to be members of a

⁵ The results in this section should be interpreted with care, considering the bias resulting from the fact that the associations sent the questionnaires first to their members, then to other audiences.
⁶ This finding is probably due to the prominence of the Moroccan association, which offers multiple services.

network or a professional association, although with significant disparities across the sample.

While 86.07% of Moroccan women entrepreneurs and 68.45% of their Palestinian counterparts are members of such networks, only 17.87% of the Lebanese women entrepreneurs are in the same situation⁷. As for the others, the proportion varies from 35% (Egypt and Tunisia) and 48% (Jordan).

The average number of hours spent per week networking is generally fewer than 10 hours (Morocco: 89.16%; Tunisia: 59.46%). Some women entrepreneurs dedicate far more time to networking, in particular Tunisian women (more than 40% spend more than 10 hours on this activity), the Lebanese (approximately 38%) and the Egyptians (over 35%).

Here again, the survey findings show contrasting practices and behaviours when it comes to networking.

TABLE 15: NETWORK AND ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Member of an association network	Number of hours dedicated to network activities weekly		
		<10	10-20	>20
Egypt	35.46	64.94	31.17	3.90
Jordan	48.68	85.00	13.00	2.00
Lebanon	17.87	62.22	31.11	6.67
Morocco	86.07	89.66	9.20	1.15
Palestine	68.45	68.71	27.21	4.08
Tunisia	35.26	59.46	31.08	9.46

II.5

BUSINESS EXPANSION, ASPIRATIONS OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

II.5.1 EXPORT

The results posted by the surveyed women entrepreneurs with regard to their export activities show that their businesses

export remarkably low levels of the goods they produce. In Palestine, for instance, 64.74% of the businesses surveyed did not export at all. Morocco shows an even higher percentage (74.36%).

However, in countries such as Egypt (38%) and Jordan (36%), the businesses run by women entrepreneurs earn between 0 and 50% of their sales revenue from export. In Tunisia, 17% of the businesses in the sample report export levels in excess of 80%. This is probably due in part to the size of the domestic market and the national export strategies.

II.5.2 SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVES (ONE YEAR)

Women entrepreneurs' aims are geared toward development and growth. With the exception of Lebanon, where only 16% of respondents are planning to hire in the short-term, in the other countries, recruitment targets are high (44% in Morocco, 40% in Palestine, and 38% in Jordan).

The women entrepreneurs in the sample have also clearly stated their objectives in terms of capital increase (48% of women entrepreneurs in Tunisia, 42% in Palestine, 41% in Lebanon).

Sales revenue growth through an increase in market share is seen as a goal at the local level (56% in Palestine, 51% in Morocco). This is also true at the international level where most women entrepreneurs recorded between 20% and 30%. One noteworthy exception is Lebanon, where only 8% of respondents shared this goal. The low propensity to internationalise displayed by women entrepreneurs in Lebanon is confirmed by their limited desire to take part in international trade shows and fairs (approximately 4%) and by a lack of interest in seeking international commercial partners (5.7%).

Securing government aid is relatively important for most women entrepreneurs in the sample (from 13% to 17% of respondents, on average). Women in Lebanon (3.8%) and Morocco (6.4%) are the exception: they are 2 to 4 times less likely to report obtaining government aid as a goal.

Developing a new line of products is also one of the women entrepreneurs' goals and is reported as a key objective for 32% of the Tunisians, 30% of the Palestinians, 26% of the Jordanians, but only 14% the Lebanese in the sample⁸.

⁸ The more modest aims of the Lebanese women entrepreneurs in the sample are probably due to the fact that the women surveyed benefited from micro-credit, in contrast with other respondents.

⁷ This is probably due to the fact that the Lebanese association is a micro-credit organisation.

TABLE 16: PERCENTAGE OF EXPORT IN SALES REVENUE (% OF RESPONDENTS)

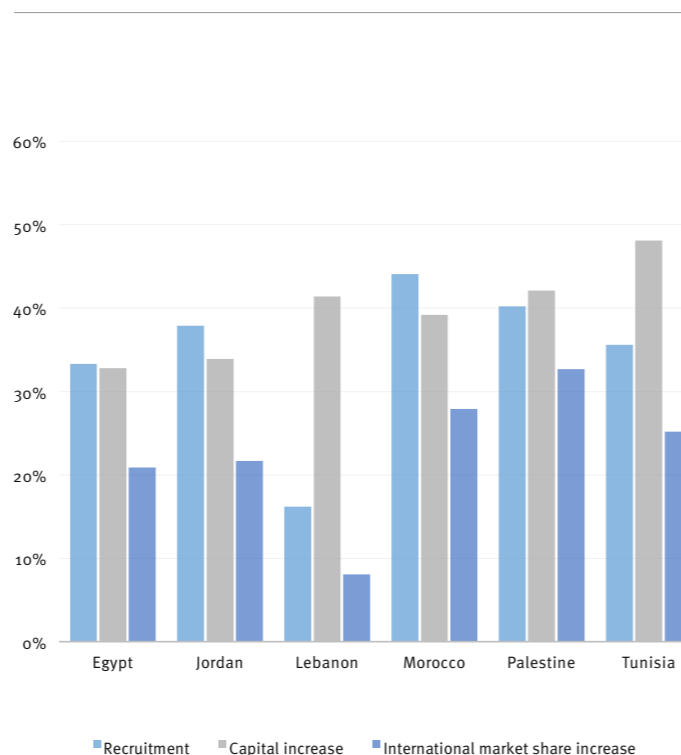
	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
0%	54.55	50.31	69.38	74.36	64.74	62.5
<20%	24.55	24.54	8.75	13.85	18.59	10.8
20-50%	13.64	12.27	8.13	7.69	9.62	6.82
50-80%	4.55	7.36	13.75	3.08	5.77	2.84
>80%	0.91	5.52	0.00	1.03	0.64	9.09
100%	1.82	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.64	7.95

TABLE 17: BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT IN THE YEARS TO COME (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Recruit	33.30	37.90	16.20	44.10	40.20	35.60
Carry out capital increase	32.80	33.90	41.40	39.20	42.10	48.10
Increase local market share	37.30	36.40	40.40	51.40	56.10	48.50
Increase international market share	20.90	21.70	8.10	27.90	32.70	25.20
Take part in local trade shows and exhibitions	23.10	19.70	18.60	19.10	50.90	39.10
Take part in international trade shows and exhibitions	14.70	21.20	4.30	18.10	40.20	25.20
Identify foreign commercial partners	9.60	15.80	5.70	17.10	21.90	18.80
Secure government assistance	12.90	16.20	3.80	6.40	17.30	15.30
Reduce headcount	0.50	1.50	1.90	0.50	2.30	1.10
Reduce capital	1.10	0.50	0.50	0.90	3.30	1.10
Maintain jobs and capital	8.50	6.90	5.70	3.90	7.90	10.90
Identify a new product line	22.60	26.20	14.30	25.40	29.90	32.10
Maintain business	5.10	8.40	5.70	3.40	3.40	12.40
Shut down	1.70	2.50	0.90	1.40	0.50	1.90

In the three main target areas for growth, recruitment, capital increase and international market share increase, Moroccan, Palestinian and Tunisian women entrepreneurs report a higher percentage sharing those growth targets compared to their Egyptian, Jordanian and Lebanese counterparts. Lebanon also stands out from the other countries in that its women entrepreneurs have a limited international focus, whereas in Palestine, over 30% of women entrepreneurs state that they wish to increase their market share internationally. In Tunisia, the main growth target is capital increase (48.1%) in the coming year, while in Morocco it is recruitment (44.1%).

CHART 1: GROWTH TARGETS (% OF RESPONDENTS)



II.5.3 RECRUITMENT OBJECTIVES

The women entrepreneurs in the sample aim either to exclusively hire women (Lebanon: 48.34%, Palestine: 28.82%, Jordan: 27.06%) or both men and women (the percentages vary from 23.53% and 39.74% of respondents). An extremely small minority reports only seeking male employees (between 1.18% and 2.65%). These results demonstrate a clear preference for hiring women.

Vocational education degrees appear to be of little interest to the women entrepreneurs in the sample (the highest share was found in Morocco: 13.61%). Rather they tend to seek qualified employees with specific professional skills (between 40% and 47% of respondents). The exception is the Lebanese, with only 8% reporting an interest in such profiles⁹.

⁹ This finding is also due to the specifics of the Lebanese sample.



TABLE 18: RECRUITMENT TARGET (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Women	Men	Both	With degree from vocational training programme	Qualified employees with professional skills
Egypt	13.01	1.63	38.21	7.32	39.84
Jordan	27.06	1.18	28.24	3.53	40
Lebanon	48.34	2.65	39.74	1.32	7.95
Morocco	8.9	2.09	36.65	13.61	38.74
Palestine	28.82	2.35	23.53	4.71	40.59
Tunisia	11.43	1.14	33.14	7.43	46.86

II.5.4 OBSTACLES TO STARTING A BUSINESS

The main obstacles to starting a business in the sample population were cited as¹⁰:

1. Lack of financing: 36.7%
2. Lack of experience: 29.3%
3. Lack of contacts: 28.4%
4. Lack of assistance: 23.2%
5. Lack of information: 21.6%
6. Need to care for the family: 20.2%

40.6% of them report that lack of experience is an obstacle to launching a business. Lack of financing is a major obstacle to women in Egypt, Jordan and Palestine (for 50.8%, 43.8% and 48.1% of them, respectively). For approximately 30% of respondents in Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, and Palestine, the lack of assistance and contacts are major impediments to starting a business.

Lebanese women respondents list other obstacles that are stumbling blocks to starting a business. Approximately 30% report no obstacles to starting a business in their country, in contrast to Egyptian (3.3%), Moroccan (9.3%) and Palestinian women (9.3%).

The main obstacles to starting a business are lack of financing, lack of experience, lack of contacts and lack of assistance.

Lebanese women list fear of failure and risk-taking as major obstacles to starting a business. In the other countries, those fears are not significant impediments, especially in Jordan, where only 3.9% and 5.9% of female respondents report these same obstacles to starting a business.

These obstacles are particularly daunting for Egyptian women.

¹⁰ The percentages reflect the average percentage of respondents across the whole of the sample.

TABLE 19: OBSTACLES TO STARTING A BUSINESS (PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS)

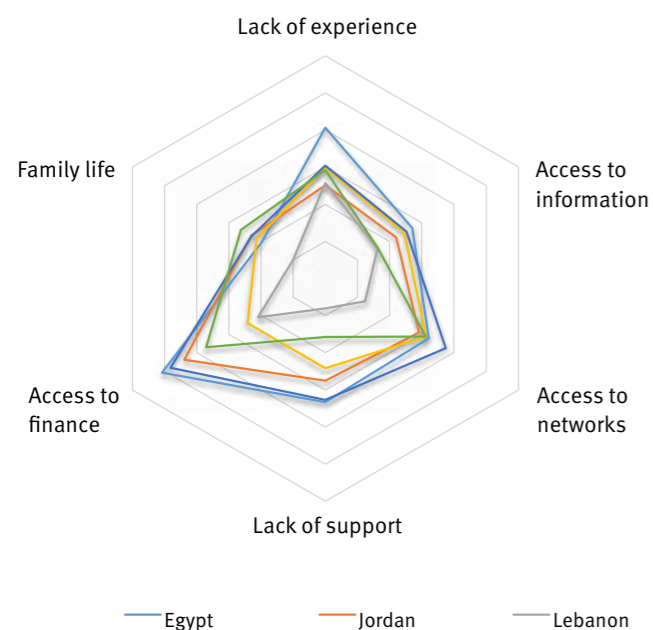
	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
No obstacles	3.30	11.80	28.60	9.30	9.30	17.30
Self-confidence	18.60	10.80	21.40	18.60	16.30	11.30
Fear of failure	6.70	3.90	13.80	11.70	7.90	3.90
Lack of experience	40.60	25.10	25.70	29.90	30.40	29.20
Fear of risk-taking	7.90	5.90	15.70	7.80	8.80	9.90
Lack of information	27.10	22.10	16.20	24.50	25.20	16.30
Lack of contacts	32.20	29.10	12.30	31.30	37.40	31.20
Lack of assistance	33.30	27.50	8.10	24.10	32.70	15.80
Lack of family support	14.10	11.30	7.60	9.80	17.30	6.90
Lack of financing	50.80	43.80	20.90	24.10	48.10	37.10
Lack of management skills	25.90	22.10	8.10	15.60	20.10	10.90
Lack of entrepreneurial experience	24.20	17.70	7.10	28.40	22.40	11.80
Responsibility for family care	19.70	23.10	10.00	21.40	22.90	26.20
Discrimination against women	16.40	18.20	4.30	11.70	25.70	14.80
Mobility issues	12.90	10.30	3.90	1.90	37.80	12.90

Note: the percentage reflects the number of respondents out of the total number of women

It can be noted that most of the obstacles could be mitigated by the setting up of support and assistance systems for women entrepreneurs, and by attempting to design more effective financing systems.

Approximately 15% of the women questioned view discrimination against women as an obstacle to starting a business in the countries observed. The share of women respondents reporting discrimination against women was highest in Palestine, where 25.7% of them felt discriminated against compared to their male counterparts, and particularly low in Lebanon, where only 4.3% of women list discrimination against women as an obstacle to starting a business.

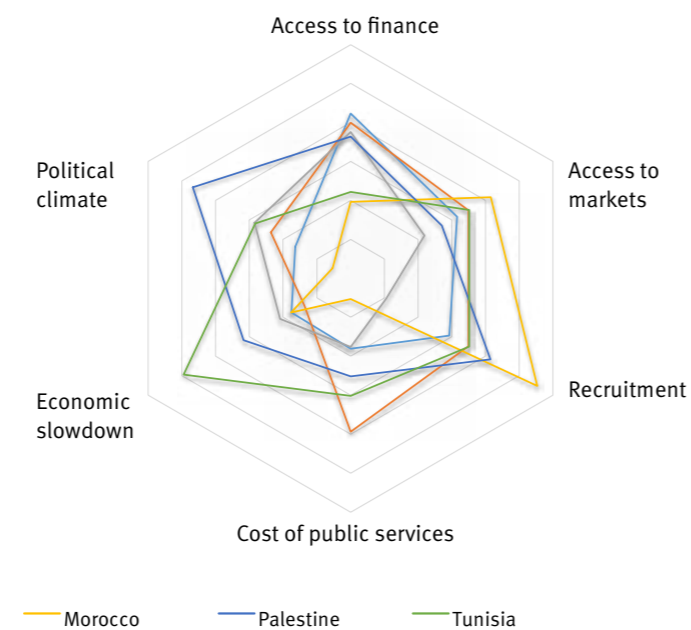
CHART 2: MAIN OBSTACLES TO STARTING A BUSINESS



growth, in particular in Morocco, where 55.3% of respondents identify this issue as an impediment to growth. In contrast, in Lebanon, only 10.5% of respondents identify it as an obstacle to growth, which is consistent with the data demonstrating that internationalisation is not a priority for women entrepreneurs in Lebanon. In Lebanon, access to capital is the main impediment to growth (37.6%), just as it is for women entrepreneurs in Egypt (42.3%), Jordan (39.9%) and Palestine (36.4%).

To a lesser extent, political conditions and the cost of public services are obstacles to growth, especially in Palestine, where 46.7% and 25.2% of women identified these aspects as obstacles to their businesses' growth.

CHART 3: MAIN OBSTACLES TO BUSINESS GROWTH



II.5.5 OBSTACLES TO GROWTH

Significant differences can also be noted between Lebanon and other countries in the sample, when it comes to obstacles to business growth. In all countries in the sample, difficulty in accessing new markets is a significant obstacle to business

growth. In Lebanon and in Tunisia, competition with the informal sector is identified as an obstacle to growth for 32.3% and 32.2% of women, respectively.

TABLE 20: OBSTACLES TO GROWTH (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Access to capital	42.30	39.90	37.60	19.60	36.40	22.20
Difficulty in finding good workers	31.60	34.90	21.90	41.60	27.10	35.10
Low productivity	14.10	12.30	27.60	29.90	15.80	14.80
Lack of access to new markets	29.30	34.90	10.50	55.30	41.50	35.10
Need to develop management skills	14.70	12.30	15.70	17.10	17.30	7.90
Business model structure	18.60	14.20	5.20	7.30	14.90	5.40
Competition from other countries	12.40	7.30	3.30	23.10	14.90	13.30
Competition from the informal sector	7.30	14.30	9.50	32.30	22.90	32.20
Cost of public services	18.10	39.40	17.60	5.30	25.20	30.20
Access to technologies	14.10	11.80	2.30	12.70	18.20	13.80
Lack of economic growth	17.50	13.70	20.90	17.60	31.70	49.50
Political conditions	16.40	23.60	28.50	5.30	46.70	28.20
Access to international markets	15.80	20.10	2.40	20.50	32.20	29.70

Note: the percentage reflects the number of respondents out of the total number of women

II.6

MOTIVATIONS FOR STARTING A BUSINESS

Here too, significant differences can be noted between the motivations of women entrepreneurs in Lebanon and those from other countries in the sample. In Lebanon, the motivations are primarily of the "push" variety, resulting from a need to earn a living through entrepreneurship in the context of insufficient means. Most respondents reported that the lack of salaried pay (24.2%) and unemployment (31.4%) are the main motivations for launching a business.

In contrast, in other countries in the sample, "pull"-type motivations drive the process, which come as a response to opportunities identified. In Palestine and Tunisia, 51.8% and 47.5% of respondents respectively report the existence of opportunities as the main motivation for starting a business.

Motivations such as a yearning for personal accomplishment and the feeling that they have the necessary skills are also important, in particular in Palestine (71.4% and 65.4%) and in Jordan (64.5% and 54.6%).

As seen in table 21, this positive dynamic in motivations for starting a business is confirmed when respondents are asked whether they would be willing to trade their situation for a salaried job. Only 20.45% of them, on average, responded in the affirmative.

There are, however, differences in entrepreneurial persistence by country. Only 17.26% of the women entrepreneurs in Tunisia and 13.57% in Morocco would give up their business to take up a salaried job, a statistic that highlights the extent of opportunity-based entrepreneurship in the country. Those differences

TABLE 21: MOTIVATIONS FOR STARTING A BUSINESS (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Unemployment	12.40	11.30	31.40	9.80	28.90	23.30
Job loss	5.60	2.90	9.50	11.70	13.50	3.90
Lack of salaried revenue	11.30	18.70	24.20	19.60	36.90	17.30
Responsibility for managing family business	9.60	5.90	11.40	16.60	13.50	22.20
On advice	3.90	5.90	10.40	8.30	9.80	9.40
Need to secure employment for descendants	5.10	8.30	8.60	12.20	19.60	15.80
Opportunity identified	37.30	46.80	33.80	41.10	51.80	47.50
Skills for the project	48.60	54.60	24.70	22.50	65.40	50.50
Confidence in the product / service	42.90	42.30	10.90	15.20	51.80	28.70
As a means of supplementing income / profits	36.10	45.80	23.30	21.10	62.60	42.10
Need for self-sufficiency	37.80	44.30	12.40	43.10	44.40	41.50
Need for personal freedom	37.20	40.40	9.10	32.80	53.30	41.10
Need for freedom in the workplace	37.30	44.80	8.60	25.50	53.20	40.60
Social status	14.10	13.80	14.70	5.40	31.30	24.70
Personal accomplishment	58.20	64.50	17.60	17.10	71.40	51.90
Vocation	23.70	27.60	3.80	11.70	45.70	33.60

Note: the percentage reflects the number of respondents out of the total number of women.

in entrepreneurial persistence could explain in part the differences in size between the companies in Table 9. Aside from Lebanon, which is a distinct case, Egypt (6.71) and Palestine (6.32) are the countries where the women-led businesses of the sample have the lowest number of employees, while Moroccan (9.37) and Tunisian (8.89) businesses post the highest number of employees. There is thus clearly a significant correlation between the share of opportunity-based entrepreneurship and the size of the resulting business.

Further confirmation can be found in the responses of women entrepreneurs when asked what recommendations they would give to other women who are in a position to start a business. 0.9% (Jordan) to 5.7% (Lebanon) of women entrepreneurs would recommend not starting a business. A large majority (57.4% in Egypt and 91.2% in Morocco) would recommend going ahead with starting a business, sometimes with a caveat.

TABLE 22: WOULD YOU RECOMMEND ENTREPRENEURSHIP TO OTHER WOMEN? (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Never	2.20	0.90	5.70	0.90	2.30	2.50
Yes, it is an absolute necessity for success	29.70	42.80	66.10	68.10	43.40	50.00
Consider starting a business, but...	27.70	30.10	18.10	23.10	27.60	37.60

Note: the percentage reflects the number of respondents out of the total number of women.

II.7 FORMAL AND INFORMAL INSTITUTIONS

II.7.1 DESIRED IMPROVEMENT MEASURES

While women entrepreneurs wish to see improvements of the business atmosphere at all levels, the survey results show significant disparities between groups, depending on criteria.

For instance, whereas one-fourth of respondents overall would like to see a reduction in administrative processes, only 12.2% of the women entrepreneurs in Morocco reported the same. In terms of business registration costs, while 45.2% of Lebanese and 45.1% of Tunisians would be in favour of them, only 16.2% of Moroccans share that view.

Morocco's women entrepreneurs are twice as likely (50%) to be interested in training in entrepreneurship specifically for women. They are also twice as likely to expect public grants for women entrepreneurs (49.1%). Regarding measures that facilitate the recruitment of workers, 26.5% of them demand it, compared to 13% and 19% of women entrepreneurs from other countries.

48.5% of Tunisian women and 42.8% of Jordanian women wish to see credit lines created specifically for Very Small Businesses (VSBs). Meanwhile only 11.1% of Moroccan women entrepreneurs report the same. These differences are probably the

TABLE 23: IMPROVEMENTS SOUGHT FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Less administrative red tape	27.70	28.60	23.30	12.20	21.10	27.20
Lower business start-up expenses	22.10	23.60	45.20	16.20	32.20	45.10
Improved training in entrepreneurial skills	24.80	26.10	20.90	29.40	35.10	24.70
Improved training in entrepreneurial skills for women	20.40	22.60	22.40	50.00	26.20	22.20
Provide public grants for women entrepreneurs	23.10	22.20	19.50	49.10	30.80	16.80
Facilitate recruitment	12.90	19.20	16.20	26.50	17.30	17.30
Simplify transfer of ownership	14.70	23.60	21.00	10.20	22.90	17.30
Create credit lines for VSBs	22.10	42.80	11.00	24.50	31.30	48.50
Improve access to public contracts	14.70	29.10	12.80	14.70	31.30	18.30
Simplify export procedures	11.80	15.30	12.80	14.70	25.70	27.20
Foster women's entrepreneurship	25.40	48.70	18.10	26.50	37.40	29.20
Improve access to public contracts for women entrepreneurs	16.90	23.10	9.50	22.50	30.40	16.30

Note: Percentage of respondents

TABLE 24: FINANCING SOURCES (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Bank credit	13.50	28.10	36.60	52.90	18.20	30.10
Special credit line	8.50	16.20	26.10	39.70	15.80	15.80
Own firm's profits	22.60	51.70	49.10	47.50	42.90	51.50
Micro-credit	12.90	32.10	42.80	13.20	19.60	20.80
Pawnbrokers	5.60	10.30	23.30	3.90	12.10	6.90
Personal bank credit	8.50	16.20	25.70	15.70	13.10	22.20
Private sources (savings, friends)	42.40	42.30	50.90	47.10	46.20	50.90
Supplier credit	6.70	7.80	21.40	23.10	9.30	9.90
Venture capital	11.30	11.80	25.20	6.40	14.40	17.30
Other (prizes, donations)	15.80	16.20	26.60	2.40	25.20	12.40
No financing	14.70	13.30	28.60	11.70	21.90	19.30

Note: Percentage of respondents

reflection of business size, in that Moroccan companies are the largest in the sample (9.37 employees, on average), and thus they are less in need of access to VSB dedicated credit lines. Finally, generally speaking, 48.7% of women entrepreneurs from Jordan and 37.4% from Palestine, wish to see women's entrepreneurship promoted.

II.7.2 ACCESS TO FINANCING OVER THE PAST FEW MONTHS

Self-financing, meaning the firm's contribution to its own financing, using the profits it has generated, is a significant source of funding in Jordan (51.17%), Tunisia (51.15%), Lebanon (49.1%) and Morocco (47.5%).

Private sources (savings, family, friends) amounted to over 40% of responses in all countries.

Bank credit was also very widely used, peaking in Morocco, at 53%. This appears consistent with the fact that only 24% of the Moroccan women entrepreneurs in the sample deemed that access to financing is an impediment to entrepreneurship and 19.6% reported that access to capital was an obstacle to growth, showing that, for them, financial difficulties appear less marked than for other respondents in the sample.

Lastly, it is worth mentioning that certain women entrepreneurs resort to costly sources of financing. 23.3% of the Lebanese women, for instance, had used pawnbrokers.

II.7.3 ACCESS TO A MENTOR

Some women entrepreneurs have access to a mentor and benefit from the relationship with an experienced person with extensive skills, who can help them better pave their way as entrepreneurs. Specifically, Lebanese (52%) and Tunisian (50%) women call upon mentors, in contrast with the Egyptian (27%), Jordanian (34%), Moroccan and Palestinian (38%) women.

TABLE 25: ACCESS TO A MENTOR (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Access to a mentor	Family member	Outside the family
Egypt	27.12	11.80	19.70
Jordan	33.99	19.70	16.70
Lebanon	51.90	42.40	24.30
Morocco	38.73	33.80	32.80
Palestine	38.32	21.00	23.80
Tunisia	50.50	41.10	39.10

TABLE 27: TYPE OF SUPPORT RECEIVED (% OF RESPONDENTS)

Type of aid received	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Access to financing	5.10	11.30	29.10	21.50	13.50	31.60
Learning to delegate	9.60	7.80	19.50	16.60	22.90	23.70
Building a team	12.90	12.80	15.20	22.50	24.20	35.60
Introduction to management procedures	8.50	14.70	29.10	24.10	24.20	22.70
Management training	14.70	16.70	23.80	41.60	28.50	24.70
Leadership training	16.40	18.70	23.80	14.70	29.90	26.70
Technical training	10.70	17.70	19.10	30.80	18.70	22.20
Financial training	4.50	15.70	29.10	26.40	27.50	20.70
Information about markets	12.90	10.80	32.80	6.80	23.80	23.70
Information about technologies	6.20	9.80	30.40	8.30	20.50	18.80
Business advice	5.60	6.90	23.30	10.70	19.60	13.80
Legal services	7.30	12.30	12.80	10.70	12.60	14.80
Marketing services	9.60	7.40	30.00	29.90	19.10	20.70
Micro-finance	3.40	7.40	16.10	4.40	14.40	12.30
Sponsorship	5.10	8.80	21.90	12.80	20.50	14.80
Risk management	4.50	4.40	24.20	4.90	13.10	10.80
Formal networks	6.70	8.80	11.40	23.50	13.50	20.70
Work/life balance	15.80	16.20	28.50	30.30	25.20	39.60
Dealing with the administration	10.10	9.30	29.50	26.90	18.20	31.60
Commercial management	16.30	20.60	32.30	33.30	32.20	44.50
Human resources management						
Managing men	13.50	11.30	11.90	25.90	15.40	31.10
Managing women	13.50	13.80	23.80	30.30	24.20	47.50

Note: Percentage of respondents

II.7.4 ACCESS TO ASSISTANCE, SUPPORT AND ADVICE

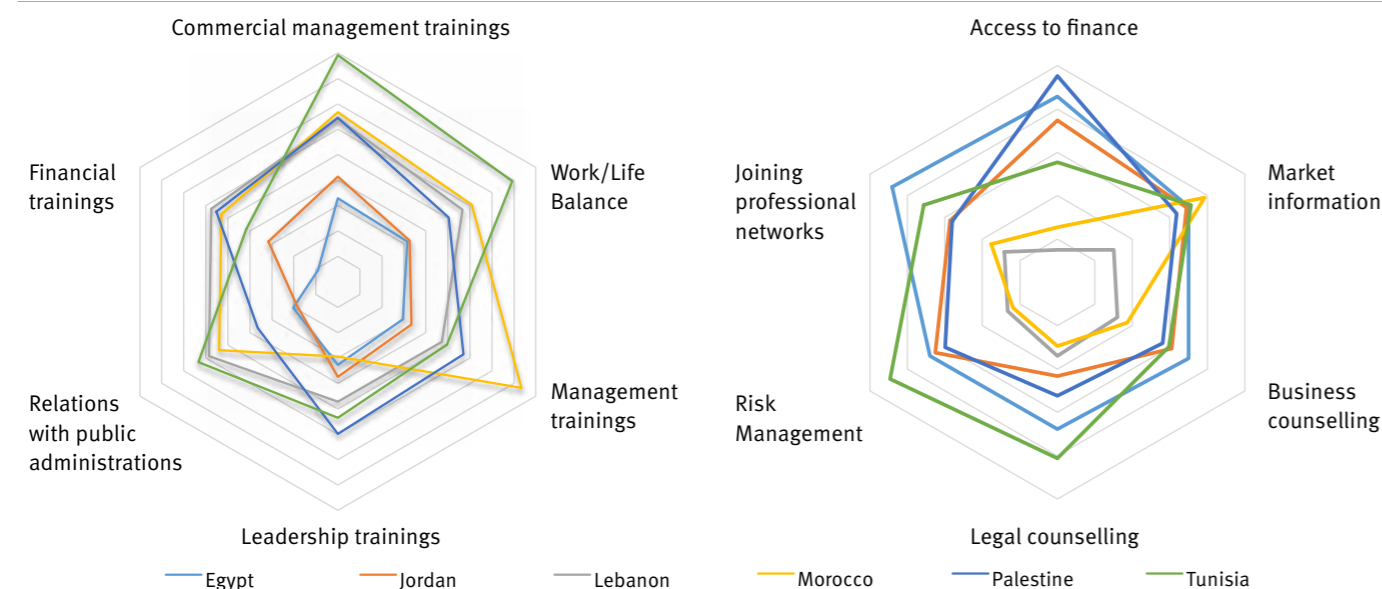
A significant percentage of women entrepreneurs in the sample benefited from some form of support or assistance. Disparities can be noted between Lebanon (13.68% of the women entrepreneurs surveyed) and, at the other end, Morocco (31.86 % of women).

TABLE 26: ACCESS TO START-UP SUPPORT FOR ENTREPRENEURSHIP (% OF RESPONDENTS)

PERCENTAGE OF BENEFICIARIES	
Egypt	12.43
Jordan	16.26
Lebanon	13.68
Morocco	31.86
Palestine	29.44
Tunisia	13.86

This aid encompasses a wide range of services, as shown in the table below.

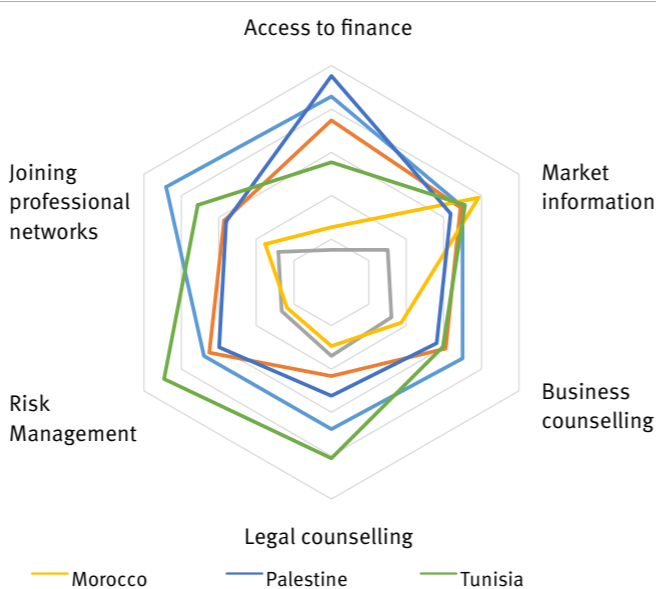
CHART 4: MAIN TYPES OF SUPPORT RECEIVED (% OF RESPONDENTS)



A significant proportion of the women entrepreneurs surveyed also report being unsatisfied with the support they seek.

Lebanese and Moroccan women entrepreneurs in the sample report fewer unsatisfied needs in terms of expected and available support. Egyptians (21.47%), just like Jordanians (18.72%) and Palestinians (23.83%), report the need for support mainly when it comes to access to finance, and meanwhile are unable to find it. For reasons probably related to the political instability of recent years, Tunisian entrepreneurs rank risk management as the major area (22.28%) for which they are in need of support (followed

CHART 5: MAIN UNSATISFIED NEEDS FOR SUPPORT



by legal services for 20.30% of them). 19.60% of Moroccans—who generally report few unsatisfied needs for support—report that they are in need of information on access to markets. There is a certain homogeneity across the six countries who all consider information on access to markets a prominent and unsatisfied need for support (17.51% of Egyptians, 17.24% of Jordanians, 15.82% of Palestinians and 17.82% of Tunisians). Equally important, is the need for support to access professional networks, which appears to be an outstanding need across the six countries.

TABLE 28: PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS REQUIRING SUPPORT BUT UNABLE TO FIND THE APPROPRIATE SERVICES

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Access to financing	21.47	18.72	3.77	6.37	23.83	13.86
Learning to delegate	14.12	11.82	3.30	1.47	10.75	8.42
Building a team	11.30	11.33	6.13	1.96	7.94	8.42
Introducing management procedures	0.00	12.81	5.19	3.43	9.35	13.86
Management training	10.73	11.33	5.66	1.96	8.41	10.40
Leadership training	0.00	7.39	5.19	4.90	7.94	9.90
Technical training	12.99	11.82	5.19	3.92	11.68	11.39
Financial training	16.95	13.30	8.02	6.86	13.55	14.85
Information about markets	17.51	17.24	7.55	19.60	15.89	17.82
Information about technologies	15.25	8.37	6.60	10.78	14.49	17.33
Business advice	17.51	15.27	8.02	9.31	14.02	14.85
Legal services	16.95	10.84	8.49	7.35	13.08	20.30
Marketing services	16.38	12.81	5.66	4.41	12.62	17.33
Micro-finance	21.47	17.24	5.19	2.45	14.49	11.39
Sponsorship	12.43	13.79	5.19	7.84	11.68	10.40
Risk management	16.95	16.26	6.60	5.88	14.95	22.28
Formal networks	22.03	14.29	7.08	8.82	14.02	17.82
Work/life balance	5.65	4.93	4.72	3.92	8.88	6.93
Dealing with the administration	12.43	9.36	7.55	4.90	9.35	6.44
Commercial management	7.91	4.43	5.66	3.43	5.61	4.95
Human Resources management						
Managing men	10.73	5.42	6.60	3.92	7.94	7.92
Managing women	10.73	4.43	7.55	3.43	7.48	2.48

II.8 CHARACTERISTICS SPECIFIC TO WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The specific characteristics listed here have emerged from the survey and data analysis resulting from it. This is not an attempt to identify more theoretical and thus universal guidelines regarding women's entrepreneurship.

II.8.1 PERCEIVED GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN THE ENVIRONMENT

Between 21.49% (Egypt) and 39.8% (Lebanon) of female entrepreneurs feel that their environment is discriminatory toward women. Only 12.78% of Tunisian women entrepreneurs, however, reported this view. This is most likely the result of active policies initiated to foster women's empowerment over the past 60 years.

TABLE 29: PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Yes	21.49	25.71	39.8	25.79	35.54	12.78
No	49.59	56	44.39	41.58	41.57	57.78
No opinion	28.93	18.29	15.82	32.63	22.89	29.44

Note: Percentage of respondents

Differences in the perception of a discriminatory environment are consistent with the variations in perception of the support

TABLE 31: PERCEIVED IMPEDIMENTS TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Regulatory environment	3.32	3.4	3.37	3.32	3.29	3.76
Laws and public order	3.42	3.43	3.23	3.08	3.43	3.57
Lack of financing	2.5	2.36	3.04	2.66	2.55	2.57
Lack of support services to businesses	2.91	2.87	3.12	2.67	2.96	2.88
Economic slowdown	2.68	2.81	2.21	3.19	2.56	2.23

Note: Likert scale, in which 1 denotes a low negative effect and 5 a major negative effect.

provided to women entrepreneurs as compared to men (Table 30). Although women entrepreneurs in the sample in large part responded affirmatively to the question *Are women's businesses 'supported' to the same degree as men's?*, significant differences can be observed between Lebanese (46.99%), Palestinian (47.22%) and Tunisian (78.49%) women. The Lebanese (39.8%) and Palestinian (35.54%) women are also more likely to report feeling discriminated against because they are women.

TABLE 30: SUPPORT FOR WOMEN IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Are women's businesses 'supported' to the same degree as men's? (% responding yes)

Egypt	66.67
Jordan	60.87
Lebanon	46.99
Morocco	62.03
Palestine	47.22
Tunisia	78.49

II.8.2 FACTORS NEGATIVELY AFFECTING BUSINESSES

As the following table shows, the regulatory environment, laws and public order are the factors most negatively affecting businesses run by women entrepreneurs in the sample.

The factors listed below were gathered from the women entrepreneurs surveyed. Their responses demonstrate a remarkable homogeneity across the six countries.



II.8.3 IS IT MORE DIFFICULT FOR WOMEN TO SECURE FINANCING?

With the exception of Egypt, a country in which “only” 24.2% of women entrepreneurs in the sample responded “yes” when asked whether it is more difficult for women to gain access to financing, the large majority of women respondents across the other countries supported that assertion. In particular, 66.6% of the Lebanese, 51.14% of the Tunisians and 43.8% of the Jordanians reported difficulties in accessing financing.

The main reasons listed by all respondents were, first, a lack of necessary guarantees, and second, complex financing application procedures. Women entrepreneurs from Morocco (28.9%) also felt that women in business are not taken seriously.

TABLE 32: WOMEN’S PERCEPTIONS OF ACCESSING FINANCING (% OF RESPONDENTS)

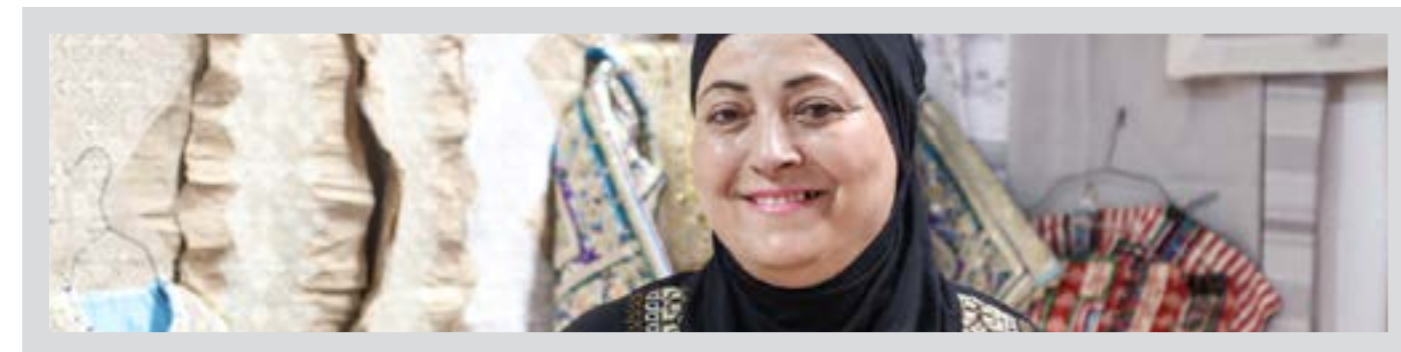
	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
No, access to financing is not more challenging for women	14.70	21.70	9.50	35.80	28.50	18.30
Yes, access to financing is more challenging for women:						
Problems with guarantees	9.60	15.70	10.40	18.10	16.20	24.70
Women are not taken seriously	8.50	5.90	8.60	28.90	12.10	6.40
The procedures are complicated	17.50	18.20	6.20	25.00	17.70	18.80
Lack of efficient human resources	2.80	2.90	0.50	0.90	4.70	3.90

Note: Percentage of respondents

TABLE 33: PERCEIVED MANAGEMENT SKILLS

	Women	Men	Gap
Communicating at the international level	2.531	2.249	-0.282
Networking	2.204	2.091	-0.113
Delegating	2.293	2.206	-0.087
Consulting	2.231	2.162	-0.069
Making decisions	2.081	2.026	-0.055
Mentoring	2.201	2.207	0.006
Building a team	2.149	2.162	0.013
Influencing upward	2.173	2.212	0.039
Solving problems	2.089	2.131	0.042
Providing support	2.041	2.135	0.094
Providing remuneration	2.127	2.235	0.108
Inspiring	2.099	2.354	0.255

Note: The figures connected with each skill are based on a Likert scale, on which a value of 1 means that the woman perceives her skills as excellent, while a value of 5 indicates that she sees them as poor. Consequently, a positive gap means that the women view their entrepreneurial skills as superior to those of men. A negative gap means that the women think that men have greater entrepreneurial skill on each item when compared to women.



II.8.4 DIFFICULTIES RESULTING FROM GENDER

The women entrepreneurs in the sample reported the difficulties of being taken seriously and securing financing. Managing male employees, achieving work-life balance and effectively dealing with administration are also challenges specific to women (Table 35). In terms of the other dimensions discussed, women entrepreneurs feel that they are neither more difficult nor easier for women than men (Table 35).

II.8.5 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT SKILLS

When asked to assess their performance compared to men on a list of management skills, the women entrepreneurs in the sample rated themselves for the most part at the same level as their male counterparts, as shown in table 33.

It can be noted, however, that they perceive themselves to be more skilled than men when it comes to inspiring others, and less skilled in terms of international communication and networking.

women view their entrepreneurial skills as superior to those of men for each item, except for their ability to remunerate themselves.

TABLE 34: GAP IN PERCEIVED SKILLS LEVELS IN MEN AND WOMEN

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Communicating at the international level	-0.353	-0.009	-0.427	-0.067	0.059	0.251
Networking	-0.106	-0.177	-0.414	-0.170	0.065	0.216
Delegating	-0.021	-0.124	-0.165	0.089	-0.043	0.231
Consulting	-0.074	0.500	1.985	0.050	0.059	0.174
Making decisions	0.194	-0.054	-0.071	0.037	0.146	0.280
Mentoring	-0.109	-0.012	-2.097	-0.036	0.014	0.091
Building a team	-0.732	-0.607	-0.036	-0.067	-0.210	0.289
Influencing upward	-0.347	-0.239	-0.452	0.026	0.178	0.172
Solving problems	-0.197	-0.229	-0.165	0.045	0.132	0.189
Providing supporting	-0.005	0.074	1.939	0.061	0.308	0.334
Providing remuneration	-0.080	0.205	-0.303	0.158	0.234	-0.086
Inspiring	-0.075	0.499	-2.053	0.308	0.513	0.177

Note: a positive gap means that the women view their entrepreneurial skills as superior to those of men. A negative gap means that the women think that men have greater entrepreneurial skills for each of the items when compared to women.

There is a significant difference in perceived entrepreneurial skills based on gender in each of the countries in the sample. In Egypt, women feel that they are less skilled than men on each item, with the exception of decision-making, while in Tunisia,

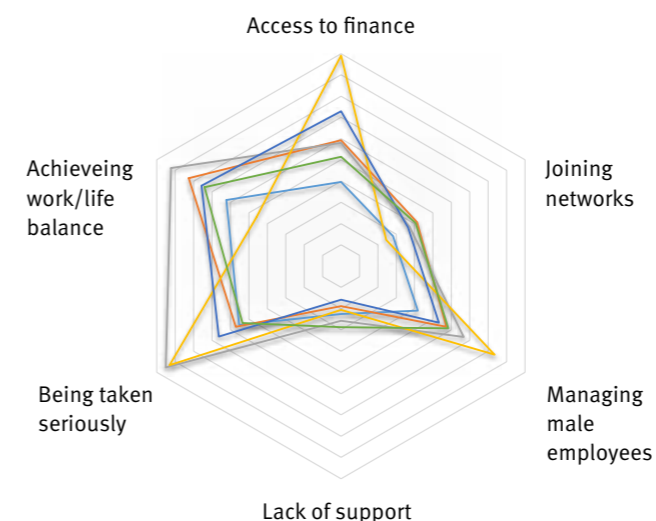
The Moroccan women primarily reported that access to financing is more of a challenge for women than for men. This finding is probably due to the high percentage of Moroccan women who make use of credit compared to other countries in the sample (Table 7).

TABLE 35: PERCEIVED DIFFICULTY OF BEING A WOMEN ENTREPRENEUR COMPARED TO A MALE ENTREPRENEUR (% OF RESPONDENTS)

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Access to financing	19.80	29.60	29.00	49.50	36.40	25.70
Joining networks	14.10	20.70	18.60	12.30	18.20	20.30
Managing male employees	20.90	28.60	33.30	41.70	26.60	29.20
Managing female employees	11.30	9.40	12.90	10.30	7.90	14.40
Working with the clients / suppliers	19.20	18.70	16.70	34.30	17.80	14.90
Being taken seriously	27.70	28.60	47.60	46.60	33.20	26.70
Dealing with the administration	23.20	21.70	23.30	49.00	18.20	19.30
Achieving work/life balance	31.10	41.40	46.20	23.00	37.90	37.10
Developing a network	21.50	34.00	23.30	18.10	24.30	27.20

Note: percentage of respondents

CHART 6: PERCEIVED CHALLENGES FOR WOMEN COMPARED TO MEN



As a result they are more likely to have experience interacting with credit institutions. In Lebanon, the main challenge lies in achieving work-life balance when a woman heads a business. Moroccan and Lebanese women entrepreneurs also report experiencing greater difficulty in being taken seriously in the business world, compared to men. Women entrepreneurs are generally dissatisfied with the general perception that they lack credibility (approximately 30% of those in Egypt, Jordan, Palestine and Tunisia, and 47% in Lebanon and Morocco).

Note: Breakdown of women perceiving greater difficulties compared to men on the six items specific to entrepreneurship

II.8.6 MAIN BARRIERS AND STUMBLING BLOCKS

Exclusion from informal networks appears to be the least problematic barrier, particularly in Lebanon and Morocco. In contrast, the existence of stereotypes and preconceptions about the role and capabilities of women is cited as the main barrier to entrepreneurship, a perception that is even stronger in Morocco and Tunisia. This finding raises questions about whether women entrepreneurs in Tunisia are less likely to report discrimination. One possible interpretation is that they perceive only mild discrimination at the institutional level, while society as a whole remains discriminatory. The second main barrier to entrepreneurship is the inability of political and economic leaders to grant decision-making positions to women, in particular in Morocco and Tunisia.

TABLE 36: PERCEIVED BARRIERS TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Lack of management skills	3.295	3.518	3.160	3.690	3.393	3.123
Exclusion from informal networks	3.102	3.095	2.854	2.929	3.109	2.798
Stereotypes and preconceptions of the role and capabilities of women	3.581	3.475	3.448	3.753	3.410	3.785
Inability of top leaders to grant decision-making positions to women	3.353	3.314	3.325	3.787	3.328	3.552
Commitment to personal and family-related responsibilities	3.447	3.357	2.844	3.571	3.036	3.178

Note: The figures in this table reflect the average order of importance reported by women as to the factors slowing down the emancipation of women in the working world, where a value of 1 denotes a low barrier and a value of 5 denotes a very high barrier.

II.8.7 SUCCESS FACTORS

TABLE 37: PERCEIVED SUCCESS FACTORS FOR WOMEN

	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Morocco	Palestine	Tunisia
Knowing how to optimise their entrepreneurial skills	4.057	4.132	3.859	3.835	3.971	3.442
Always out-performing expectations	3.624	3.741	3.733	3.740	3.583	3.863
Successfully managing others	4.068	3.930	3.740	3.724	3.746	3.938
Successfully managing themselves	4.071	4.155	3.835	3.904	3.825	4.000
Having recognised experience in the field	4.023	4.105	3.840	3.685	3.696	3.957
Gaining language and inter-cultural skills	3.976	3.685	3.387	3.578	3.750	3.854
Seeking out challenging and high-profile undertakings	3.372	3.483	3.313	3.217	3.388	3.675

Note: the figures in this table reflect the average order of importance reported by women in terms of the factors that enable them to enjoy a successful career, where a value of 1 denotes a factor of low significance and a value of 5 denotes a factor of great significance.

The women entrepreneurs in the sample cite self-management as the primary success factor, particularly in Jordan. Egyptian and Jordanian women report gaining recognised experience in a specific field as the main guarantee of success. Palestinian, Moroccan and Jordanian women entrepreneurs, in contrast, see the main success factor as optimising entrepreneurial skills. Finding challenging and high-profile projects and gaining language and intercultural skills appear to be the least important success factors, with the exception of Egyptian and Tunisian women, who consider linguistic and inter-cultural skills as relatively important. These differences are probably due to the significant participation of both Egyptian and Tunisian companies in our sample in international trade and their willingness to improve access to foreign markets.

DETERMINANTS OF BUSINESS SURVIVAL AND DEVELOPMENT

III.1 ENTREPRENEURIAL PERFORMANCE

What characterises women entrepreneurs at the head of growing businesses? Which women are most likely to cite capital increase and export as their strategic objectives? Do women entrepreneurs provide employment for other women? In short, how do the women entrepreneurs in the sample perform in their roles?

This chapter aims to respond to all of these questions by providing a general overview of the characteristics of the women entrepreneurs who succeed in expanding and securing growth for their businesses.



III.1.1 BUSINESS SIZE AND THE PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN EMPLOYEES

This section sheds light not only on the characteristics of the women entrepreneurs whose businesses have attained a certain size, but, most of all, on understanding the share of women employees. The issue of female employment by women entrepreneurs is paramount in that the latter is a major driver in supporting women's employment, in particular in a part of the world where gender inequalities in access to the labour market remain strong and where women's employment continues to be extremely low.

We will start out by analysing the role of socio-demographic characteristics in the employment strategies chosen by women leaders, and subsequently, we will shed light on how the governance structures of these businesses influences their hiring decisions.

III.1.2 THE ROLE OF MARITAL STATUS, LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE

Educated women have a higher number of employees compared to women with less education.¹ This difference can be observed regardless of marital status, except in Morocco, a country in which single women with lower levels of education have a larger number of employees than educated single women. This Moroccan specificity is probably due to the fact that there are more women with lower levels of education heading family-owned companies (37.04% of less educated women, as opposed to 20.33% of educated women). These companies, in turn, have a significantly higher number of employees compared to newly founded businesses.² (see Appendix B, Table 56)

Overall, the percentage of female employment is higher when the woman is single and less educated. The gap is particularly significant in Egypt, with a differential of approximately 20 percentage points between married and single women, regardless of level of education. The difference in female employment levels based on marital status is also significant in Palestine and Lebanon, particularly when women are less educated. This situation likely illustrates the difficulty for women in managing male employees, as confirmed to a certain extent by the survey, more so than the reflection of a solidarity effect. A solidarity effect between women that could potentially work in favour of single less educated women, who suffer greater stigmas in Middle Eastern societies. For instance, in Palestine, the percentage of women on payroll amounts to 94.7% in businesses managed by less educated women and 75.5% on those managed by educated women. In Lebanon, women entrepreneurs have payroll composed of approximately 80% women, a figure which rises to nearly 90% in companies owned by single women with low levels of education.³

This discrimination against women at the hiring stage, dependent on marital status, is confirmed in the chart below, which shows the percentage of respondents looking for male, female or both male and female employees. Here too, discrimination at the hiring stage can be identified, particularly acute in the case of single women, except in Lebanon, where 37.5% of married women with a university degree state a preference for hiring a woman, as compared to 12.73% of single women with a university degree.

¹ The significance of differences in employment patterns by marital status and level of education have been tested and reported on in Appendix A.

² The average number of employees hired by less educated women managing family-owned businesses is 17.52, as compared to only 6.21 for less educated women heading businesses which they founded themselves.

³ This is surely due to the small size of the firms represented in the Lebanese sample.

TABLE 38: DISCRIMINATION AT THE HIRING STAGE (% OF RESPONDENTS)

		No university degree		University degree	
		Single	Married	Single	Married
Egypt	Women	16.67	16.67	13.92	11.32
	Men	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.77
	Both	33.33	33.33	54.43	47.17
Jordan	Women	100.00	65.38	15.09	26.37
	Men	0.00	0.00	1.89	2.20
	Both	0.00	50.00	66.04	43.96
Lebanon	Women	44.44	38.71	12.73	37.50
	Men	2.78	4.84	0.00	0.00
	Both	22.22	27.42	63.33	56.25
Morocco	Women	28.00	20.00	18.18	17.65
	Men	0.00	2.50	1.82	4.41
	Both	60.00	65.00	67.27	66.18
Palestine	Women	61.54	45.00	33.33	35.14
	Men	0.00	2.50	5.56	4.05
	Both	30.77	45.00	27.78	41.89
Tunisia	Women	28.13	31.25	23.81	13.11
	Men	15.63	4.17	2.38	0.00
	Both	53.13	52.08	54.76	72.13

Note: Percentage of respondents

Lastly, there is a correlation between (i) experience in the firm, (ii) the number of employees and (iii) payroll gender breakdown. A positive and significant correlation can be observed between the number of employees and the level of experience, in three countries in the sample: Egypt, Morocco and Palestine. Unsurprisingly, this correlation implies that the time spent in the business correlates positively to the business's size. Even more interestingly, it can be observed that time of operation is negatively correlated with the percentage of women employed, especially in Morocco. Moroccan women employ more male employees once the business is well established. Moroccan businesses specialise primarily in the services sector (see Table 5), a sector in which demand for qualified workers is particularly high. This specialisation by sector is probably the reason for which 40% of the recruitment targets listed by Moroccan businesses call for qualified and experienced workers (see Table 18). Since the percentage of educated women is lower than that of educated men in Morocco⁴, it may be difficult for established businesses to find educated women to hire. This in turn might lead to an artificial increase in the male employment rate (on average more qualified) thereby lowering the female employment rate.

⁴ 20.7% of women aged 25 and over have a secondary education level, as compared to 30.2% of men (source: United Nations, *Human Development Reports*).

TABLE 39: CORRELATION BETWEEN BUSINESS TIME IN OPERATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Business time in operation	Number of employees	Percentage of women
Egypt	0.228*	-0.212
Jordan	0.069	-0.074
Lebanon	0.098	-0.174
Morocco	0.397*	-0.380*
Palestine	0.314*	0.204
Tunisia	0.183	-0.126

Note: The coefficients with a star reflect statistically significant correlations at a threshold of 1%.

Ownership structure

This section analyses once again the differences in size and percentage of women in business, in relation to its governance structure. Table 57 shows that the proportion of women employed in the businesses with a single shareholder is slightly lower than that of multi-shareholder businesses composed solely of women. The said percentage is 65% in Egypt and 68% in Morocco, in businesses managed by one woman alone, as compared to 72.1% and 71.2% in multi-shareholder female businesses.

When the business is managed by multiple shareholders, the portion of women employees is always higher when the leaders are women. In Palestine, 82% of the payroll is composed of women when the shareholders are all women, but falls to 56% when the shareholders are all men and 66% when there are both male and female shareholders. This difference holds regardless of the business status (family-owned or newly founded business).

The reasons why women entrepreneurs primarily hire women when they are majority shareholders could be a reflection of the greater ease they have in managing female employees. Indeed, 32% of the women in the sample stated it is easier to manage female employees, while 41.7% stated it is more challenging to manage male employees.

The positive discrimination toward women at the time of hiring can also be reflection of strong solidarity between women, especially in countries where male-female inequalities are extremely prominent. The following chart highlights the gender inequality index results from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) specific to the countries in the sample. On average, the inequality indices are extremely high in all six countries in the sample, which may reflect the greater challenges women face in becoming entrepreneurs and securing jobs overall, compared to men. Gender inequality is most acute in Egypt (0.573) and lowest in Tunisia (0.240).

TABLE 40: 2014 GENDER INEQUALITY INDEX (SOURCE: UNITED NATIONS)

Egypt	0.573
Jordan	0.473
Lebanon	0.385
Morocco	0.525
Palestine	N/A
Tunisia	0.240
Very high human development	0.199
High human development	0.310
Medium human development	0.506
Low human development	0.583

Source: United Nations Development Program, Gender Inequality Index

Note: The list of countries in the last four lines of the chart is detailed below: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GII>. The indicator is measured using women's mortality at the time of childbirth, the share of women in Parliament, the share of women with a secondary-level education, and women's participation in the labour market. Key: The closer the index is to 1, the starker the gender inequalities.

The significance of gender inequalities in these countries can also be seen in the data. As detailed above, the findings in Table 57 show that the share of women employed in businesses is invariably lower when all other business shareholders are men. The share of women employed in businesses where the other shareholders are all men is particularly low in Egypt (44.7%) and Morocco (49.2%). In contrast, the percentage of women employed in Lebanon is very high, even when the other shareholders are men (62%). These figures are in line with those of the United Nations on gender inequality (see Table 40), insofar as Morocco and Egypt are the countries with the highest gender inequality levels, while Lebanon is, with Tunisia, the country with the lowest inequality level. Tunisia stands out on one point, however: it registers relatively low gender inequality

TABLE 41: PERCENTAGE OF BUSINESSES RUN BY WOMEN INVOLVED IN EXPORT, AS DETERMINED BY BUSINESS STATUS AND LEVEL OF WOMAN ENTREPRENEUR'S EDUCATION

Export	Newly founded business		Family-owned business	
	No university degree	University degree	No university degree	University degree
0%	73.02	63	58.18	55.88
<20%	8.84	19.66	14.55	18.63
20-50%	7.91	8.46	9.09	14.71
50-80%	7.91	4.23	10.91	6.86
>80%	2.33	3.38	-	2.94
100%	-	1.27	7.27	0.98

Note: percentage of respondents

TABLE 42: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS INVOLVED IN EXPORT, AS A FUNCTION OF NETWORK AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Export	Family network		Non-family network		No network	
	No university degree	University degree	No university degree	University degree	No university degree	University degree
0%	59.74	67.73	68.89	65	73.91	58.04
<20%	10.39	14.38	8.89	15	11.59	27.68
20-50%	10.39	8.63	11.11	15	5.8	5.36
50-80%	11.04	5.11	11.11	1.25	5.8	3.57
>80%	3.9	2.56	0	3.75	2.9	4.46
100%	4.55	1.6	0	0	0	0.89

Note: percentage of respondents

levels (with a score of 0.240), yet the percentage of women employed in businesses with a majority of male shareholders is relatively low compared to other countries in the sample (46.2%). (see Appendix B, Table 57)

Business size is also dependent on ownership structure. The family-run businesses managed by women are markedly smaller than those with mixed or male shareholder structure. In Egypt, for instance, family-owned businesses in which the shareholder structure is composed of a majority of women employ approximately three times fewer employees (5.2) compared to businesses in which shareholders are men (14.5) or with a male-female shareholder structure (18.6). This gap, which increases together with the governance structure, can also be found in newly founded businesses. The businesses in which shareholders are women are significantly smaller than businesses in which shareholder structure is made up primarily of men. Several different explanations can be put forth to explain this gap. The first explanation refers to the firm's financing, which is more restricted when the business is managed by women. 42.92% of the women in the sample report that accessing financing is more difficult for women. The second explanation has to do with a lack of credibility that holds back women entrepreneurs in these countries, making it more difficult for them to gain access to networks or qualified employees. 47.93% of the women entrepreneurs in the sample responded that it is more difficult for a woman entrepreneur to be taken seriously compared to a man.

III.1.3 PERFORMANCE ON THE EXPORT MARKET

Performance on the export market varies in accordance with the level of the women entrepreneurs' education and status of their businesses (family or newly founded). The family-owned businesses export more, on average, than newly founded businesses. Around 45% of the family-owned businesses in our sample export, compared to only 33% of newly-founded businesses.

Educated women entrepreneurs export more on average than their less educated counterparts. Out of the newly founded businesses, 73.02% of the businesses headed by less educated women are not involved in export, compared to only 63% of those led by educated women entrepreneurs. To a lesser extent, the same disparity can be found in the panel of family-owned businesses. 58.18% of women entrepreneurs without a degree are not involved in export, compared to only 55.8% of educated women entrepreneurs.

Network involvement also influences performance in the export market. The women entrepreneurs with the weakest export performance are those with no network and with no university degree (73.91% of this segment do not export). Women without a university degree have the highest export performance when they have the benefit of a family network (59.72% of those with a family network do not export, as compared to 69.89% without a family network, but with a network outside the family structure).

In contrast, women with a university degree perform better on the export market when they do not have a network, or a network outside the family network (only 58.04% and 65% of women entrepreneurs, respectively, do not engage in export). The network effect appears to influence performance on the export market differently, depending on education level. The network effect is particularly strong for less educated women.

III.1.4 BUSINESS CAPACITY TO PROVIDE REMUNERATION FOR ITS LEADER

This section analyses entrepreneurial performance in terms of business profitability. More specifically, we analyse the percentage of women who pay themselves a regular salary derived from their firm's income.

TABLE 43: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN WHO PAY THEMSELVES A REGULAR SALARY

	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Services	Trade	Craft
Egypt	50.00	52.17	27.27	41.18	34.00
Jordan	50.00	47.06	41.18	42.86	33.33
Lebanon	25.00	45.00	46.81	40.63	23.08
Morocco	83.33	95.65	68.82	76.47	75.00
Palestine	14.29	41.18	41.46	34.62	32.97
Tunisia	17.86	57.69	50.00	34.62	25.53

Note: percentage of respondents

Regardless of sector, Morocco is the country with the highest percentage of women entrepreneurs able to provide themselves with regular remuneration from among the countries in the sample. In contrast, in Palestine a particularly low percentage of women is able to provide themselves with a regular salary. Only 14.29% of women in the agriculture sector are able to derive regular pay from their entrepreneurial activity.

Examining all the countries, the craft sector has the lowest rate of regularly remunerated women entrepreneurs, while in the manufacturing sector the majority of women are able to enjoy remuneration through their entrepreneurial activities. For instance, in the Moroccan manufacturing sector, 95.65% of women

are able to derive remuneration from their entrepreneurial activities. These sector specific differences appear to be related to the proportion of businesses registered in each sector.

Businesses not formally listed with the Registry of Commerce are more frequent in the craft sector (32.58%), merchant activity (39.66%) and agriculture (30.77%), and are less frequent in the manufacturing industry (19.81%), which may explain the high percentage of women able to secure their remuneration from the manufacturing sector.

TABLE 44: PERCENTAGE OF NON-REGISTERED BUSINESSES, BY SECTOR

Agriculture	30.77
Manufacturing industry	19.81
Services	17.42
Trade	39.66
Craft	32.58

As mentioned in the first chapter, women entrepreneurs who are married and educated remunerate themselves more regularly than do married, less educated women, with the exception of Egyptian and Moroccan women⁵. The opposite trend is found in single women. Single, less educated women secure their own remuneration more in proportion to single, educated women, with the exception of Tunisian women and, to a lesser extent, Lebanese women, where remuneration for single educated women is slightly lower.

TABLE 45: PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS REGULARLY ABLE TO DERIVE REMUNERATION FROM THEIR BUSINESS, BY DEGREE AND MARITAL STATUS

	No university degree		University degree	
	Single	Married	Single	Married
Egypt	71.40	60.00	26.30	50.00
Jordan	25.00	37.10	47.30	40.00
Lebanon	29.10	45.33	25.00	51.52
Morocco	80.80	90.00	64.90	72.90
Palestine	44.40	28.20	41.90	34.60
Tunisia	29.10	32.10	50.00	37.50

Note: percentage of respondents

These disparities can be partly ascribed to differences in time spent in association networks, which vary by level of education. This study has found that single, less educated women spend more time in networks than do their counterparts with degrees (except in Lebanon and Morocco), which explains the superior performance of single, less educated women. This hypothesis is also confirmed in part by the time that married and educated women spend in association networks in connection with their entrepreneurial activities. Married and educated women dedicate more hours per week compared to married and less educated women. The latter are, proportionally, less remunerated than their educated counterparts. Thus there appears to be a connection between involvement in association networks

⁵It should be noted, however, that the number of less-educated women observed in Egypt is particularly low.

and business performance, in terms of the ability of businesses to generate regular income for their leaders. Involvement in association networks can not only help businesses expand in order to secure profits, but it can also reflect greater entrepreneurial engagement on the part of those categories of female entrepreneurs.

TABLE 46: TIME SPENT WEEKLY IN ASSOCIATION NETWORKS

	No university degree		University degree	
	Single	Married	Single	Married
Egypt	10.000	20.000	8.953	9.444
Jordan	8.333	10.000	7.424	6.206
Lebanon	5.000	6.666	7.307	16.333
Morocco	5.909	5.909	6.400	6.562
Palestine	13.333	8.636	9.146	7.982
Tunisia	16.000	10.789	8.500	11.000

Note: the time spent is an average based on an extrapolation of the number of hours spent in association networks. We ascribed a value of 5 hours to women reporting that they spent less than 10 hours in the networks, a value of 15 hours to those reporting between 10 hours and 20 hours, and a value of 35 hours to women reporting that they spent more than 20 hours there.

III.1.5 GROWTH TARGET

Among the educated women entrepreneurs, recruitment targets are higher for single women, with the exception of Palestine and Tunisia, where only 32.81% and 38.78% of single women plan to hire in the upcoming year (compared to 46.25% and 43.28% of married women).

The opposite trend is found among less educated women. Recruitment objectives for less educated single women are, on average, lower than those of married women. Lebanon and

Jordan are the exception, where 20% and 41.67% respectively, of single surveyed women entrepreneurs reported their intent to recruit in the upcoming year (compared to 9.88% and 10.71% of married women).

Regardless of education level, single women have higher ambitions compared to married women in terms of capital growth. Palestine and Lebanon are the exception, where 55.81% and 50.62% respectively, of married women report intentions to increase capital (compared to only 26.32% and 38.18% of single women).

Export aspirations are nearly identical among educated women, regardless of their marital status and level of education, with the exception of less educated Palestinian and Tunisian women. Single Palestinian women have greater aspirations to export (57.89%) compared to married women (39.53%). In Tunisia, the opposite is true since 9.38% of single women have export growth targets, compared to 15.09% of married women.

Overall, it appears that educated women have higher growth aspirations compared to less educated women, targets that grow even higher on average when the woman is single.

III.2 ENTREPRENEURIAL DEDICATION

What are the reasons behind differences in entrepreneurial performance? Does entrepreneurial engagement differ depending on education or marital status? Is access to family networks and networks outside the family influenced by marital status and/or level of education? Do networks influence growth targets?

This section aims to analyse the factors determining entrepreneurial dedication among women entrepreneurs across the countries in the sample.

TABLE 47: GROWTH TARGETS BY DEGREE AND MARITAL STATUS (PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS)

		No university degree		University degree	
		Single	Married	Single	Married
Egypt	Recruit	28.57	50.00	36.08	27.12
	Carry out capital increase	42.86	0.00	38.14	27.12
	Increase export	0.00	0.00	21.65	25.42
Jordan	Recruit	41.67	10.71	45.00	41.58
	Carry out capital increase	50.00	46.43	36.67	26.73
	Increase export	0.00	3.57	28.33	25.74
Lebanon	Recruit	20.00	9.88	30.30	15.15
	Carry out capital increase	38.18	50.62	21.21	36.36
	Increase export	7.27	6.17	12.12	9.09
Morocco	Recruit	26.92	58.54	45.61	41.33
	Carry out capital increase	30.77	34.15	43.86	40.00
	Increase export	38.46	36.59	21.05	26.67
Palestine	Recruit	36.84	44.19	32.81	46.25
	Carry out capital increase	26.32	55.81	31.25	51.25
	Increase export	57.89	39.53	28.13	27.50
Tunisia	Recruit	28.13	28.30	38.78	43.28
	Carry out capital increase	50.00	41.51	53.06	49.25
	Increase export	9.38	15.09	32.65	35.82

Note: Percentage of respondents

III.2.1 DIFFERENCES BASED ON SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Entrepreneurial dedication varies according to marital status and level of education. On average, in all countries in the sample, with the exception of Lebanon, women with degrees dedicate more time to their businesses than do women without degrees. Tunisian and Lebanese women work the most hours per week out of the six countries analysed (48h/week on average, for Lebanese women, and 46h/week for Tunisian women).

There are also differences depending on marital status. Among the educated women, those who are single work an average of two additional hours per week compared to their married counterparts (with the exception of Lebanon, where married women work an average of 5 hours more per week than do single women). Among the less educated women, the number of hours dedicated to entrepreneurial activity is also higher in single women from all countries across the sample, with the exception of Palestine (42 hours for single women and 46 hours for married women) and Tunisia (38 hours for single women and 42.5% hours for married women). This difference can be attributed to the greater flexibility that single women enjoy. With no family for which to provide, they are able to fully dedicate themselves to their entrepreneurial activities. The level of engagement of educated and single women is particularly noticeable in Morocco, where this segment dedicates an average of five additional hours to business, compared to married women.

The second variable that captures entrepreneurial dedication is the presence of another salaried activity. Where entrepreneurial activity is not the woman's main activity, this is indicative of a lower degree of entrepreneurial engagement. Women with a university degree spend more time carrying out their entrepreneurial activities and have better-performing activities. Paradoxically, however, an average of one out of every two educated women exercises another salaried activity alongside her entrepreneurial activities, more so that less educated women. In Egypt, approximately 15% of less educated women have another salaried activity, compared to approximately 50% of educated women. This difference can be seen across all countries in the sample. In Lebanon, very few women without a university degree are involved in another salaried activity (3.64% of single women and 7.41% of married women), while approximately 47% of educated women are involved in another activity while managing their business. In Palestine, women without a degree have higher activity levels than women in Lebanon. Approximately 30% of Palestinian women are involved in another activity, but that percentage remains far lower than what is observed in the sample of educated women (approximately 50% of educated women are involved in another salaried activity). (see Appendix B, Table 58)

What then are the reasons behind these differences in entrepreneurial dedication based on education levels and marital status? Are there differences based on the firm's ownership structure or location (home-based or outside)? Are educated women more likely to head newly-founded firms, which are less likely to bring in regular revenue? Do educated women head family businesses or are they part of a multi-shareholder structure that gives them a secondary role in the business? The following paragraphs offer a first interpretation of the survey's findings, in order to shed light on the characteristics specific to married, educated women vis-à-vis entrepreneurial engagement.

Entrepreneurial dedication, according to business location and ownership structure

The following chart demonstrates entrepreneurial engagement

indicators, according to type of entrepreneurship (multi-shareholder or home-based). (see Appendix B, Table 59)

Women entrepreneurs working from home are for the most part less invested in their businesses and more involved in supplementary activity alongside their entrepreneurial work. Among women with a university degree, 50% of those who work home-based have an additional salaried activity, compared to only 43% of those working outside the home. This variation is also observed in less educated women entrepreneurs. Among less educated women, the women entrepreneurs who are least engaged in their entrepreneurial activity are married women working at home (27.9% of them also have another salaried activity). This variation by marital status can be attributed to the fact that married women are more able to rely on their husbands' capacity to provide for family needs. As a result, they do not need to exercise additional salaried activities, except in cases where the activity is minor and run from the home.

In contrast, the most dedicated women are those who are married and who have premises specific to their entrepreneurial activity (only 9.8% of them have another salaried activity). Having premises specific to the business appears to be a sign of greater entrepreneurial commitment, regardless of marital status.

As a second step, the analysis will look at these differences as a function of business ownership structure (multi-shareholder or single shareholder). When entrepreneurial activity is adequately developed and has premises specific to the business, single educated women running businesses with multiple shareholders are more invested in their entrepreneurial activities (35.4%) compared to their married counterparts. In contrast, when single women have less developed entrepreneurial activities, that are home-based, they need to rely more on supplementary salaried activities (63.9%) compared to married women (57.1%). Both of these findings can be linked to a greater need for monthly income on the part of single women. Where they are involved in a well-developed business, with its own premises, they are highly engaged in their business. On the other hand, when their business continues to be home-based, they need to rely more on a supplementary source of income, compared to their married counterparts.

Overall, we can clearly conclude that women running home-based businesses are less dedicated to their businesses than women with premises specific to their entrepreneurial activity (38 hours weekly, on average, compared to 45 hours). In addition, the women most engaged in their entrepreneurial activities are less educated single women who are the sole shareholders of their business.

Entrepreneurial dedication, according to experience in the business, location and ownership structure

The key point in the analysis above lies less in differences based on marital status, and much more on changes in entrepreneurial dedication—as evidenced by women entrepreneurs' decision to turn to an additional salaried activity—between educated and less educated women. As detailed in the above chapter, the differences in entrepreneurial dedication can come, first, from the decision to start a business as a “back-up” activity intended primarily as a means of supplementing existing income, and second, from differences resulting from the firm's level of development. Entrepreneurship can be nascent, or in the development stage, during which time it is not possible to secure permanent, regular and adequate revenue, thus making it necessary to turn to another salaried activity. Lastly, the lesser entrepreneurial engagement on the part of educated women can be a direct result of the women's role in the business. Some women entrepreneurs are not able to play more than an assistance or advi-

sory role in the business, rather than a prominent leading role. This also results in lower remuneration for the woman entrepreneur, reflecting her actual duties.

An initial reading of Table 58 (Appendix B) demonstrates that educated women entrepreneurs dedicate far more time to their businesses and do not appear to play a secondary or minor part in managing these businesses. To take this hypothesis a step further, it is interesting to measure the share of educated women in multi-shareholder firms, as well as the percentage of educated women in family-owned companies. The hypothesis underlying this analysis is that work in a family-owned or multi-shareholder business offers greater opportunity to turn to another salaried activity insofar as other actors can play an active part in managing the business, thus making it possible for the woman to forego regular physical presence in the business in order to be involved in salaried activity at the same time.

In Jordan and Palestine (Table 48), the percentage of educated women is far higher in multi-shareholder businesses than that of less educated women. 61.7% and 67.24% of educated women work in multi-shareholder businesses, as compared to only 26.32% and 34.29% of less educated women in Jordan and Palestine, respectively. In the other countries, the percentages of women working in multi-shareholder and single-shareholder businesses are relatively similar, in relation to the level of education. The hypothesis that educated women entrepreneurs are less dedicated because they have the opportunity to rely on other shareholders to manage their business is thus only partially confirmed.

As a second step, we have identified the share of educated women in family-owned businesses (Table 49). This analysis brings to light the hypothesis that certain women entrepreneurs use

the family-owned business as a supplementary source of revenue, even when it is not their main activity. The family-owned business can be considered “back-up” entrepreneurship where women play only a secondary part, assisting and providing support to the business.

The hypothesis that educated women are more likely to turn to salaried work due to their involvement in a family-owned business is thus only partially verified. Only Egypt, Jordan and Palestine have a higher percentage of educated women in family enterprises compared to less educated women. The difference is particularly large in Palestine, where 22.4% of educated women work in family-owned businesses, as compared to only 8.62% of less educated women.

As a third step, the experience in the business and the level of education will be measured (Table 50). This analysis allows for the testing of the assumption that educated women are proportionally more likely to head newly founded businesses compared to less educated women. Heading a newly founded business could also make it harder for women to earn a regular income from their involvement in the business. This in turn might require them to take on additional salaried work in order to secure revenue.

Aside from the case of Egypt, all educated women in the sample have spent significantly less time in their business than less educated women. It should also be noted that the number of less educated women in the Egyptian sample is particularly low, which could explain the difference in that country's statistic. It thus appears that educated women are more engaged in newly founded businesses, which cannot offer them a regular salary, making them more likely to become involved in a supplementary salaried activity.

TABLE 48: PERCENTAGE OF EDUCATED AND LESS EDUCATED WOMEN IN MULTI- AND SINGLE-SHAREHOLDER BUSINESSES

	Egypt		Jordan		Lebanon		Morocco		Palestine		Tunisia	
	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E
Single-shareholder	18.18	24.17	73.68	38.3	54.84	44.9	46.88	56.35	65.71	32.76	53.95	50
Multi-shareholder	81.82	75.83	26.32	61.7	45.16	55.1	53.13	43.65	34.29	67.24	46.05	50

Note: the LE column reflects the sample of less educated women (LE), and the E column the sample of educated women (E). The figures in the table show the percentage of respondents in each category.

TABLE 49: PERCENTAGE OF EDUCATED AND NON-EDUCATED WOMEN IN FAMILY-OWNED AND NEWLY FOUNDED BUSINESSES

	Egypt		Jordan		Lebanon		Morocco		Palestine		Tunisia	
	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E
Newly founded business	87.5	81.51	90.91	87.74	78.74	85.96	62.96	79.67	91.38	77.6	73.77	84
Family business	12.5	18.49	9.09	12.26	21.26	14.04	37.04	20.33	8.62	22.4	26.23	16

Note: the LE column reflects the sample of less educated women (LE), and the E column the sample of educated women (E). The figures in the table show the percentage of respondents in each category.

TABLE 50: EXPERIENCE IN THE BUSINESS AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION

	Egypt		Jordan		Lebanon		Morocco		Palestine		Tunisia	
	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E	LE	E
Time spent in the business	3.667	7.332	13.128	11.1	9.81	6.92	14.88	8.31	7.56	6.71	12.87	7.64

Note: the LE column reflects the sample of less educated women (LE), and the E column the sample of educated women (E). The figures in the table show the percentage of respondents in each category.

Entrepreneurial dedication according to type of financing

In this paragraph, we analyse the differences in entrepreneurial engagement as a function of business financing (by bank credit or equity).

Differences in entrepreneurial dedication as measured by the share of women involved in another salaried activity can be seen as a function of the level of education. Less educated women are more committed to their entrepreneurial activity when they have financed their business using equity capital, while educated women are more committed when they have taken out bank credit. This difference also highlights the necessity for less educated women entrepreneurs to combine their entrepreneurial business with another salaried activity when they have to reimburse monthly bank credit instalments.

There is also a difference in behaviour, defined by the taking part in a salaried activity, by marital status and by the type of financing used for the business. Single women are more engaged in their businesses when they have taken out credit, while married women are more committed when they have financed their business using their own equity. This difference in entrepreneurial effort is particularly noticeable in educated single women. The latter are far more invested than educated married women, when they have taken out bank credit. Only 37.9% of this segment have another salaried activity, compared to only 46.3% of educated single women who financed their business using equity capital. This difference as a function of marital status can be attributed to the origin of equity capital, which likely came from the husband or other family member, in cases where the woman entrepreneur is married. Thus married women can be subject to greater family pressure to ensure their business survives and develops. In contrast, single women, who do not have financial support from a husband, are more motivated to invest time and energy in their business, particularly when it has been financed by bank credit.

There are also differences in behaviour in terms of time spent in the business. Less educated and educated women spend more time in their business when it was started using bank credit. Educated women spend an average of 42 hours per week in their business in cases where it was started thanks to equity capital, compared to 47.5 hours per week in cases where it was started using bank credit. This difference is not as evident in the sample of less educated women, who spend approximately 45 hours per week in their business in cases where they have financed it using credit, in contrast to only 44 hours per week in cases where the business has been financed using equity.

Overall, single women who have financed their company using bank credit work more for their business than do married women or those having financed their business using capital equity. They are also more likely to have a salaried activity on the side, particularly in cases where they are less educated. We consequently emphasise the need to support entrepreneurship for less educated women, especially when their business is loan-financed, so that they can dedicate more time to their entrepreneurial activities.

III.2.2 NETWORK

Less educated single women have a non-family network that is far larger than that of married women, most likely because single women have a more limited family circle and need to build relationships in a broader perimeter than that of family alone. In Jordan and Palestine, for instance, 37.5% and 46.15% of less educated single respondents reported having a non-family net-

work, as compared to only 23.08% and 27.5% of married respondents, respectively. The gap in access to a non-family network among educated women, in relation to marital status, while not significant in Morocco, Palestine, and Tunisia, is more pronounced in Egypt, Jordan and Lebanon, where single educated women have greater access to networks outside the family than married women.

Within the sample of educated women entrepreneurs, single women have a much larger family network compared to married women, except in Lebanon and Jordan. Among less educated women, the proportion with a family network does not substantially differ for single and married women, except in Tunisia, where married women are more likely to report having a family network compared to their single counterparts.

III.2.3 ENTREPRENEURIAL SATISFACTION

Women entrepreneurs are more satisfied in entrepreneurship when working outside the home, especially when they hold a degree. Out of the entrepreneurs working outside the home, only 9.8% of women with degrees made use of credit, and 15.1% of women with a degree having financed their business using equity capital would be interested in securing salaried work in the public or private sector.

Furthermore, among less educated women entrepreneurs, those who financed their businesses using equity capital are more satisfied than women relying on bank credit. 16.9% of less educated women working outside the home and 35.7% of home-based working women report wishing to have a salaried job to replace their entrepreneurial activity when the activity is financed using equity capital, compared to 21.7% and 42.3% of women (outside the home and at home, respectively) when the business is financed by credit. The opposite is observed among educated women. They are more satisfied when their business is financed using credit. This difference as a function of level of education can be attributed to the greater ease with which educated women secure credit, expand their business and thus reimburse their credit, compared to non-educated women.

Whereas less educated women are assumed to be more likely to give up their entrepreneurial activity to secure salaried work in the public or private sector, they are also more ready to recognise that entrepreneurship is an absolute necessity for success. These figures show the positive vision of entrepreneurship among less educated women, but also underscore that they are in greater need of assistance, especially when their business is less developed, maintained at home and financed by credit.



TABLE 51: NETWORK AS A FUNCTION OF MARITAL STATUS AND DEGREE (% OF RESPONDENTS)

		No university degree		University degree	
		Single	Married	Single	Married
Egypt	No network	66.67	0.00	21.52	15.09
	Family network	0.00	66.67	59.49	56.60
	Network outside the family	0.00	0.00	25.00	18.87
Jordan	No network	12.50	23.08	28.30	30.77
	Family network	62.50	61.54	54.72	60.44
	Network outside the family	37.50	23.08	24.53	17.58
Lebanon	No network	33.33	30.65	16.67	6.25
	Family network	55.56	54.84	66.67	81.25
	Network outside the family	8.33	9.68	23.33	18.75
Morocco	No network	4.00	10.00	18.18	8.82
	Family network	68.00	67.50	70.91	58.82
	Network outside the family	64.00	60.00	49.09	52.94
Palestine	No network	15.38	17.50	12.96	14.86
	Family network	69.23	70.00	72.22	68.92
	Network outside the family	46.15	27.50	24.07	22.97
Tunisia	No network	28.13	18.75	14.29	26.23
	Family network	56.25	68.75	73.81	63.93
	Network outside the family	18.75	10.42	21.43	22.95

TABLE 52: ENTREPRENEURIAL SATISFACTION AS A FUNCTION OF TYPE OF FINANCING, LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND STATUS OF PREMISES

		Outside the home		Inside the home	
Type of financing		No degree	University degree	No degree	University degree
Equity capital	Frequency	172	351	70	125
	Desire to have a salaried job	16.90	15.10	35.70	33.60
	Recommendation regarding entrepreneurship				
	Never	3.50	1.10	4.30	1.60
	Yes, it is an absolute necessity for success	68.00	43.90	60.00	40.00
Credit	Consider starting a business, but...	19.20	35.30	24.30	22.40
	Frequency	92	183	26	16
	Desire to have a salaried job	21.70	9.80	42.30	25.00
	Recommendation regarding entrepreneurship				
	Never	3.30	1.60	0.00	0.00
Credit	Yes, it is an absolute necessity for success	58.70	53.00	65.40	56.30
	Consider starting a business, but...	29.30	29.00	15.40	43.80

There are also differences based on marital status. Single women are more likely (on average 19%) than married women (on average 25%) to report that they are interested in a salaried job, except for educated women who started their business with their own equity.

The difference observed by marital status can be attributed to the fact that it is easier for single women to reconcile their entrepreneurial activities with family life. This finding is confirmed only for single women with a low level of education, who are more likely (83.5%) than married women with a low level of education (80.9%) to assert that entrepreneurship has had a positive effect on their family life. Single women with a university

degree, in contrast, are less likely to see the positive effects of entrepreneurship on family life (71.6% of women entrepreneurs working outside the home and 69.9% of home-based women entrepreneurs). On the other hand 90.2% of married women with less education and 83.8% of married educated women responded positively to the question when their activity is home based. This finding should be put in perspective, however, since single women have less of a need to strike a work-life balance. Therefore, they are more likely to respond that they do not see a difference whether they are home-based or not (14.8% as regards women entrepreneurs working outside the home and 18.1% of those working home-based) than married women.

TABLE 53: ENTREPRENEURIAL SATISFACTION, ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF EDUCATION, TYPE OF FINANCING AND MARITAL STATUS

Marital status		Bank credit		Equity capital	
		No degree	University degree	No degree	University degree
Single	Frequency	96	227	35	87
	Desire to have a salaried job	21.90	17.20	17.10	17.20
	Recommendation regarding entrepreneurship:				
	Never	5.20	2.20	0.00	2.30
	Yes, it is an absolute necessity for success	60.40	41.40	54.30	56.30
Married	Consider starting a business, but...	22.90	31.30	37.10	34.50
	Frequency	150	269	83	114
	Desire to have a salaried job	21.30	22.70	31.30	8.80
	Recommendation regarding entrepreneurship:				
	Never	2.70	0.70	6.00	0.90
Married	Yes, it is an absolute necessity for success	69.30	43.90	61.40	50.90
	Consider starting a business, but...	20.00	31.60	21.70	27.20

TABLE 54: PERCEPTION OF WORK/LIFE BALANCE BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION, MARITAL STATUS AND STATUS OF PREMISES

Marital status		Outside the home		Inside the home	
		No degree	University degree	No degree	University degree
Single	Frequency	109	257	38	83
	Positively	83.50	71.60	84.20	69.90
	Negatively	5.50	7.80	5.30	4.80
	No difference	9.20	14.80	7.90	18.10
Married	Frequency	183	331	61	68
	Positively	80.90	84.60	90.20	83.80
	Negatively	3.30	6.00	1.60	4.40
	No difference	13.10	6.00	6.60	7.40

RECOMMENDATIONS

All the while bearing in mind the biases that have been underscored throughout this report, this survey's results bring to light major lessons on the basis of which general recommendations can be issued, for the MENA countries and, more specifically, for each of the six countries studied.

These recommendations pertain to different levels. First, in order to bring about better suited and more effective public policies to promote and develop women's entrepreneurship in these countries, it is vital that regular, reliable information be made available about the status and development of this activity. Second, women's entrepreneurship needs to be assessed through its antecedents (motivations, perceptions, etc.) and consequences (contributions to growth, job creation, etc.). Thus, as a next step, we will make recommendations that suggest adjustments to the systems that incentivise, support and develop women's entrepreneurship in the MENA countries.

IV.1 IMPROVING THE INFORMATION SYSTEM ON WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN MENA COUNTRIES

The survey scheme, that closely involved women's associations and women business leaders from the different countries, allowed to collect extensive first hand data from the ground. The survey brings to light major lessons and gives a new understanding into how women entrepreneurs in MENA see themselves and how they believe others see them, helping policymakers to get a clearer picture of perceptions and expectations. This is true even where the work sample is affected by certain selection and representativeness biases due to the presence of specific features of those women's professional associations who organised the administration of the questionnaire.

Moreover, while spot assessment is a major step forward, it cannot be described as an effective assessment tool on its own. Longitudinal follow-up, modelled after the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) for instance, would make it possible to measure developments over time and to take more effective action on sustainable performance drivers.

It is then recommended to set up a dynamic assessment tool for women's entrepreneurship. A GEM specifically designed for women's entrepreneurship and MENA countries could become a tool that offers, over time and across space, multiple opportunities to compare and track the development of the trend. The creation of an "Observatory on Women's Entrepreneurship in the MENA Countries" could also prove beneficial.

For both options, the programs could be financed by the countries involved as well as by international partner institutions. Future schemes could include all stakeholders: the public authorities, women's associations, university research laboratories, international institutions, etc. These systems would encourage and facilitate the production of knowledge (research projects, theses, etc.) on women's entrepreneurship, by focusing work on major concerns as highlighted by regularly conducted surveys.

For example, "Why do women entrepreneurs in MENA countries create businesses and jobs primarily in the trade, service and craft sectors?"; "How can they be encouraged to start businesses more frequently in the industrial and high value-added services sectors?"; "Which women entrepreneur profiles are most likely to opt for starting and developing a business in those key sectors?"; and "What types of results and performance levels do those businesses achieve?"

IV.2 PROMOTING WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND FACILITATING ENTREPRENEURIAL BEHAVIOURS IN WOMEN

Certain policy measures in the field of entrepreneurship can offer a more attractive and conducive institutional framework for women.

IV.2.1 COMMUNICATE, VIA THE MEDIA, ABOUT WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP, ITS CONTRIBUTIONS AND THE ROLES OF WOMEN IN MENA COUNTRIES

One series of measures could consist, for instance, of communications (including poster campaigns) that give exposure to women entrepreneurs' role models and showing that starting a business has become an easy (or easier) undertaking for women. Promoting women's entrepreneurship and facilitating access to entrepreneurship for women also implies bringing about a change in the way women's roles are perceived (woman, mother, employee, entrepreneur, etc.) and providing them with the means needed to achieve balance in their personal / family / work lives. More specific communications measures (media, poster campaigns) could focus on these questions. The Nord-Pas-de-Calais Region, in France, for example, ran communications campaigns for years to promote entrepreneurship, starting a business and entrepreneurial behaviours in general⁶. In Quebec, in particular, television programmes feature successful women entrepreneurs and the businesses they created. Inspiration can be drawn from these practices to develop communications initiatives geared toward women's entrepreneurship and tailored to the context, in particular the cultural context, of MENA countries.

IV.2.2 DEVELOP BETTER SUITED INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORKS

Adjustments to existing formal institutional frameworks for incentivising / supporting entrepreneurship should focus priority on:

- » access to financing
- » access to new markets (public markets, major corporations, international markets);
- » recruitment facilitation (e.g., recruitment bonuses, reduced employer charges);

⁶ The surrounding communications campaigns were not assessed to "measure" their direct effects, however. The question of programme, measure or policy assessment remains complex, however, and should be made the focus of specific studies.

In addition, in order to enable women to have access to useful contacts, general information and specific information on entrepreneurship, the creation and development of women's entrepreneur networks should be encouraged and facilitated⁷. To draw from the experience of other women and men entrepreneurs who have experienced the same situations, and faced similar challenges and problems can be the remedy for the lack of experience women cite as a major barrier to entrepreneurship.

IV.2.3 DEVELOP AND ASSESS THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHING ABOUT ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES

Promoting women's entrepreneurship is also a matter of education. Specifically tailored educational programmes and initiatives could be designed and developed (potentially getting inspiration from what is being done in other countries like Finland and Canada, specifically Quebec) in the MENA countries to target school-age girls (lower and upper secondary school), to raise their awareness of entrepreneurship and its social and economic importance. In the final year of secondary school and in universities, programmes could place more focus on developing entrepreneurial skills, since the survey results showed that the respondents identified "lack of skill" and "lack of entrepreneurial experience" as major obstacles to starting a business. In light of this, MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses) dedicated to female entrepreneurship could be offered specifically to women in the MENA countries, on topics such as taking advantage of or identifying entrepreneurial opportunities for women. Education in general, and entrepreneurial training more specifically, are thus key factors for developing and qualitatively improving female entrepreneurship in the MENA countries.

Developing teaching and training programmes is a first step. Assessing the programmes' effectiveness and actual impact, measured in terms of changes in perception and intention, of knowledge gained, and of development of behaviours useful for entrepreneurship, is just as important in our view. Thus, we recommend that teaching and training programmes be developed together with the implementation of schemes and tools designed to measure their effectiveness in three areas: learning, transformation of learning into entrepreneurial behaviours, results of those behaviours at the organisational and societal levels.

In addition to the recommendations regarding quantitative development of teaching and training programmes in entrepreneurship, we would therefore insist on the need to develop and organise qualification programmes (for entrepreneurial content and teaching techniques) for teachers, educators and trainers. All the different training activities should take into account the specificities of the target group of women. In fact, the concept of the educational model found in educational sciences, highlights, the need to take into account the characteristics, background and psychological profile of the target populations (in this case, schoolgirls or female university students), as a significant didactic dimension interacting with other dimensions: objectives, instructional methods, content and assessment.

IV.2.4 TARGET PUBLIC POLICIES IN ACCORDANCE WITH SITUATIONS AND PROFILES

Lastly, we feel that public policies in favour of female entrepreneurship need to be targeted in accordance with identified needs and priorities. A distinction needs to be made, at the motivational level, between "push" and "pull" motivations.

⁷The women entrepreneurs surveyed emphasise that one stumbling block on the way to entrepreneurship is the "lack of support services to businesses" (Table 31) and that major obstacles to starting a business include the "lack of information", "lack of contacts", and "lack of assistance" (Table 19).

"Push" motivations are connected with unemployment, job loss, or even inadequate income, which drive individuals into necessity-based entrepreneurship. In such cases support (in large part, psychological) and financing (micro-credit and VSB credit) are likely needed. "Pull" motivations are connected with opportunity-based entrepreneurship. Individuals with "pull" motivations are more likely to contribute to the creation of economic and social wealth. Promoting and facilitating female necessity-based entrepreneurship offers a response to needs for insertion and integration, while supporting opportunity-based female entrepreneurship aims at satisfying needs for job creation, economic growth, and export or technological development, to name a few.

Needs and priorities can also be shaped by the specific form of entrepreneurship: continuation of an existing family-owned business, social entrepreneurship or NGO creation, academic or other start-up, revitalisation of large SMEs and major corporations (organisational entrepreneurship). Thus we recommended to design or re-design women-focused public policies taking into account this diverse range of targets and situations, and adapting aid, support and financing schemes accordingly.

IV.3 ESTABLISHING THE CONDITIONS NEEDED FOR LONG-TERM, WEALTH-CREATING WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Motivating and supporting women to become entrepreneurs through cultural and economic mechanisms, are necessary steps in countries with a relatively low women's entrepreneurship rate. These steps alone are not sufficient, however. Entrepreneurial behaviours, once facilitated, must concretely result in the creation of lasting jobs and the development of enterprises that generate economic growth and innovation. The following recommendations are designed with these goals in mind.

IV.3.1 FOSTER ACCESS TO ENTREPRENEURIAL "KNOW-HOW" FOR WOMEN WHILE MAKING UNIVERSITIES MORE "ENTREPRENEURIAL"

Making universities more entrepreneurial and turning them into "hotbeds of entrepreneurial culture" implies first: developing a range of courses and programmes in entrepreneurship aimed at honing entrepreneurial skills, creating incubators to support project owners, setting up (and/or ramping up) technology transfer and research promotion schemes through academic start-ups, providing start-up funds, and mushrooming public-private partnerships, to list only a few of the most important dimensions. As was previously mentioned, simply implementing these schemes is not enough; they must also be subjected to an assessment that concretely measures their effects.

The survey findings showed that women entrepreneurs with university degrees create more jobs, are more engaged in their business, have higher growth targets and aspirations, and are more inclined to implement export strategies. This greater inclination toward export can be attributed to their superior proficiency in foreign languages and greater openness to other cultures. Looking at this issue from another angle raises the question of what kind of assistance should be provided to those women entrepreneurs who did not benefit from such training? One option could be to hold training sessions on the administrative and practical aspects of export and/or incentivise them to use the services of agencies or structures specialised in export assistance. Furthermore, training focused on foreign lan-

guage proficiency, in particular English, and on commercial negotiations with counterparts from different cultures, could help foster the development of those skills most needed for export activities.

Facilitated access to university training could have counter-productive effects, which need to be kept under control. Our findings showed that women entrepreneurs who have graduated from a university are more likely to enter hybrid forms of entrepreneurship, combining an entrepreneurial position with a salaried job, as part of an opportunistic strategy aimed at maximising their revenue. One way of remedying these effects could be to connect entrepreneurial performance (job creation, innovation, export, sales revenue growth, material and immaterial investments in the business) with measures that lighten corporate profit tax, professional taxes and social contributions and charges.

One of the survey's blind spots results from the fact that it does not take into account the impact of the entrepreneurial training that could be provided to female university students and women entrepreneurs. Yet research shows that such training plays a significant part in developing entrepreneurial skills and company performance. Universities could, further to their third core aim, actively contribute to developing entrepreneurship in general and women entrepreneurship in particular, by offering:

- » cross-cutting entrepreneurship courses open to students from all disciplines and university degree programmes. Above and beyond entrepreneurship, these courses would also be aimed at improving future graduates' employability,
- » post-degree sessions that could support jobless female university graduates engage in entrepreneurship activities and train them in specific aspects,
- » entrepreneurship programmes specifically aimed at women entrepreneurs to help them qualitatively develop their entrepreneurial skills in particular with regard to international communication, networking, delegation, consulting and decision-making.

These training programmes should be run in conjunction with incubator structures, and should give priority to partnerships with associations and networks of professional players. They could be carried out through an experience-based learning paradigm and thus make it possible to tackle the lack of entrepreneurial experience and self-confidence that women consider as major barriers to female entrepreneurship.

IV.3.2 SUPPORT DEVELOPING BUSINESSES IN SPECIFIC SETTINGS: SEED COMPANY CLUSTERS, INCUBATORS, ENTREPRENEURSHIP CENTRES FOR WOMEN

These specifically-designed venues, which could be supplemented by co-working spaces for women, would help relieve the isolation too often felt by women entrepreneurs, especially those working from home. Some of these support structures could be specialised and dedicated to opportunity-based or innovative entrepreneurship, to list only two examples. A training and services offer could be rolled out for women entrepreneurs, helping them develop the entrepreneurial skills they lack and to assist / support them in their endeavours to innovate, hire employees and access new markets.

The benefits of such support mechanisms would in particular help secure greater dedication to (compared to home-based work) and satisfaction in the entrepreneurial undertaking. Admittedly, such structures already exist. Our recommendations pertain less to their quantitative development and much more to their qualitative development.

As mentioned before with respect to teaching and training, the effectiveness of these structures must be subjected to regular measurement and assessment. How are these structures supporting women entrepreneurs to improve the quality of their learning and to develop the skills needed, in light of their project development dynamics? How do they enable young businesses to survive, develop, grow and export?

Follow-up with women entrepreneurs and projects participating in these structures could be better organised, drawing on examples such as that of the *Entreprendre en France* network and its support mechanisms.

Just like teachers and instructors in universities, support providers need to be specifically trained, prepared for the wide range of situations which they will encounter, and qualified to carry out training. Providing support to entrepreneurs and women entrepreneurs in particular is a complex activity, charged with a significant human component, which requires an ability to identify the needs of women entrepreneurs and to adapt to them by changing support attitudes. In certain cases, the psychological dimension of support (with women engaged in necessity-based entrepreneurship, or at the head of failing businesses, for instance) is crucial toward achieving results. Support for women entrepreneurs has become a topic in and of itself in the field of entrepreneurship and is starting to benefit from high quality literature.

We feel that pilot experiments in creating business centres (or incubators) dedicated to women could be initiated and analysed to determine the opportunity, following a specific assessment, of extending this type of initiative to other places.

IV.3.3 GEAR WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP TOWARD INDUSTRIAL SECTORS AND SECTORS WITH HIGH VALUE ADDED

The survey results reveal that industrial businesses are particularly low in number, despite the fact that the women entrepreneurs in the sample are driven more by an opportunity-based entrepreneurial rationale. Yet the survey findings also show, unsurprisingly, that job and economic wealth creation are greater in the manufacturing industries.

Initiatives to guide women toward starting a business in an industrial sector with high added value could be implemented at an early upstream level. For instance, appropriate actions (such as teaching technological entrepreneurship) can be targeted toward female university (or doctoral) students in engineering schools or technological universities.

Facilitating contact between women who wish to become entrepreneurs and organisations granting patents for inventions and/or "dormant" business plans, could enable women to identify opportunities to create technological or industrial enterprises.

IV.3.4 BUILD OR REINFORCE ENTREPRENEURIAL ECOSYSTEMS IN STEP WITH THE LOCAL LEVEL

The resulting ecosystems would bring together all stakeholders within a single region or territory (universities, laboratory researchers, financing players, established businesses, support players, public authorities, media, etc.) and make it possible to create and expand businesses strongly anchored in professional and business networks. The survey findings show the extreme importance of networks, regardless of type (networks of women entrepreneurs, business leaders, corporate clubs, support groups, export assistance groups, etc.), in particular for women who do not have university training.



APPENDICES

A - EQUALITY OF MEANS TEST

In order to test the significance of differences in employment, according to marital status or level of education, we have run a Student Equality of Means test.

The student tests do not show any differences in size (in terms of number of employees) and proportion of women on payroll between different countries. Only Lebanon posts a significantly lower number of employees, and a significantly higher proportion of women compared to other countries in the sample. This finding is not surprising in that the characteristics of Lebanese businesses and women entrepreneurs differ significantly from the rest of the sample, as widely analysed in the first chapter.

While there are no significant differences between countries, the table does show differences in the level of education of women entrepreneurs. The businesses started by women with a university degree are significantly larger in size than those created by those without a degree. This result could be attributed to the more developed management skills and larger network typical of educated women.

While differences in level of education influence employment in businesses headed by women, differences in marital status explain the main differences in the proportion of women employed by women leaders. Single women are more likely to give preference to female employment than are married women, regardless of their level of education. An exception is to be noted in Lebanon, where married and educated women (37.5%) give priority to female employment compared to single educated women (12.73%).

TABLE 55: EQUALITY OF MEANS TEST

Country	Number of employees	Percentage of women
Egypt	t = -1.2287 [0.2195]	t = 3.0292 [0.0025]
Jordan	t = -1.2013 [0.2299]	t = 2.0130 [0.0444]
Lebanon	t = 3.8915 [0.000]	t = -5.5418 [0.000]
Morocco	t = -1.0234 [0.306]	t = 1.4760 [0.140]
Palestine	t = 0.4340 [0.644]	t = -3.1099 [0.002]
Tunisia	t = -0.7202 [0.472]	t = 1.0403 [0.298]
Marital status (married)	t = -1.5737 [0.1158]	t = 2.0749 [0.0383]
Education (university degree)	t = -2.8890 [0.0039]	t = -1.5737 [0.1158]

Note: t-test diff = mean(o) - mean(1), Ho: diff=0 - Pr(|T| > |t|) in brackets - firm < 50 employees

B - DETERMINANTS OF BUSINESS SURVIVAL AND DEVELOPMENT

TABLE 56: SIZE OF BUSINESS, ACCORDING TO MARITAL STATUS AND EDUCATION

		No university degree		University degree	
		Single	Married	Single	Married
Egypt	Frequency	6	6	79	53
	Number of employees	1.33	4	4.835	10.169
		[2.161]	[3.224]	[4.781]	[10.281]
	Percentage of women	1.000	0.786	0.635	0.475
		[0.000]	[0.307]	[0.305]	[0.316]
	Age	24.000	39.000	31.759	40.221
Jordan	Frequency	8	26	53	91
	Number of employees	1.375	4.038	7.264	9.615
		[1.061]	[5.347]	[8.232]	[10.564]
	Percentage of women	1.000	0.678	0.556	0.594
		[0.000]	[0.381]	[0.341]	[0.276]
	Age	43.750	47.769	37.843	43.518
Lebanon	Frequency	36	62	30	32
	Number of employees	1.361	1.387	2.233	4.031
		[1.692]	[2.511]	[3.988]	[5.533]
	Percentage of women	0.889	0.827	0.842	0.747
		[0.269]	[0.333]	[0.263]	[0.277]
	Age	43.000	43.356	38.286	39.032
Morocco	Frequency	25	40	55	68
	Number of employees	8.640	11.850	5.854	11.294
		[9.017]	[11.396]	[8.171]	[13.895]
	Percentage of women	0.733	0.578	0.652	0.617
		[0.231]	[0.274]	[0.311]	[0.266]
	Age	46.000	47.513	34.321	41.235
Palestine	Frequency	13	40	54	74
	Number of employees	2.846	4.701	5.871	8.284
		[1.405]	[7.377]	[9.441]	[11.459]
	Percentage of women	0.947	0.822	0.755	0.641
		[0.119]	[0.258]	[0.322]	[0.356]
	Age	43.333	40.703	31.274	40.324
Tunisia	Frequency	32	48	42	61
	Number of employees	7.937	7.291	7.095	11.885
		[12.692]	[8.102]	[9.057]	[11.361]
	Percentage of women	0.579	0.628	0.637	0.631
		[0.418]	[0.319]	[0.266]	[0.278]
	Age	45.531	46.739	33.795	44.311

Note: statistics applying to businesses with 0-50 employees. No university degree: primary, secondary or technological degree. Single: widowed, divorced or single. Standard deviation shown in brackets.

TABLE 57: SIZE OF BUSINESS ACCORDING TO GENDER OF ASSOCIATES AND OWNERSHIP STRUCTURE

		Multi-shareholder						Women entrepreneur only	
		Newly founded business			Family business			Newly founded	Fami-ly-owned
		Female	Male	Both	Female	Male	Both		
Egypt	Frequency	29.000	19.000	19.000	6.000	6.000	3.000	28.000	N/A
	Number of employees	3.241	8.684	6.947	5.167	14.500	18.667	3.821	N/A
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	4.611	8.603	4.262	3.488	6.863	14.572	4.595	N/A
	Percentage of women	0.721	0.447	0.656	0.610	0.267	0.524	0.650	N/A
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	0.310	0.383	0.247	0.388	0.174	0.082	0.247	N/A
Jordan	Frequency	21.000	36.000	11.000	2.000	3.000	4.000	70.000	4.000
	Number of employees	7.333	8.500	12.182	2.000	6.667	11.500	6.957	15.750
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	7.418	9.635	13.190	2.828	3.215	12.369	8.679	20.742
	Percentage of women	0.576	0.482	0.625	1.000	0.537	0.420	0.687	0.813
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	0.300	0.387	0.144	0.000	0.116	0.161	0.307	0.325
Lebanon	Frequency	9.000	9.000	2.000	2.000	10.000	N/A	52.000	1.000
	Number of employees	1.889	5.889	3.500	6.000	2.200	N/A	1.846	0.000
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	1.054	8.100	0.707	8.485	4.590	N/A	2.173	N/A
	Percentage of women	1.000	0.621	0.875	0.500	0.650	N/A	0.891	N/A
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	0.000	0.417	0.177	0.000	0.405	N/A	0.232	N/A
Morocco	Frequency	11.000	16.000	4.000	2.000	19.000	7.000	86.000	5.000
	Number of employees	5.182	7.875	28.750	7.000	17.632	30.857	5.860	6.800
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	4.215	7.924	19.738	1.414	13.330	15.900	8.800	5.762
	Percentage of women	0.714	0.492	0.714	0.479	0.438	0.532	0.687	0.681
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	0.252	0.295	0.194	0.206	0.186	0.156	0.299	0.380
Palestine	Frequency	34.000	13.000	2.000	5.000	9.000	7.000	53.000	4.000
	Number of employees	5.441	3.692	5.500	9.800	20.667	11.429	3.925	4.250
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	7.187	2.496	2.121	14.533	17.664	13.415	6.155	1.500
	Percentage of women	0.817	0.562	0.661	1.000	0.377	0.462	0.806	0.608
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	0.225	0.331	0.126	0.000	0.304	0.448	0.264	0.079
Tunisia	Frequency	17.000	13.000	7.000	4.000	7.000	6.000	68.000	6.000
	Number of employees	5.412	8.769	15.857	15.500	7.000	25.333	7.191	6.000
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	4.651	8.814	14.871	13.128	4.830	21.463	9.945	5.367
	Percentage of women	0.712	0.462	0.630	0.679	0.530	0.700	0.720	0.578
	<i>Standard deviation</i>	0.333	0.284	0.288	0.088	0.200	0.313	0.289	0.280

TABLE 58: ENTREPRENEURIAL DEDICATION

		No university degree		University degree	
		Single	Married	Single	Married
Egypt	Number of hours	36.000	30.000	41.294	40.577
		[8.944]	[11.547]	[16.332]	[14.438]
	Other salaried activity (%)	14.29	16.67	52.58	45.76
Jordan	Number of hours	40.833	37.307	45.625	43.622
		[13.624]	[17.845]	[15.552]	[15.056]
	Other salaried activity (%)	33.33	17.86	58.33	55.45
Lebanon	Number of hours	52.000	46.187	44.545	50.000
		[13.864]	[14.846]	[15.378]	[13.521]
	Other salaried activity (%)	3.64	7.41	45.45	33.33
Morocco	Number of hours	43.800	40.975	46.315	41.013
		[15.294]	[14.284]	[15.251]	[12.162]
	Other salaried activity (%)	11.54	14.63	33.33	36.00
Palestine	Number of hours	37.777	42.500	44.636	40.202
		[17.508]	[13.759]	[16.718]	[16.989]
	Other salaried activity (%)	36.84	25.58	45.31	52.50
Tunisia	Number of hours	42.031	45.882	47.872	46.094
		[11.631]	[14.307]	[14.697]	[15.209]
	Other salaried activity (%)	12.50	15.09	24.49	32.84

Note: The "other salaried activity" variable is measured by the percentage of respondents. The "number of hours" variable is an average extrapolated from responses on time spent working for their businesses. We ascribed a value of 20 hours per week to women reporting that they worked less than 30 hours, a value of 35 hours to those reporting that they worked 30 to 40 hours, a value of 40 hours to those responding that they worked 30 to 50 hours and a value of 65 to those responding that they worked more than 50 hours per week.

TABLE 59: ENTREPRENEURIAL DEDICATION, ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF EDUCATION, OWNERSHIP STRUCTURE AND STATUS OF PREMISES

	Premises	Governance				Education			
		Alone		Multi-shareholder		No university degree		University degree	
		Single	Married	Single	Married	Single	Married	Single	Married
Frequency	Outside the home	128	163	244	354	109	183	257	331
Number of hours		46.890	46.646	46.776	44.172	46.449	45.281	46.839	44.875
Standard deviation		15.261	14.448	15.460	14.507	15.203	14.889	15.508	14.328
Salaried activity (percentage of respondents)		0.354	0.426	0.474	0.444	0.128	0.098	0.436	0.438
Frequency	Home	59	69	62	61	38	61	83	68
Number of hours		39.649	38.043	40.364	35.536	42.162	38.051	38.933	35.846
Standard deviation		12.951	15.840	15.571	13.905	14.169	14.504	14.244	15.577
Salaried activity (percentage of respondents)		0.639	0.571	0.404	0.424	0.158	0.279	0.506	0.500

Note: The first four columns on the right pertain to the number of hours and percentage of women involved in another salaried activity, out of total number of educated women.

TABLE 60: ENTREPRENEURIAL DEDICATION, ACCORDING TO TYPE OF BUSINESS FINANCING AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION

		Equity capital		Bank credit	
		No degree	University degree	No degree	University degree
Single	Frequency	96	227	35	87
	Number of hours	44.468	43.521	45.735	47.976
	Standard deviation	15.107	15.678	14.931	15.330
	Other salaried activity (percentage of respondents)	0.146	0.463	0.171	0.379
Married	Frequency	150	269	83	114
	Number of hours	43.414	41.327	43.313	47.409
	Standard deviation	14.973	14.805	15.407	14.056
	Other salaried activity (percentage of respondents)	0.133	0.454	0.193	0.456

Note: The percentage of women with another salaried activity is measured by the number of respondents over the total number observed in each category. Women who financed their business using both bank credit and equity capital are not counted in the bank credit category.

C- ADDITIONAL TABLE (REFERENCED IN RECOMMENDATIONS): BREAKDOWN OF EXPERIENCE IN BUSINESS AND SIZE, ACCORDING TO SECTOR

TABLE 61: BREAKDOWN OF EXPERIENCE IN BUSINESS AND SIZE, ACCORDING TO SECTOR

		Agriculture		Manufacturing		Services		Trade		Craft		
		Newly founded	Family-owned	Newly founded	Family-owned	Newly founded	Family-owned	Newly founded	Family-owned	Newly founded	Family-owned	
Egypt	Frequency	1	1	11	7	23	3	12	3	39	3	
	Employees	2	2	7.909	17.857	7.869	8	4.083	28	3.076	4.666	
		N/A	N/A	[5.448]	[12.720]	[9.483]	[10.583]	[5.434]	[12.124]	[3.694]	[3.055]	
	Experience	0.500	2.000	7.166	10.857	5.954	2.666	4.681	11	4.789	3	
			N/A	N/A	[5.612]	[7.861]	[5.907]	[2.516]	[6.050]	[1.7320]	[5.139]	[0.000]
Jordan	Frequency	3	0	11	3	47	6	26	4	23	3	
	Employees	13.666	N/A	4.818	10.333	7.702	9.166	6.576	3.25	7.956	15.333	
		[21.126]	N/A	[3.894]	[3.214]	[9.636]	[10.684]	[8.832]	[0.957]	[9.688]	[25.696]	
	Experience	6.000	N/A	6.545	17.333	12.265	4.333	12.423	15.75	11.717	10.666	
			[6.082]	N/A	[5.354]	[24.007]	[8.185]	[3.265]	[9.879]	[9.912]	[7.673]	[9.018]
Lebanon	Frequency	5	2	13	3	29	2	46	14	20	3	
	Employees	3.200	0	1.615	6.333	3.206	6.000	0.760	1.142	1.700	1.000	
		[2.489]	[0.000]	[1.709]	[7.767]	[4.974]	[8.485]	[0.848]	[1.167]	[1.838]	[1.732]	
	Experience	12.000	14.000	7.846	11.000	8.310	6.500	7.500	7.928	10.5	5	
			[11.291]	[1.414]	[6.440]	[6.000]	[6.042]	[4.949]	[5.282]	[6.866]	[8.816]	[3.605]
Morocco	Frequency	1	4	5	9	71	13	31	10	13	4	
	Employees	10.000	27.000	24.200	19.111	5.338	8.230	6.161	16.200	7.769	7.750	
		N/A	[19.697]	[18.926]	[10.129]	[8.010]	[5.230]	[9.595]	[15.970]	[6.273]	[10.436]	
	Experience	13.000	14.750	17.250	16.888	7.176	11.423	7.612	16.400	11.461	6.750	
			N/A	[8.616]	[16.214]	[9.089]	[5.538]	[6.343]	[7.143]	[8.846]	[9.051]	[7.675]
Palestine	Frequency	3	0	13	3	24	5	12	7	66	13	
	Employees	3.333	N/A	3.000	23.000	3.291	13.400	7.166	7.428	6.151	7.692	
		[1.527]	N/A	[2.041]	[16.643]	[3.544]	[17.938]	[9.599]	[12.594]	[10.812]	[9.132]	
	Experience	2.333	N/A	4.884	6.333	4.854	17.200	9.041	10.714	6.107	5.923	
			[0.577]	N/A	[3.606]	[1.154]	[3.927]	[11.627]	[7.834]	[12.828]	[5.486]	[5.559]
Tunisia	Frequency	9	5	13	7	49	5	11	5	30	4	
	Employees	20.111	14.600	11.692	17.714	6.142	10.800	3.272	4.200	5.766	13.500	
		[18.230]	[20.032]	[13.002]	[16.660]	[5.809]	[5.310]	[3.003]	[4.604]	[7.346]	[14.617]	
	Experience	11.333	8.800	2.538	18.571	8.083	8.500	6.000	7.400	9.000	17.75	
		[12.668]	[5.263]	[3.071]	[12.791]	[6.834]	[9.983]	[3.924]	[4.219]	[6.125]	[11.615]	



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