



SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

A BUSINESS CASE FOR THE ADOPTION OF A KNOWLEDGE
MANAGEMENT STRATEGY AND GOVERNMENT POLICY AS
PRECURSORS FOR DIVAPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN
ZIMBABWE

BY

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Submitted to the School of Post Graduate Studies in fulfilment of the
requirements of the Doctor of Philosophy in Management of the
University of Lusaka

2019

DECLARATION

I Sibongile Manzini hereby declare that this thesis entitled ‘**A business case for the adoption of a knowledge management strategy and government policy as precursors for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe**’ has been submitted for Doctoral purposes to the University of Lusaka and that:

- This thesis is my own original research;
- All the sources used and quoted from in this research have been documented and acknowledged by means of complete references;
- This thesis has not been previously submitted in full or in partial fulfilment of the requirements of an equivalent higher qualification at any recognised institution.

Signed.....

Date.....

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The undersigned certify that we have read and recommended to the University of Lusaka for acceptance, a thesis entitled ‘A business case for the adoption of knowledge management strategies and government policy interventions as precursors for divapreneurship Development in Zimbabwe.’

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DEDICATION

I thank the Almighty for making completion of this thesis possible. This thesis is dedicated to my parents who believed in me throughout my education journey. I also dedicate the thesis to my family, as well as to my late sister Dr Nontokozo Nabane-Nemarundwe for the inspiration she instilled in me, and I will forever cherish her. MHDDSRIEP.

THESIS FORMAT

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

FDGs.....	Focus Group Discussions
KM.....	Knowledge management
IT.....	Information Technology
IBWO.....	Indigenous Business Women’s Organisation
GNP.....	Gross National Product
NGOs.....	Non-governmental organisations
SECI.....	Socialisation, Externalisation, Combination and Internalisation
SEDCO.....	Small Enterprise development Corporation Institutions
SMEs.....	Small to Medium Enterprises
WED.....	Women Entrepreneurship Development
PROWEB.....	Professional Women in Business
WILD.....	Women Institute Leadership Development
ZNCC.....	Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce
ZAMFI.....	Zimbabwe Association of Micro-Finance

ABSTRACT

This thesis showcases a business value proposition to policy makers for the adoption of a new business paradigm involving the infusion of knowledge management practices, strategic thinking and government policy intervention for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe. The significance of knowledge management (KM), in women entrepreneurial development arises from the fact that KM is considered as one of the most effective strategic tools for enterprise survival (Kim and Koh, 2011). Notwithstanding the strategic role attached to KM, divapreneurs seemed to be irresponsive to the importance of adopting technological innovations for business success. Furthermore, the government tended to use a policy of ‘give’ to support instead of empowering divas for their own development. The study also investigated the antecedents of bringing about the divatude (positive attitude) in women, as a new way of addressing the impediments to the development of women so that they could be united, driven, inspired, action oriented and victorious ensuring that divapreneurship development becomes a reality in Zimbabwe (Bbenkele, 2013).

The findings of the study showed that there was a positive interrelationship between KM strategies and government policy in divapreneurship development. The dimensions of this interrelatedness for divapreneurship development were: the formation of an enabling environment for sharing knowledge, networking, entrepreneurship education, innovation and creativity. The respondents consisted of women whose businesses had survived beyond three years as a measure of success in business ownership, as far less was known about this specific sector. Surprisingly, half of the study participants indicated that business knowledge was not a challenge. Skills, rather than business knowledge and readily accessible information eliminated the challenge. Participants alluded to the *‘lack of entrepreneurial spirit, lack of aggression, time limitation due to home responsibilities, lack of exposure to latest news and trends, lack of boldness, inability to change mind-set due to continued discrimination, lack of drive and inability to manoeuvre in the prevailing turbulent economic environment.* It was clear from the study that those divas that had undergone formal entrepreneurial education or formal training tended to network better and mitigated business challenges in a holistic and systematic manner, thus leveraging on knowledge strategies which included combining strategic management and KM practices.

The research adopted a pragmatic approach with both post-positivist and interpretivism philosophies underpinning the study. The mixed method research paradigm was adopted with both quantitative and qualitative data integrated in data collection. The rigorous exercise involved intensive triangulation of various data outputs. The quantitative data output were processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) tool version 25.0. Results from focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews were processed using Micro-soft spreadsheet. The sequential explanatory method design was used in order to more accurately define interrelationship between knowledge management strategy and government policy intervention in divapreneurship development. The design afforded for a rigorous and integrative analysis of quantitative numeric data through regression, Kruskal-Wallis H test and descriptive statistical analysis, as well as textual and thematic analysis of primary data in order to triangulate and the two methods counter balanced each other. Consequently, basing on a purposive sample of 558 structured questionnaires, 538 were successfully recovered with a response rate of 94% and 510 survived data cleaning. For the qualitative aspects of the study, the target group were those women's organisations that empower women entrepreneurs through education and training or financial resources. The qualitative aspects of the study were captured through focus group discussions, semi-structured interviews as well as face to face interviews. The study was carried out in Bulawayo and Harare Metropolitan Provinces as well as in Matabeleland North Province towns of Hwange and Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe.

The study recommended a ten factor framework for divapreneurship development involving universities as the nerve centre in unrolling entrepreneurial education and training working in collaboration with the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Community Development, and Small to Medium Enterprises. A sustainable divapreneurship development model was also recommended by the study in which the dependent variable of sustainable divapreneurship development was dependent on the independent variables of supportive government policy for the creation of an enabling environment and funding, and KM strategies for social communication infrastructure, with entrepreneurship learning and divatude embracement as intervening variables.

Key words: Knowledge Management; government policy; divatude; divapreneurship development.



Picture: Depicts an entrepreneur at work. (Adapted from loaded indeed)

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

The business world has increasingly become competitive, thus creativity and innovativeness are now critical, more so in the Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs) sector. The new focus in the 21st Century due to globalisation is on knowledge assets, with the most treasured resources by entities being intellectual capital, expertise, and networks (Geisler and Wickiamasinghe, 2009, Girard, 2015). Hence, there is growing need to embrace knowledge strategies through combining knowledge management (KM) practices with strategic management for enterprise development. The Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GDEI) for 2016, revealed that female businesses range between forty to fifty percent of all registered businesses, but disappointingly, most of these businesses barely survive up to three years. The same index indicated that countries that have made the most significant progress in supporting the proliferation of female owned enterprises are: America, Australia and German, with India being ranked sixteenth in the world for its focus on an opportunity recognition drive, which involves giving support to women entrepreneurs for identifying a new business opportunity and innovation. Given that there have been success stories in the various sectors that have adopted KM processes for enhancing decision making, collaboration, innovation, and individual as well as collective learning, it is important to establish the extent to which women owned enterprises in Zimbabwe have adopted KM strategies and technological innovations for business success.

Geisler and Wickiamasinghe, (2009) believe that the harnessing of employee's competencies, skills, ideas, capabilities, and drive is crucial for enterprise success. Notwithstanding the fact that women contribute meaningfully to the Gross National Product (GNP) of economies and job creation, they are understudied (Allen *et al.*, 2007, Brush and Cooper, 2012). Furthermore, although KM has become a key success factor in technology led organisations due to the internet of things and big data analytics, there is dearth research linking knowledge management strategy implementation and government policy interventions with female enterprise development in Zimbabwe, hence the current study sought to establish the precursors to divapreneurship development (Khan and Vorley, 2016).

Knowledge management is the management science that adopts a holistic and systematic dimension to the acquisition, capturing, sharing as well as the dissemination of an organisation's intellectual assets for business success (Duhon and Koenig, 2012). Hence, KM is considered as one of the most effective strategic tools for enterprise survival (Kim and Koh, 2011). Another aspect of KM is that it is not limited to knowledge intensive organisations only, but transcends enterprises in every sector of the economy Omotayo (2015). All enterprises including those in the service, manufacturing and public sectors can perform better if they leverage KM practices. It is surprising that women owned enterprises seem unaware of the importance of embracement of technological innovations for business success (Khan and Vorley, 2016).

Niethammer (2013:1) observed that 'female entrepreneurship signifies a massive and unexploited potential source of innovation, job creation, and economic growth in developing countries, yet these economies show little progress in narrowing the economic gap between genders.' The gendered discourse surrounding the challenges endured by women entrepreneurs is well chronicled in prior studies, in particular the difficulties they face in accessing credit, training, networking and accessing vital business knowledge (Niethammer, 2013, Minniti, 2015). It is evident from entrepreneurship literature, that KM strategies can be leveraged for entrepreneurial success (Bratianu, 2015). However, there is dearth information on whether women have embraced KM strategies and technological innovations as business strategic tools in Zimbabwe. Challenges faced by women include lack of networking platforms that could facilitate business knowledge sharing which appears to hinder knowledge transfer which is a vital factor for fruitful knowledge management embracement so as to ensure business success (King, 2013, Hajric, 2017).

Personality traits of entrepreneurs are attributed to business success, since they enhance successful business performance (Xu *et al*, 2017). Bbenkele (2013) made an observation that it is important to develop the positive attitude in women, through equipping them with the 'divatude.' This will ensure that women entrepreneurs are 'united, driven, inspired, victorious, focussed and action oriented,' for business success. Consequently, those women exhibiting the divatude would become successful *divapreneurs*, a term that shall be used to refer to successful women in business throughout this study. Thus the thesis statement is that unless government understands the need to foster a positive attitude or divatude, in women, divapreneurship will not exist in Zimbabwe. Thus

this study investigates the precursors that can bring about the divatude in women, as a new way of addressing the impediments to the development of women so that they can be involved in the main stream economy. The importance of government policy intervention in providing an enabling environment in which women owned enterprises thrive cannot be overemphasised, (Niethammer, 2013).

1.1 Background of the problem

According to a research by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), female owned businesses in the main stream economy the world over, now represent more than a third of the world businesses and yet there are quite a significant number of enterprises that are not in the main stream economy. Thus the role of women in business is now that of reshaping the modern global economy, rather than being redefined (Alert, 2013). At the attainment of Zimbabwe's independence, women had little access to education due to the male centric society that believed that educating women was a waste of resources as the place of a woman was in the kitchen. To date, women are still suffering from discrimination, despite their numeric significance which stands at 52% of the estimated 13 million Zimbabwean population (National Census, 2012). A person's achievement, confidence, motivation and even ability to take risks is significantly associated with their early socialisation (Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2009). Women in Zimbabwe have suffered through socio-economic, political and cultural discrimination for centuries (Nani, 2011). Hence, it is critical to establish the extent to which the government through its policy interventions has addressed these impediments to divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

The Ministry of Women's Affairs, Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises (MoWACDSMEs), on behalf of the government of Zimbabwe, established a policy document that spells out strategies for eliminating various impediments faced by the disadvantaged groups including women and the youth (Nyoni, 2012, Zindiye et al, 2012, Gogo, 2007; Hwamiridza, 2007). But despite the introduction of the policy document, its implementation seems to be a challenge due to the lack of an effective implementation strategy. Although there are various players that continue to expend effort to support women business growth such as non-governmental organisations and women's organisations, to date, most female businesses tend to fail within three years of start-up (Minniti, 2015). Thus, it is important to investigate what needs

to be done by policy makers to make more women owned businesses survive and grow and join the mainstream economy, since, only a few women have made a breakthrough. This study is motivated by the fact that it would be interesting to establish the approaches which have been employed by those successful women enterprises that have survived beyond three years.

Although the Zimbabwean government has come up with a gender parity policy, its implementation has not been wholly successful as women continue to be discriminated against, in terms of resource allocation such as land and business opportunities (Zimbabwe Government Beijing report). In terms of compliance with international standards, the government of Zimbabwe has ratified numerous international conventions on women empowerment, gender parity and women's rights. The Zimbabwean government has enacted various legislative instruments which facilitate the implementation of the Beijing Declaration's twelve critical areas, yet women owned businesses continue to struggle to survive (Confederation of Zimbabwean Industries report, 2017).

Realising the business challenges faced generally by the SMEs sector and women businesses specifically, the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises is in the process of rolling out entrepreneurship training for SMEs. Entrepreneurship education enables opportunity recognition, idea generation and orientation towards innovation, creativity and self-employment. This study is critical in order to provide a roadmap to policy makers for ensuring the growth of women owned businesses.

King (2009) postulated that learning and training are critical in enterprise development. Furthermore, Koenig (2017) emphasised that learning and knowledge management converge in that, while organisational learning gives emphasis on knowledge acquisition, KM concentrates on the quality of created, acquired and processed knowledge which the enterprise possesses. By encouraging the creation of knowledge, dissemination and its application, KM enables an organisation to perpetually improve its operations and behaviours in pursuit of its goals. The advent of e-commerce and the global nature of trade and big data analytics have made it critical to focus on business creation through sharing knowledge and learning. As far back as 1938, Wells declared in his book the 'World brain' that, *an immense and ever increasing wealth of knowledge was scattered all over the world, knowledge that would probably suffice to solve all the mighty difficulties of our age, but was unorganised and dispersed.* It is now apparent that big data analytics

and KM provide tools for sorting unstructured data into information and knowledge that is critical for business decision making, thus, it is imperative to establish the extent to which divas have adopted these vital tools for enterprise development (Khan and Vorley, 2016).

1.2 Statement of the problem

Notwithstanding the fact that women account for more than a third of the world businesses and employment creation, it is surprising that this sector is understudied, to an extent that only 10% of research is attributed to this sector worldwide (Allen *et al*, 2007, Brush and Cooper, 2012). Moreover, as noted by Parker (2010), women entrepreneurship research has not made meaningful conclusions for their development, due to the contradictions that are inherent in the study of this sector. Hence, scholars continue to provide little practical direction for women entrepreneurs intending to establish or grow small businesses or policy makers and non-governmental organisations seeking to improve the entrepreneurial climate. Moreover, developing countries are facing the challenge that they are still orienting their strategies of involving women entrepreneurs using methods of ‘give’ to support and not empowering them so that they are self- sustaining.

Although, it has been established that divas embark on businesses twice as often as men do, it is shocking that most women owned businesses hardly survive up to five years (Yin, 2012). Furthermore, despite the fact that business models have been well constructed in developed countries and successfully applied there for SMEs and women enterprise development transferring the same models for the advancement of women entrepreneurship in developing countries has been wholly unsuccessful (Chen *et al*, 2012, Davenport, 2013). The reason being that, socio-economic challenges differ in developing and developed countries, thus, this calls for locally tailor made models suited for the local turbulent economic environment. Furthermore, Niethammer (2013), magnified the lack of incorporation of women’s entrepreneurship perspective in the formulation of SMEs related policies, while Foster (2013), echoed the lack of periodical evaluation of the impact of SMEs policies on women businesses success and whether those businesses took advantage of them.

Moreover, according to Vossenberg (2016), for female businesses to develop, policy makers, non-governmental organisations as well as the private sector have to make sure that women enterprise growth plans are guided by a rigorous documentation of divas’ value propositions as well as

calculated requirements and ambitions. The government continues to develop policies to enhance women entrepreneurs without guidance from research evidence for effective policy implementation. Although it is clear that some universities offer entrepreneurial education in Zimbabwe, the role of universities is not clear in shaping SMEs in general and divapreneurship development in particular. Furthermore, less is known about how some women have achieved success in their businesses beyond the survival level of three years.

It is critical that the current study be undertaken to establish how divas can embrace the divatude to an emergence of thriving divapreneurship ventures in Zimbabwe (Bbenkele, 2013). Moreover, it is imperative to establish the extent to which divas have adopted KM strategies and magnify the role of government in cultivating a conducive business environment as the inadequacies of these could retard divapreneurship development.

1.3 Research objectives

The general objective of the study was to establish if there is an interrelationship between a knowledge management strategy implementation and government policy interventions in divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

1. To investigate approaches for developing divapreneurship in Zimbabwe.
2. To establish the extent to which divapreneurs have adopted KM strategies for their development in Zimbabwe.
3. To determine the relationship between government policy interventions and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.
4. To identify any gaps for implementation in government policies with reference to divapreneurship development.
5. To develop a model that Zimbabwe could adopt for developing divapreneurs.

1.4 Research questions

The general question: Is there an interrelationship between a knowledge management strategy implementation and government policy intervention in divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe?

1. Which approaches have been adopted for developing divapreneurship in Zimbabwe?

2. What is the extent to which divapreneurs have adopted KM strategies for their development in Zimbabwe?
3. Is there a relationship between government policy interventions and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe?
4. What are the gaps for implementation in government policies with reference to divapreneurship development?
5. What model can Zimbabwe adopt for developing divapreneurs?

1.5 Scope and delimitation of the study

The study was undertaken in the Bulawayo and Harare Metropolitan and Matabeleland North Provinces (Hwange and Victoria Falls). There are ten provinces in Zimbabwe and the two major cities Harare and Bulawayo, and two towns Hwange and Victoria Falls were targeted as most of the entrepreneurial activities takes place in cities due to high unemployment as a result of de-industrialisation. In the advent of the new millennium, Zimbabwe underwent an economic meltdown resulting in factory closures and the demise of the Zimbabwe dollar. Furthermore, the inflation figures were insurmountable resulting in the government adopting a multicurrency regime including dollarisation in 2008. According to Raftopoulos *et al* (2009:219):

‘...after 2000, the Zimbabwean economy spiralled rapidly into a world record decline. By 2006 GDP per capita was 47% lower than it was in 1980 and 53% below its 1991 peak. Formal sector income also experienced a drastic decline. At the end of 2006, the average minimum wage for agriculture and domestic workers of Z\$2,800, was only 3% of the Food Datum Line, while the average minimum wage of Z\$57,000 in the same period was 16.6% of the Poverty Datum Line, prompting the chief economist of the ZCTU to label these ‘starvation wages. Hyperinflation reached an official level of 230 million per cent by the end of 2008, devaluing both earnings and savings.’

Due to the factory closures the unemployed sought to create self-employment through engaging in various formal and informal entrepreneurial activities in the cities. Women became the target group to suffer the brunt of the socio-economic challenges, thus they resorted to join the band wagon by forming business enterprises. Unfortunately, those business enterprises have tended to be short-lived as alluded to by (Niethammer, 2013). The current study targeted business ventures that were wholly owned by women or in which women had 51% ownership and the other category

was that the entities should have operated for more than three years and were registered. The study dealt with only women entrepreneurs in order to establish how women could embrace the divatude and join the main stream economy. According to a 2010 report by the SMEs association, there were in excess of 20 655 registered women owned businesses in Zimbabwe.

Table 1.1 The population and estimated number of SMEs in the ten provinces

Province	Area square km	Population	Estimated SMEs
Bulawayo Metropolitan	845	1 200 337	Micro 26 127 Small 4 508 Medium 5 326
Harare Metropolitan	961	2 123 132	Micro 98 444 Small 16 051 Medium 1 198
Manicaland	36 459	1 752 698	Micro 49 095 Small 9 363 Medium -
Mashonaland Central	28 347	1 152 520	Micro 26 127 Small 4 508 Medium 5 326
Mashonaland East	32 230	1 344 955	Micro 79 742 Small 10 8 49 Medium 2 514
Mashonaland West	57 441	1 501 656	Micro 63 976 Medium 18 534 Medium 377
Masvingo	56 566	1 485 090	Micro 131 164 Small 15 116 Medium 3 569
Matabeleland North	75 025	749 017	Micro 31 100 Small 2 332 Medium -
Matabeleland South	54 172	683,8	Micro 31 968 Small 4 206 Medium -
Midlands	49 166	1 614	Micro 88 809 Small 20 672 Medium 5 341

Source: Census (2012) statistical estimates of SMEs population adapted from FinScope Zimbabwe survey results (2012).

1.6 Significance of the study

It has been documented that women entrepreneurs are vital contributors to the economy through employment creation. The study's findings will provide a written value proposition that will guide policy makers and non-governmental organisations and magnify the importance of KM strategy implementation and government policy intervention in divapreneurship development. Brush and Cooper (2012) noted that research on women stands at only 10% of all research despite the fact that women owned enterprises lack strategies to succeed in business for more than five years. On the social side, the results of this study could influence social change, by providing information that will help women entrepreneurs adopt strategies that will improve the longevity of their businesses. At the same time it is imperative that the current study be conducted to establish how divas can shatter the glass box of discrimination to an emergence of thriving divapreneurship ventures in Zimbabwe.

This study is significant in that it will:

1. Allow for the identification of the specific KM strategies and government policy interventions that divas require in order for them to develop.
2. Establish entrepreneurship training initiatives which are critical in developing the requisite personality traits of divatude.
3. Inform policy makers and non-governmental organisations on the initiatives crucial in divapreneurship development.
4. Provide a road map for resolving the status quo, so that women entrepreneurs could grow and join the main stream economy.
5. The study will establish the relationship between the role of trajectories in technological innovations between KM strategies and big data analytics and their significance for women entrepreneurship success.

1.8 Definition of operational terms

Different people ascribe different meaning to various terms used in this study, hence, it was important to elucidate key concepts as they are used in this study.

Divapreneur

The term denotes united, driven, inspired, action oriented and victorious female entrepreneurs with a positive attitude or 'divatude' which leads to female entrepreneurship success or divapreneurship (Bbenkele, 2013).

Entrepreneur

An entrepreneur is one who innovates, manages and bear the business risks with the intention to make a profit (Foster, 2016). Entrepreneurship entails the founding of a business venture, acquiring or expanding an existing business, bearing risks and uncertainties in making business choices (Kuratko, 2009).

Innovation

Innovation entails the formation of a new invention or improvement of a process, product, service, or technology that brings about a substantial transformation to society (Hardwick and Crukshank, 2012). Innovation can translate into goods or services that create economic value goods that can be purchased. In business, innovation can be viewed from the perspective of a paradigm shift in fulfilling the aspirations of customers. Innovation involves a deliberate application of information, imagination and encompasses the way new ideas are engendered and turned into valuable products and services.

Women entrepreneurship

Women entrepreneurship denotes an entity where a female owns more than 51% shares in the business and initiates, organises, operates the entity and assumes risks as well as handles economic uncertainty involved in running the business venture, (Belz and Binder, 2013).

Precursor

The word is synonymous with forerunner, something that must occur first (online dictionary). It is used in the context of antecedents necessary for the divapreneurship development.

Knowledge management

Hajric (2017) defines knowledge management as fundamentally ensuring that knowledge is disseminated to areas of need at the appropriate time. This involves understanding the source and state of knowledge that exists, and making sure initiatives are not only accepted but are supported by organisational members (Uriate, 2008). According to Davernport & Probst (2002) the ultimate goal of Knowledge management is to ensure the creation, sharing and leveraging of the enterprise's knowledge assets to attain a competitive advantage.

1.9 Organisation of the thesis

The thesis is organised into seven chapters, which correspond with the direction of the study. The first chapter introduces the background to the problem under study, unpacks the problem and elucidates the objectives of the study, study questions as well as the scope and significance of the study. This first chapter provides the foundation of the study.

Chapter two, provides a critical review of related literature with reference to the variables of the study, knowledge management strategy and government policy as precursors to divapreneurship development. It also identifies the knowledge gaps in the literature that will be filled by the current study and highlights the inconsistencies in the arguments. The research methodologies used in the previous studies are also reviewed with a view of gaining insights on the best methodologies to adopt for the current study,

Chapter three provides the theoretical and conceptual frameworks upon which the study hinges. A critical review of theories and knowledge gaps in the theories are enunciated culminating in the study concepts being operationalised. The chapter also deals with different theories given that knowledge management strategy cannot be interrogated without a few selected theories, at the same time a KM system cannot be implemented without learning taking place hence learning theories were also reviewed. The study would not be complete without looking into

entrepreneurship frameworks, hence, the selected frameworks are provided in this chapter culminating in the conceptual framework and hypotheses of the study.

Chapter four explains the study methodology, in particular the philosophical underpinnings guiding the study, research design, the research approach, the population and sampling methods as well as the data collection methods. The reasons for adopting the research methodologies are also justified backed by scholars and methods of assuring validity, reliability and ethical considerations are provided in detail.

Chapter five, presents the data and analysis of the study's findings. The research data is presented and systematically, to ensure that the findings are not accidentally polluted. The chapter separates qualitative and quantitative results and analyses them separately ensuring triangulation.

Chapter six discusses and interprets the results in line with the study's findings. Chapter seven, summarises the findings, concludes and makes recommendations. The chapter also emphasises the contribution the study has added to new knowledge and suggests future research recommendations in line with the study's limitations.

1.10 Conclusion

Chapter one introduced the general framework of the study through the discussion of the background to the problem, research objectives, research questions, the hypothesis as well as the benefits and delimitation of the study and defined the key terms used in the study. Chapter two will rigorously review what other scholars have written on the phenomenon understudy with a view to identify the gaps in literature so that knowledge gaps can be filled in order to further the course of the KM discipline with reference to women entrepreneurship.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Chapter two provides an overview of extant literature and explores the views of different scholars that have researched on the phenomenon of women entrepreneurship development. Easterby-Smith *et al* (2015), views the purpose of literature review as enabling the researcher to establish how other researchers have examined a similar phenomenon and to ascertain what is already known. This chapter also exposes and displays knowledge gaps in women enterprise development. It is against such a status quo that the study intended to magnify the level to which the identified variables were strong precursors for divapreneurship development. A desk literature review was carried out through peer-reviewed journal articles, textbooks and other published theses on the phenomenon under study. The other reasons for the review was to establish the different methodologies that had been used by prior studies as well as to contextualise the study within the matrix of preceding scholarship.

2.1 A Global Overview of women entrepreneurship

Before the 1990s, male-centric business models were viewed as the natural models for doing business (Yadav and Unni, 2016). The world view of female businesses, in developed countries such as the United States, was that women businesses were just small lifestyles not to be taken seriously. Hence, this view led to the inconspicuousness of women business challenges consequently, compounding the limited understanding of the precursors necessary to grow this sector (Ahl, 2006). Fortunately, as more researchers began to focus on this exploratory area of women entrepreneurship, there was a paradigm shift on that view. As more research was pursued, findings began suggesting that women were vital in the broader entrepreneurship landscape as well as contributed to the Gross National Product (GNP) of a country (Niethammer, 2013; Sarfaraz *et al*, 2014). The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), provides an annual report on women entrepreneurship from as far back as 2006, with vital information on women entrepreneurship imperatives. Another source of vital information on women entrepreneurship is the Global Entrepreneurship Development Institution (GEDI), which analyses conditions fostering women

entrepreneurial development in various countries in the region of 77 countries in 2016 alone. The GEDI report (2017) revealed that the top ten countries that provide a conducive environment for growing female owned businesses were the: United States, United Kingdom, Australia, Iceland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Netherlands, France and Finland. Developing countries emerged as the lowest in women entrepreneurship development support effort (Female Entrepreneurship index, 2015, Terjesen and Lloyd, 2015).

In addition to the GEDI, another source of vital information on entrepreneurial activity is the Global Entrepreneurship Index (GEI) which focuses on combining individual data such as opportunity recognition, education and economic freedom, start-up skills and risk acceptance, with institutional measures, including urbanisation, being some of the variables for measuring a country's entrepreneurial progress. The importance of these variables are that they help distinguish self-employment from novel, productive and fast developing entrepreneurial ventures that result in economic growth (GEI report, 2016). The gap in literature on women entrepreneurship is also due to the fact that most developing countries do not provide metrics on their entrepreneurship development progress.

Birley (2017) is of the view that male and female entry into entrepreneurship is related to their market entry choices. Thus more women favour retail and agriculture whilst men venture into more lucrative business areas such as mining and manufacturing sectors. On the other hand research by Brush (2015) found some peculiarities in the running of business by both male and female entrepreneurs. In terms of psychological traits, business skill set, approach to business creation and growth, there were distinct differences, possibly this explains why business success rates differ for the two genders.

2. 2 A review of related women entrepreneurial literature

In a report by the International research centre (2015), by 2040, Africa will have the youngest workforce in the world. This observation has pertinent government policy implications due to the unavailability of jobs to cater for this youthful population in the continent. It implies that there is need to harness the potential of these youths through the creation of entrepreneurial opportunities.

Given that 62% of Africans are below the age of 25, calls for urgent action by all African governments, to facilitate employment creation. Youths in Uganda, Zambia and Nigeria topped the list in terms of exhibiting a high proliferation of entrepreneurial activities in developing countries. The findings of the report were interesting in that young women were found to be as actively involved in entrepreneurial activities even more than their male counterparts. Disappointingly, however, women owned businesses in most instances hardly created employment and 78 % typically operated in the retail and agricultural sector. The report magnified lack of government policy support for youth owned businesses which has resulted in their high failure rates. Thus failure to diversify into other areas through innovation was viewed as a stumbling block in unlocking the youth entrepreneurial potential. The report identified four key areas for unleashing Africa's youth entrepreneurial potential namely: business support and advice, business capital, financial support and information communication technologies (ICTs) and various other technological innovations. Possibly the embracement of knowledge management strategies could be the missing link, since without managing available knowledge it would be difficult to fully unlock entrepreneurial potential. In terms of education and training, a mismatch was identified between skills required by industry and those provided by universities and schools, hence, the current study sought to come up with a model that would explicitly spell out the role of universities and schools in unlocking the entrepreneurial potential in women.

Notwithstanding the contributions made by the International Research Centre report (2015), it was further highlighted that youths in most African countries seemed unaware of the entrepreneurship programmes available in their countries whether private, public or nongovernmental, which could assist them in their entrepreneurship endeavours. Financial resources were not readily available for youth projects due to lack of collateral security more so for women. Youths tended to depend on family funding for their entrepreneurial projects. It was pointed out in the report that perhaps micro-lending schemes could be created to cater for youth business empowerment. There was need to explore how the banking system with the assistance of government could be made accessible to youths for loans. ICTs and technology could be explored for market accessibility, hence, policy makers could promote ICTs training and technology in business. Unfortunately the research did not categorise the ICTs and technologies which were critical in entrepreneurship however current trends have shifted towards big data analytics and knowledge strategies as ways of leveraging

enterprise development. The report was key in that it identified factors that hindered youth entrepreneurial potential as being the fact that youth are trapped in the retail and agricultural sectors and tended to use outdated technology.

2.3 Review of empirical literature

Barreira (2004) conducted a quantitative study on the effect of business knowledge and work experience as antecedents to entrepreneurship development in South Africa. The study discovered a weak correlation between business knowledge and entrepreneurial success. On the other hand previous work experience was found to be a strong precursor to entrepreneurial success. The implications of that study was that it is important for women entrepreneurs to be exposed to experiential learning for them to gain business experience in order to enhance decision making capabilities. However, the role of government policy in entrepreneurial success was not explored leaving a gap which made the current study necessary. Since the study by Barreira (2004), was quantitative the views and perceptions of women entrepreneurs could not be captured thus depriving the study of the rich and insightful contributions of women entrepreneurs regarding their business experiences which a mixed method research approach could have provided.

In a review of government initiatives to stimulate women entrepreneurship in South Africa for the period 1995-2009, Derera (2011), established that women entrepreneurs are still facing various types of barriers to entry into the SMEs sector. Despite effort by government to provide support programmes for women entrepreneurship programmes, it appeared that the majority of the respondents were not aware that there were government initiatives targeted at them. Thus, a systems revamp in terms of policy implementation was recommended. The limitation of the study was that it was concentrated in one province, hence, a study of a greater magnitude could provide more replicable results.

A thesis by Turyasingura (2011), examined the interdependency of knowledge management and organisational learning in Ugandan Institutions of higher learning. Empirical evidence from the mixed method study confirmed that KM and organisational learning were indeed interdependent and played a critical role in promoting learning at various levels of an organisation. The study however, made no reference to the role of government policy even though Institutions of higher

learning are mostly government institutions. This observation flows from the study's recommendations in which it was pointed out that higher education institutions in Uganda should prioritise implementing strategies aimed at manipulating available knowledge and also discovering new knowledge, yet to implement the recommendation would require government policy intervention. Hence, the importance of government intervention in the provision of a conducive business environment is an area that needs interrogation.

In another related study to the current study, Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd (2009), looked into Zimbabwean women entrepreneurs' survival strategies and growth implications as well as the fact that women faced many impediments to their business success. These obstacles were related to years of protracted neglect that women had suffered, including socio-economic challenges due to the male dominated society in Zimbabwe. The study did not go as far as providing a road map on the role of government policy intervention in resolving the status quo, so that women entrepreneurs could grow and join the main stream economy, hence this gap needed to be addressed.

Zindiye *et al* (2012), looked into the effect of government and institutional support with regard to SMEs' performance targeting the manufacturing sector. Confirmation was made by the study of the critical role played by government and other institutions in enhancing SMEs performance. It was concluded that skills training was important for the development of SMEs in Zimbabwe, but the study generalised SMEs without segregating the sector. Segregation of the SMEs sector is important, because each group has different training needs which must be stipulated and prescribed to grow the segment. For example, although women and youths fall within the same category in the sense that they are a special disadvantaged group, their training needs differ. It is important to identify the strategic and practical needs and to analyse the role of key groups in women entrepreneurship development. The current study focussed on women entrepreneurs due to the limited research that provides a value proposition on how this sector can develop.

Nani (2011), carried out a study on business challenges faced by urban Zimbabwean women entrepreneurs. Although, Nani (2011), identified a myriad of obstacles hindering the development of women's businesses, the role of government in alleviating the challenges was not clearly stipulated. Hence as long as no prescriptions are provided on what needs to be done by government to grow women entrepreneurs, entrepreneurship will remain an illusion in Zimbabwe. Given, these

knowledge gaps in the study the research set out to investigate ways of filling in these knowledge gaps, through making a business case for the adoption of a knowledge management strategy and government policy as strong precursors for entrepreneurship development. It was therefore critical to have a full understanding of the study's variables and their interrelatedness.

2.4 Government policy and enterprise development

Foss et al (2017) reviewed publications on women's entrepreneurship policy research in order to establish policy implications to women entrepreneurship development. Government policy is viewed as the most vital factor in the entrepreneurship matrix as it provides an enabling environment through facilitation in terms of taxation, education, finances and training amongst others. Mazzarol (2014) magnifies the importance of a support system at various stages of the entrepreneurial journey. Universities are seen as the catalysts in entrepreneurial development, through the provision of training and education programmes.

Mason and Brown (2014) in conjunction with OECD came up with general principles for government policy implementation with regard to the ecosystem so as to promote the proliferation of high growth firms. The entrepreneurship ecosystem concept is vital to the current study as the sector being dealt with is that of women entrepreneurs that have survived for at least three years. The successful growth of enterprises are said to create new employment, increase innovation and drive productivity. Hence, it is important to establish the matrix involved in growing the enterprises so that more employment can be created. Mason and Brown (2014) postulated that enterprises could only flourish when distinctive support environments were created. The entrepreneurial eco-system is defined by Mason and Brown (2014:5) as 'a set of related entrepreneurship promoters both formal and informal, governmental and nongovernmental that amalgamate to influence progress of the internal entrepreneurial climate.'

In terms of government policy as an entrepreneurial ecosystem, priority should be directed towards the formation of entrepreneurial activities through the use of institutional entrepreneurs to empower and shape policies and programmes. All areas of the entrepreneurial ecosystem should be encompassed holistically (World Economic Forum, 2019). In order to come up with fitting

recommendations for Zimbabwe divapreneurship development strategies, it is important to explore lessons learned from the experiences of other developing countries.

2.6 Women entrepreneurship development in selected African countries

2.6.1 Women entrepreneurship in Uganda

In order to have an appreciation of how divas' businesses in Zimbabwe could be developed, it was necessary to establish how other developing countries had implemented government policies that furthered the course of women in business. The African Development Bank study conducted by Stevenson and St-Onge (2005) in Uganda, established that 1.4 million women were at various stages of business set up. A lot of importance was attached to entrepreneurship in that country in an effort to create employment, with a thrust to contributing towards poverty reduction (Stevenson and St-Onge, 2005). The same study discovered that Ugandan women just like their Zimbabwean counterparts were discriminated against in the employment sector and faced the glass ceiling. The report showed that 88% women were either running enterprises at a micro or informal level or contributed unpaid family labour. These enterprises employed very few women with just about 5-10 employees. The same report established that Ugandan women faced diverse, legal, socio-cultural, and economic barriers which impeded the growth of their enterprises (Stevenson and St-Onge, 2005). A conclusion was drawn that it was less likely for women to secure bank loans as they lacked collateral security, and the situation matched the findings made in Zimbabwe by Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd (2009). Women often lack the requisite acumen to craft business proposals and the knowhow to secure substantial capital. Hence, the results revealed that there was a training gap for empowering women entrepreneurs with the requisite knowledge, skills and the right attributes for them to be successful in their business endeavours.

Although the Ugandan Constitution had a National Gender Policy which provided for equal rights in terms of policy, there was still discrimination on the legal status of women. Thus, it was apparent that the lot of women entrepreneurs in Uganda fared as poorly as their Zimbabwe counterparts. Hence, any lessons for Uganda women were most likely to apply in Zimbabwe as opposed to borrowing from developed countries, where the circumstances were dissimilar. The

recommendations and frameworks that were made for Uganda following the policy inadequacies that had been uncovered by the research sponsored by the AfDB will be discussed.

2.6.2 Government intervention

There was no government focus on ensuring women entrepreneurial empowerment through deliberately targeted policy initiatives to ensure success of that goal in Uganda. Stevenson and St-Onge (2005) revealed that there was absence of consciousness on the value of women's potential to economically contribute due to stereotyping. It was also observed that although the Ugandan government had made provisions at national development level, there was no deliberate strategy to ensure the success of the national plans for women empowerment on the ground. Thus, women's entrepreneurial activities in Uganda were largely overlooked and invisible. Stevenson and St-Onge (2005) utilised the AfDB/ILO Integrated Framework for Uganda which had a ten factor assessing criteria as follows: regulatory and legal environment; policy coordination and leadership; access to enterprise training promotion and education of women entrepreneurs; access to premises; credit access; admittance to associations, funding and networks of women entrepreneurs; information availability; market availability; and research on female entrepreneurs and female-owned Micro to Smalls Enterprises (MSEs). Based on the AfDB/ILO Integrated Framework, Uganda fell short of reaching the expected standards on various aspects. The report revealed that a lot still needed to be done by the government to grow women businesses. The study made various recommendations in order to address those gaps. Recommended steps to mitigate these gaps were as discussed below.

2.6.7 Policy leadership and coordination

The adoption of a strategic plan to empower and enhance women entrepreneurship, through creating linkages training forums and workshops was recommended for Uganda (Stevenson and St-Onge, 2005). There was also need to involve the Women Entrepreneurship Development (WED) forum to come up with recommendations for government policy-makers and non-governmental organisations. It was also recommended that it was necessary to include the private sector public-private coalitions regarding the required policies that could enable the growing of women owned businesses as well as to lobby government to ensure that their interests were magnified included in government policy interventions as well as strategies (Stevenson and St-

Onge, 2005). It would also be necessary to track all government funding in order to close all loopholes so as to monitor the relevancy of government policy interventions including funding from nongovernmental organisations and the private sector. (Stevenson and St-Onge, 2005). It would be necessary to ensure gender parity in all government programmes through policy enactments. Women needed to be empowered through facilitating the ease with which they could register their enterprises and gain access to business information (Stevenson and St-Onge (2005). The study's findings revealed that there were attitudinal, training gaps, cultural and social barriers that hindered women's access to support crucial for enterprise growth. In an effort to meet the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), it was necessary to eradicate the barriers to women entrepreneurial development so that developing countries benefit from the economic contribution from women.

The Ugandan study revealed that entrepreneurship education was an important factor in promoting entrepreneurship. Consequently, it was established that education contributed to the successful growth of women entrepreneurship. The lessons learned from that study have far reaching best practices signals for the government of Zimbabwe in terms of policy implementation for developing women entrepreneurship.

2.6.8 Women entrepreneurial development in East Africa

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) in collaboration with the African Development Bank (AfDB) carried out a fact finding mission to establish the status of women entrepreneurship development in Ethiopia, Kenya and Tanzania. It was established that all the three countries lacked a strategic policy framework that could address growth challenges. In terms of women entrepreneurship policy implementation, there were no good practices which could ensure women entrepreneurship growth. Society in the three countries was not yet conscious of the economic potential of women entrepreneurs. The study recommended that there was need to ensure availability of credit facilities for women enterprises to grow. In Kenya and Tanzania the recommendation was that a coordinated approach involving the government, private sector and other key stakeholders such as non-governmental organisations had to be established. On the other hand in Ethiopia, more financial resources needed to be appropriated to the Ministry of Women's

Affairs as well as that of Trade and Industry to enable the empowerment of women enterprises. There was need for the rolling out of women enterprise promotional activities in both Ethiopia and Tanzania. The ILO and AfDB mission also recommended that Kenya ought to emulate good practices that prevailed in Ethiopia of profiling women entrepreneurs in terms of access to credit. Ethiopia and Tanzania were expected to facilitate access to credit to women entrepreneurs through the establishment of dedicated micro-finance institutions with lessons to be learned from Kenya. Access to entrepreneurial and growth training in all three countries was mostly credited to donor funding. Training in place was criticised on the basis that it did not offer a growth strategy and tended to be focused on entrepreneurial, business and management skills instead of imparting growth related skills. It was established that women had limited access to business information due to not being part of a network. Women tended to lack access to premises and this negatively impacted growth strategies. In Kenya the government had allocated business stalls to some women organisations, and this move had empowered women as they now had a fixed place of abode. Three sets of regulatory issues were found to affect women enterprise's growth and these were: gender bias, discrimination against women in terms of credit access and complex business registration procedures that discouraged potential women entrepreneurs. Having reviewed women entrepreneurship approaches taken in other African countries it was important to review the steps that had been taken by the Zimbabwean government to support women entrepreneurship.

2.7 Women entrepreneurship in the Zimbabwe context

As highlighted by Mason and Brown (2014), it is clear that government policy is a key enabling factor in women entrepreneurship development. Niethammer (2013) concurs going further to identify barriers to women entrepreneurship as being: failure to access credit facility, lack of training, poor networks, shortage of appropriate information for decision making, as well as legal and policy constraints. In developing countries such as Zimbabwe, where women have historically suffered over centuries due to discrimination, entrepreneurial support programmes need to be put in place by governments to address gender imbalances brought about by previous patriarchal systems (Minniti, 2015). However, lack of knowledge of the existence of such support systems seems to be a prominent challenge in women entrepreneurship development (Audet *et al*, 2007). Poor marketing of the availability of government entrepreneurial support systems as well as

bureaucracy are cited as some of the challenges hindering growth of female owned businesses (Ong *et al*, 2010).

Notwithstanding the above revelations, studies by Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd (2009) revealed that women in Zimbabwe have not fully liberated themselves from the marginalised position imposed by the patriarchal society. Cornwall and Rivas (2015) assert that women economic empowerment is a plan for boosting women's support to facilitate women's ability to successfully participate in economic development in an inclusive manner. Goyal and Yadav (2014), referred to the institutional void in developing countries and low levels of entrepreneurial education. The same authors assert that women lack financial access, face low self-esteem and socio-cultural biases. They also bemoan the lack of a comprehensive policy on female entrepreneurs in developing countries.

The antecedents to women entrepreneurial development seems to hinge on strategies that amend and transform systemic inequalities, and align government policy and non-governmental organisations with the promotion of women enterprise development. It is therefore, critical to look into the current legal and policy framework prevailing in Zimbabwe, since an enabling business environment is paramount in enterprise development.

2.7.1 Economic context

According to a FinScope and Ministry of Small Medium Enterprises Zimbabwe survey carried out in 2012, Zimbabwe's economy was adversely affected by a period of hyper-inflation which eroded the Zimbabwe dollar in the period 1998 to 2008. Shortage of inputs, inadequate investment, and lack of infrastructural development resulted in factory closures. The closure of factories meant that formal employment became limited and the informal sector took precedence. In 2008, the government adopted the multi-currency regime which saw the United States dollar taking the upper hand as a preferred currency in transacting. This shift in the Zimbabwean economy was backed by various policy proclamations and emergency plans aimed at economic reconstruction with equitable stability growth under the three- year Macro-Economic Policy and Budget Framework which ran from 2010-2012. However, due to the world-wide economic recession, the gains that

the government had made towards economic recovery started to regress towards 2015 culminating in the November 2017 new government dispensation or second republic. At the coming in of the new dispensation the rate of the Zimbabwe local currency (ZWL) was officially at par with the United States dollar (USD), though on the parallel market this was not the actual position. This position has since changed with the introduction of the Real Time Gross Settlement dollars or Zimbabwe local currency (ZWL) which drastically fluctuates against the United States Dollar (USD). The fluctuating local tender has adverse implications for business in general and female owned enterprises in particular. In order to clearly articulate the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe it is important to review the institutional support and their legal status.

2.7.2 Institutional support institutions for SMEs in Zimbabwe.

In Zimbabwe, there are various institutions that offer business support to SMEs including women enterprises. But this study is concerned that despite all these institutional interventions, women owned businesses continue to fare badly compared to those ventures owned by their male counterparts. Findings by Nani (2011), revealed that among the impediments faced by SMEs in general and women in particular is shortage of funding, market information, lack of education and training, poor management skills. Organisations that support SMEs are shown on table 2.1.

Table 2.1 shows SMEs support institutions

Name	Service provided	Nature of institution
Ministry of women Affairs, Economic Development and Small and Medium Enterprises.	Enables policy formulation and relations between SMES and	Public
Small Enterprise Development Corporation (SEDCO)	Provides training, management and skills, market information, and advocacy including credit facility.	Public
Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries	Provides financial support and market support advocacy	Association
ZimTrade	Development and trade promotion as well as training.	Public
Indigenous Business Women's Organisation	Provides information and financial support.	Non-governmental Organisation(NGO)
Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce (ZNCC)	Provides training and market information.	Association
Zimbabwe Youth Council (ZYC)	Provides skills and management training information	NGO
EMPRETEC	Training	Private
Zimbabwe Economic planning Policy and Research Unit (ZEPARU)	Facilitates through research output	NGO
National Chamber of SME	Represents SMEs	Public

SME Association of Zimbabwe	Provides training and access to vital information and also represents SMEs market	Association
Zimbabwe Association of Micro-Finance Institutions	Provides advocacy and carries out research	Association
Netherland Development Organisation (SNV)	Carries out research	NGO

Source: FinScope MSME Survey results Zimbabwe 2012

Without government intervention it seems that women entrepreneurial development would progress at a slow pace and the potential gains to be derived would take a long time to realise. In an effort to encourage women entrepreneurship, it is crucial to provide an enabling environment through various government interventions such as policy promulgations. Hence, it is important to establish what the government of Zimbabwe has done in terms of economic growth programmes and policies that target women (womenomics).

Womenomics, according to Oda and Reynolds (2018) is a term that addresses the fact that women have been excluded from or held back in the workforce, yet the advancement of women and economic development is linked. Lessons can be learned from the stance taken by the Japanese Prime Minister, Shinzo Abe, who has declared that women should fill at least 30% of leadership positions in Japan by 2020. This policy position is viewed as a positive move towards women empowerment in Japan. It is therefore not surprising that in order to attain sustainable economic growth in the medium term recovery plan (MRP), the economic empowerment of women has become a key priority for the Zimbabwe government. Vossenber (2016), states that women’s entrepreneurship development (WED) is the strategy and implementation of policy interventions and mechanisms by stakeholders to address impediments faced by women in successfully setting up and operating their business enterprises. Key actors in WED are identified as local and international governments, national and international non-governmental organisations (NGOs), banks, donor agencies, chambers of commerce, women’s organisations, business networks and private companies.

Although the government of Zimbabwe went through political changes in November 2017, the new government in the second republic has maintained keen focus on women entrepreneurship development, which has been the same focus since the attainment of independence in 1980. It may be necessary to come up with a paradigm shift in the way the government supports women, away from the ‘give’ to support (Bbenkele, 2013) to the empowerment with a positive attitude or divatude. Indeed, women in Zimbabwe have undergone years of male dominance and consequently are still struggling to shake off the shackles of the glass box in entrepreneurship. The extent to which the various government policies have been successful in alleviating business challenges hindering divapreneurship development is one of the focus area of this study. Thus, the thrust is to look into the role played by government policy interventions in an attempt to bring about gender parity. As part of the international community, Zimbabwe has ratified several conventions so far which have a bearing on gender parity as shown on table 2.2, but the list is not exhaustive.

Table 2.2 shows the conventions ratified by the Zimbabwe government on gender parity.

<p>1995- A team led by the then Minister of Education, Fay Chung represented Zimbabwe in Beijing, China where the Beijing declaration saw the ratification of the following conventions: Civil and Political Rights (CCPR), equal remuneration; prohibition of discrimination in occupation; elimination of worst forms of child labour and the economic and social cultural rights (ECOSOC) conventions, were all ratified.</p> <p>COMESA regional integration and cooperation gender policy which promotes gender equality and equity at all levels was ratified in 2015.</p>
<p>National legislation and policy frameworks</p> <p>The following frameworks were adopted: 1987- Matrimonial causes Act; 1997 Administration of Estate Act; 1999- Maintenance Act, 2001- Sexual offences Act; 2004- Education Act, Labour Act chapter 28:01 and 2004- Public Sector gender policy.</p> <p>2013 Constitution has a section relating to gender policy. The constitution advocates for full participation of women in all aspects of the Zimbabwean society on without gender discrimination.</p>

Source: Zimbabwe, 2013 national gender policy document

The conventions and policy enactments listed in table 2.2 reveal the extent to which the government of Zimbabwe has made an effort to bring about gender parity. However, various scholars argue that, the state must ensure the practical enforcement of these policies to rectify gender discrimination and imbalances (Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2009, Zindiye, 2012). According to the Gender Equality Index (GII), Zimbabwe is at 0.583 against an expected ideal index of zero (0). The issue of the glass box is real and gender discrimination is still a challenge not only in employment opportunities but also in women entrepreneurship in terms of accessing capital and some business opportunities in the male dominated preserve such as in security firms.

Although there is plethora of business information, women seem not to have access to it due to lack of well-established networks (Minniti, 2015). It can be concluded that there are inadequacies of detailed information pertaining to strategies for women's accessing knowledge on methods of effectively operating their enterprises as well as having access to networks that could bring about capital for their ventures (Niethammer, 2013). This current research seeks to establish the knowledge strategies that can bring about divapreneurship development. According to Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd (2009) women in Zimbabwe have undergone years of neglect economically, socially, educationally, culturally, and legislatively, hence, they are handicapped with regard to ways of accessing finance, they lack technical skills, business knowledge and material resources.

Lee and Wong (2004) postulate that networking enables entrepreneurs to get the right information for decision making. In order for women businesses to thrive there must be a clear cut policy on how divas can access finance despite lack of collateral security. There is also lack of personal entrepreneurship skills and inner control such as discipline, risk taking, innovation, change orientation, persistence, imagination, drive, flexibility, competitiveness, optimisation and courage. The other set back in women enterprise development was found to be lack of leadership skills such as change management, value creation and the ability to positively affect lives through a well-managed quality product or service (Asbin, 2013).

2.7.3 Policies implemented by the government of Zimbabwe to address gender parity

Gender parity implementation is spearheaded by the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises which is charged with the provision of oversight for gender mainstreaming in all sectors (Zimbabwe Government Beijing report). The 2017-2018 GEM report alludes to the importance of incorporating a women's dimension in the formation of SMEs related policies. The government created the national framework and machinery to address gender equality.

The Zimbabwean government put in place the following machinery for ensuring gender parity:

1. In 2005 the National Gender Policy was introduced and successfully implemented from 2008 to 2012.
2. The 2013 national constitution has a gender parity focus.
3. The United Nations Women coordinates players from the Ministry of Women Affairs, Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises, as well as those from women nongovernmental organisation (NGOs) together to agree on strategies on the implementation of the various agendas that further the course of women. Thus the missing link in this arrangement is the involvement of the private sector as a key player in women empowerment. It seems logical that the private sector as a potential sponsor for capital should be incorporated in the National Gender Forum, thus it should not be omitted.
4. The new Gender Policy for 2013-2017 which was intended for changing the political and socio-economic political environment to enhance gender mainstreaming was implemented. The policy also prioritised the following Beijing Platform's eight critical areas for action: *legal and constitutional rights, economic empowerment, politics and decision making, health, education and training, violence, environment as well as media and Information Communication Technologies Services (ICTS)*. The extent to which this policy has been successful is yet to be seen, but it was a positive step in the right direction.

2.7.4 The Indigenisation land programme

In the land reform programme introduced in 1999 in Zimbabwe, women were to be afforded quotas so that they could have access to farming land. The policy position in Zimbabwe was that 20% of

all land allocated under farming land should also be available to women. Women were also entitled to village land for agricultural purposes, a deviation from the past where women had no entitlement. Women could have access to agricultural land and consequently have access to means of production (Food and Agriculture UN 2017). However, despite the government policy enactment, discrimination still remained the major barrier to women's access to land, as village land distribution remained patriarchal. During the actual land distribution, under the farming land scheme set quotas for women were not appropriated as per the policy (Zimbabwe Government Beijing) report. This was paradoxical, in that, denying women access to land disempowered women entrepreneurs denying them the chance to enter into agropreneurship.

Agropreneurship is the venturing into agricultural production as a business venture. Notwithstanding government policy towards empowering women with land, of all the land that was redistributed in Zimbabwe from 1999 to date, only an insignificant portion ultimately went to women. If women in Zimbabwe had been allocated land as per the policy, more women might have ventured into agropreneurship and helped restore Zimbabwe to its former glory as the bread basket of Zimbabwe. Business and social challenges are inseparable in women entrepreneurship, because women are at the forefront of it all. The Zimbabwe government attempted to close some of the shortfalls in some of the crucial areas as shown on table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Measures taken by the Zimbabwe government to rectify gender gaps.

Type of intervention	Comment
HIV and Aids prevalence reduction from 24.6% in 2003 to 15% in 2014.	This reduction in the infection rate has the implication that women can remain healthy and participate in the economic recovery of the country through forming enterprises.
Communities are now aware of gender parity issues as it relates to equal opportunities for both genders in Zimbabwe.	Various sectors such as mining and large scale farming that were previously inaccessible to women have increasingly become accessible
Gender parity is seen in the education sector, where literacy levels for both male and female genders have increased.	Universities enrolment of female students increased from 23% in 2006 to 43% in 2011, despite the economic decline.

Female presence in Parliament in particular the National Assembly (Lower house) increased by 34% and by 48% in the upper house (Senate) house of Parliament.	Unfortunately in local authorities women employed have decreased from 18% in 2008 to 16% in 2013. The following areas grew from 18 to 25 percent: civil service, women in leadership and principal directors.
Policies that were enacted by government ensured that women gained access to communal other land.	Gaining access to land has unlocked opportunities for women in terms of means of production capacitation.

2.8 Enterprise development in Zimbabwe

The measures of enterprise development used in this study were adopted from Martins (2007) and some will form the basis for evaluating enterprise development in this study as shown below:

1. Enterprise birth as an indicator of enterprise development shows the introduction of new enterprises against existing ones.
2. Job creation as an indicator of enterprise development shows the rate of enterprises created as a percentage of the number of jobs created.
3. Survival of enterprises is measured by looking at the number of new enterprises of (*n*) that have survived in year (*n-3*).
4. Peoples’ preference for self-employment as an indicator enterprise development shows the overall number of those self- employed.
5. Employment growth as an indicator of enterprise development shows the overall number of those employed according to sector.

The divapreneurship concept refers to the embracement of a positive attitude or the divatude which leads to business success. In contrast women entrepreneurship is defined by Jennings and Brush (2013) as focussing upon women who start and or run their own businesses including those that are self-employed. According to Bbenkele, (2013), it is important for women to make a paradigm shift from the old women’s club mentality and embrace the divatude through being driven, inspired, victorious, action oriented and united for successful business development. Drucker (2003) postulated that innovation is important for value creation in small and well-established

companies alike and entails planning the areas of innovation within the entity. The role of managers is seen as being to innovate and market products or services which is an entrepreneurial function. Drucker (2003) postulated that innovation is important for value creation in small and well-established companies alike and entails planning the areas of innovation within the entity. The role of managers is seen as being to innovate and market products or services which is an entrepreneurial function. Dimov (2007) states that action is the maker of opportunities. Schumpeter (1999) viewed entrepreneurship as the innovation and creation of opportunity rather than imitation. Innovation also involves the creation of new technologies and products to meet emerging market needs. Shane and Venkataraman (2000:12) contributed that 'entrepreneurship involves the nexus of two phenomena: the presence of lucrative opportunities and the presence of enterprising individuals.' The same authors go further to state that the individual's environment is crucial in opportunity identification and that action is the maker of opportunity. This view of entrepreneurship strengthens this current study's contention that the government through its policy should ensure the cultivation of a conducive environment for divapreneurship development.

The focus of the Zimbabwean government is on empowering the disadvantaged groups that include women and youths through supporting their entrepreneurial activities to curb unemployment. However, it appears that there is no clear-cut road map or blue print for developing divas in place as most of those who are intended to benefit from the government initiatives seem irresponsible of their availability (Nani, 2011). Yet, the pursuit of an entrepreneurship career which involves acting on an opportunity creates a future and is liberating besides being a source of wealth.

Avolio (2010) investigated why women took up entrepreneurship and discovered that both push and pull factors were found to be at the forefront of female entrepreneurship uptake. Some of the push factors were found to be: job redundancy, glass ceiling, economic downturn, insufficient income, and general job dissatisfaction. Job redundancy is prevalent in Zimbabwe due to de-industrialisation that has taken place since the new millennium. The economic downturn is attributed to the world recession which has affected the world economy and not Zimbabwe alone, suffice to say in Zimbabwe the effects have more severe resulting in brain drain. The glass ceiling captures the phenomenon where women aspiring for leadership positions find themselves blocked by a seemingly immense, yet a real barrier which promotes male dominance (Itani et al, 2011). On

the other hand the pull factors relate to the need for achievement, independence, self-fulfilment and social status. Insufficient income is also ascribed to low productivity, macro-economic instability being experienced in the country. These macro-economic fundamentals have resulted in job disgruntlement as salaries are low hence, prompting women to venture into enterprise formation. Notwithstanding the above, prior studies have tended to point towards necessity as a driving factor of female entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe (Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2009). As far back as 1980, when Zimbabwe attained its independence the government encouraged women to form entrepreneurship ventures (Zimtrade, 2016). However, the Zimbabwean economy has persistently undergone economic decline impacting business performance negatively culminating in factory closures and severe unemployment. Given that women have since time immemorial been discriminated against in the employment sector, entrepreneurship has of necessity been the alternative to formal employment (Niethammer, 2013).

2.8.1 Enterprise development strategy

In order for divas to understand the importance of crafting a business strategy it is vital to discuss the elements of a business model. According to Thompson *et al* (2013:54), at the heart of an enterprise's strategy is the entity's business model, which is in this instance, the entrepreneur's blue print for satisfying customers' expectations through providing a quality product or service. The business model must firstly, state the customer value proposition and secondly, it must propose a profit formula. Globalisation has made it imperative that all businesses pay attention to quality issues related to the products and services they offer as customers have easy access to information pertaining to competing products and services. Thus the satisfaction of customers' quality demands has become paramount in attaining a competitive advantage.

According to Thompson *et al* (2013:54), a customer derives greater value if the price and perceived value of the service or product are in tandem. Hence, an entity's value proposition becomes attractive and competition is kept in check. The customer value proposition explains the entity's approach to customer satisfaction through the fulfilment of the customers' needs and wants for good value. The profit formula details the entity's method of determining a cost structure that will enable acceptable profit, in view of the prices relating to its customer value proposition. Ideally,

enterprises strive to cut down on costs in order to make a profit. Divas must understand how to come up with a business model that fits the obtaining economic conditions.

Thompson *et al* (2013) alludes to three tests that are performed to determine whether a business strategy is a winner: The fit test is on how well a strategy fits the enterprise situation. Firstly, the strategy must match market opportunities, competitive conditions, and business environment. In a turbulent environment such as the one currently experienced in Zimbabwe, market opportunities are one the main impediment to women entrepreneurship development due to the influx of cheaper products from neighbouring countries, South Africa and Botswana in particular. These products tend to be priced cheaper than locally made products, hence, making competing difficult. The coming in of technological innovations would provide a leveraging advantage, however, the extent to which women enterprises in Zimbabwe have adopted technological innovations such as big data analytics has not yet been established. The second test is the competitive advantage test of whether the strategy can result in a competitive advantage. If an enterprise has no competitive advantage, survival becomes a challenge. The third test is the performance test of whether the strategy is good for entity performance. Enterprises must focus on embracing a high performance work culture guided by the economic principle of maximising output at the lowest cost or maximising pr
Thompson *et al* (2013) state that there are three tests for defining whether there is competitive advantage and these are financial stability, low costs and profitability. Successful strategy execution determines the extent of market success.

2.8.2 Strategic management

No enterprise can survive without having a strategic direction. A strategic direction relates to top management's vision for the entity's future. Crafting a vision, mission statement and a set of core values is vital for enterprise development (Thompson *et al*, 2013). Well-crafted visions are peculiar to a specific entity, and must be meaningful. It is important to devise a vision that clarifies a desired future state which does not read like a public relations statement, but the wording must be meaningful. The actual purpose of a vision statement is to provide the road map or direction for the organisation. A vision stands for the destination where the organisation is headed to and the mission describes an entity's purpose and its present business. There is the strategy or tactics for achieving the goals of an organisation which are plans for attaining short term goals. The vision,

mission, goals, strategies, policies are all plans for the attainment of a desired future state of an organisation. It must say something definitive about how the entity's leaders intend to position the entity beyond where it is today.

Notwithstanding the above, an entity's core values are the shared values and behavioural beliefs that the entity employees are expected to exhibit when executing the entity's business. Thus, divas must have an understanding of a business strategy in order for them to embrace and drive change. Another important aspect in enterprise strategy is identified by Drucker (2002), who states that a mission statement must address the fundamental question of the reason for existence of the enterprise and where it aspires to be in the future. Consequently, the vision addresses the future position 20 to 30 years ahead, it is the framework which guides those choices that determine the nature and direction in which an enterprise is headed. Goals complete the enterprise's mission statement, and provide guidance in the conduct of the business, establishing direction and what the enterprise is committed to do. There must be a strategic alignment of activities within an enterprises which is achieved through coordinated plans.

Thompson *et al* (2013), posit that the reason an enterprise needs a vision is that, no entity is protected from threats in the market place. Entrepreneurs operate in an environment which is fragile and vulnerable which makes it imperative for take control of their destiny. Entities have a memory and a history, achieving strategic clarity is the first step towards extricating an organisation from operational difficulty. Without the vision, strategies tend to remain undirected and the entity is uninspired. An enterprise owner cannot lead without a vision, hence, the vision creates focus. Once operational thinking is done in a strategic vacuum, and is also done under the assumption that the world will remain stagnant, an unstable economic environment can have serious negative consequences to an enterprise's capacity to compete. Thus, due to the turbulent business environment in Zimbabwe, operational planning needs to be done strategically. Enterprises tend to be competitive, especially when resource allocation decisions are made, one way to ensure equitable distribution of the scarce resources is by being crystal clear about the strategic direction of the entity. Once operations are on target, the entity's general direction is right on course, then a new and unexpected technological breakthrough or significant socio-political change may triggers the need to re-think the strategic direction. At a time of major transformation

it is important to re-visit the organisations' history for its past success and re-think of a strategy for the future while understanding the need to formulate a vision, mission and winning strategies in enterprise development (Thompson *et al*, 2013).

2.9 Enterprise development and change management

During economic recessions, where the only constant is change, it is imperative that women enterprise owners be transformational and thrive in the chaos. It is also important to be conscious that acting on an opportunity creates a future. Smith, P.J., Cronje, G.J & Verba (2007) allude to a systems theory in which it is stated that enterprises exist within the context of a dynamic business environment as they are open systems which form a larger whole consisting of various elements. A change in the system causes an entity to realign itself with the change. Such realignment is effected by perpetually scanning the environment for possible changes in the business environment and by choosing new strategies for the entity.

Change management is the process of ensuring that an enterprise is ready for transformation and takes action to ensure that change is accepted and implemented smoothly. Change management involves the deliberate effort to control, or at least to influence, the transformation that is imminent to an enterprise. It involves transforming the enterprise's processes and ensuring that every activity is realigned with the change and remains in synergy with the vision of the enterprise. Faced with continuing economic pressures and increasing competition, many enterprises are at times forced to radically change and reinvent their processes (Mullins, 2005). Planned change gives the enterprise the opportunity to control the direction of change, whereas, spontaneous change occurs suddenly and does not give room for planning. Every enterprise goes through the change process at some point in time regardless of its size, hence, it is important to influence the nature of change where possible through planning, instead of being swept by the tide of change. The world is quickly transforming due to the technological innovations, therefore, women enterprises must adapt quickly and embrace change or become extinct. How businesses manage change and how successful they are in instituting the transformation depends on the nature of the business, the nature of the change, and the people involved as well as how far people involved understand the change process (Armstrong, 2009). Women enterprises might have the capacity to adapt quickly

to transformation in order to survive, yet others may not react fast enough. Enterprises that handle change well thrive, whilst those that do not may struggle to survive.

Women enterprises can be faced by different types of change and need to strategise to manage the change. The different types of change that an enterprise can encounter which were established according to Mullins (2007) are categorised as product or service change in which an entity can transform through diversifying its product or service offering. This may be due to customer's change in taste resulting in the enterprise changing to suit the new demand. There is also change of market positioning which can bring about transformation if the enterprise adopts a new strategic position in the market due to some niche it might have identified. Then, there is change of strategic posture as a result of some advantage that the enterprise enjoys compared to its competitors such as proximity, to raw materials or the market.

Change of skills and acquisition of intellectual asserts can lead to embracement of new skills and abilities which can bring about a paradigm shift in the way an enterprise executes its mandate as there is likely to be efficiency and effectiveness in its operations. A change in policies, budgets, rules or procedures automatically result in the change of how things are done in an enterprise. Thus it is important to prepare employees for the new changes so there is synergy in the enterprise activities. Change embracement can be successfully executed through a buy in or brought about through motivation of workers which is critical in order for enterprise objectives to be attained. An enhancement of motivation and attitude to embrace winning ways will result in the achievement of enterprise goals. Consequently, behaviour that is conducive to the attainment of enterprise's objective must be positive in meeting the expectations of enterprise owners and it should be reinforced through rewards which can be both financial and non-financial. Women enterprises can either stagnate or decay or embrace transformation and stay afloat. They may only revive or survive if radical changes takes place to their ways of doing things. Change can be stimulating. There are those who are stimulated by change and see it as a challenge and an opportunity. Drucker (2012) declared that opportunity is the source of innovation.

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter delivered a systematic assessment of empirical literature on the phenomenon under study. The thrust of the review was to contextualise the current study basing on what is known as well as establishing the knowledge gap, upon which the study could focus so as to contribute to new knowledge in the field. To that end empirical literature was reviewed, paying close attention to closely related literature. Policy interventions that the government of Zimbabwe had implemented were analysed as well as the shortcomings in policy implementation that need to be addressed were identified. Best practices were examined from other developing countries which could provide lessons for Zimbabwe in its search for survival strategies for divapreneurship development. The next chapter will interrogate the theoretical foundations as well as the conceptual framework that underpins the study.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Introduction

In chapter two the review of empirical literature was presented in order to establish the knowledge gap in existing knowledge with respect to divapreneurship development. Chapter three provides the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study. The selected theories and frameworks are viewed as grand models in the construction of a blueprint and roadmap for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe. There are several schools of thought with differing views on the phenomenon under study. However, few studies have established the interrelationship between knowledge management strategy and government policy intervention as antecedents for women entrepreneurship development, despite the fact that extant literature points to the advantages of embracing technological innovations and the need for providing an enabling environment for business. In this 21st Century leveraging knowledge has become a strategic asset in sustaining competitive advantage. Hence, the key concepts in KM will be discussed with a focus on establishing precursors to divapreneurship development.

3.1 The concept of knowledge

Huang *et al* (2011), state that it is important to understand the concept of knowledge as we live in the knowledge economy. In order to have an appreciation of knowledge management it is prudent to begin by defining knowledge. Scholars acknowledge that there are several definitions of knowledge, although knowledge is mostly understood to flow from data, information, individual intuitions and experience (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995, Prusak, 1997, Bukowitz and Williams, 1999, Crane and Bontis, 2014, Girard, 2015). To ensure business success it is critical to engage in knowledge production, knowledge transfer, learning and continuous innovation. Polonyi (1966), was of the view that implicit knowledge is more important than explicit knowledge. Knowledge thus captures the way things are done in organisations. Wiig cited in Evans *et al* (2014), further pointed out that knowledge is one of the most nebulous and difficult concepts encountered in conducting business (Wiig, 1993:71). O'Dell & Hubert (2011) regard knowledge as a strategic

asset, in particular the tacit type due to its unique and difficult to replicate nature. Tacit knowledge is considered as the foundation of competitive advantage and that, the more costly it becomes to create or replicate, the longer it takes competitors to emulate and implement. Knowledge or intellectual assets are stocks of knowledge owned by an organisation. Thus enterprises innovate and learn by leveraging tacit knowledge (Choo, 2006). It can be deduced that knowledge is thus multi-faceted and intricate, implicit and explicit, physical and mental, distributed and individual, static and developing (Girard, 2015). Due to globalisation resulting in constant change, knowledge has to be improved, challenged, and increased constantly or it vanishes (Drucker, 2002). Such authoritative definitions of the knowledge concept are valuable and insightful to this current study.

3.1.1 Personal knowledge

Polanyi, set the foundation for much of the later theoretical work done in the knowledge management field. The use of Polanyi's and other theories have conscientised organisations to realise that knowledge and information are vital strategic tools for the attainment of competitive advantage. Polanyi (1966), developed the theory of 'personal knowledge' based on the belief that all knowledge is to some degree tacit, i.e. it resides with the holder of the knowledge. However, he observed that converting tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge is a challenging task. Davenport (1995) following in the footsteps of Polanyi, observed that of the two types of knowledge, tacit and explicit, the former was more vital for organisational success. This observation was made based on the fact that tacit knowledge is difficult to imitate and due this property it is the source of competitive advantage as opposed to explicit knowledge.

In contrast to the view that tacit knowledge is vital, Nonaka (1994), a Japanese scholar emphasised the importance of explicit knowledge through applying explicit knowledge to Japanese firms, challenging the view by Polanyi that only tacit knowledge is critical. On the other hand, Davenport and Prusak (1998), went further to claim that an enterprise in this knowledge economy, is one that learns, remembers and acts based on the best available information, i.e. knowledge and know how. The Nonaka and Takeuchi (1994) KM model focuses on knowledge spirals that explain the transformation of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge and then back again as the basis for individual, group, and organisational innovation and learning. This declaration by these authors seemed to imply that information and knowledge are the same, yet according to Cong and Pandya

(2003), the two are different. Knowledge is at a higher level of the same continuum as it is processed information. The creation and dissemination of knowledge has become an even more important factor in competitiveness due to globalisation (Dalkir, 2005). The internet of things provides information at the click of a button making it imperative that women entrepreneurs produce high quality products and services or risk losing customers to competitors in this globalised village.

3.1.2 The socialisation, externalisation, combination and internalisation (SECI) model

The SECI model by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1996), is viewed by KM scholars as the masterpiece in explaining the knowledge creation and transfer theory, (Andreeva & Ikhilchik, 2011). The model is also invaluable to this research. The model magnifies the transformation of various knowledge types as various users interact. During the interaction knowledge transfer, knowledge conversion, knowledge combination and knowledge internalisation occur simultaneously (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1996, Koenig, 2017). Furthermore, Wellman (1999), believes that at the heart of an enterprises' ability to attain a competitive advantage is the ability to learn to create new knowledge ahead of competitors.

Notwithstanding the above view of knowledge creation and transfer, Hajric (2017), went further to distinguish between knowledge and knowing, and observes that knowledge creation is a result of the combination of knowledge and knowing. Thus, through practice, action and interaction, comes knowledge and consequently, knowing. Knowledge is important to an enterprise as it is key to creativity and innovation (Crane and Bontis, 2014, Girard, 2015). Knowledge is acquired through constant learning and interaction and is shared through socialisation, externalisation, combination and internalisation (Nonaka, 1994, Khan, and Vorley, 2016). The diagram below illustrates the conversion of knowledge as shown on figure 3.1.

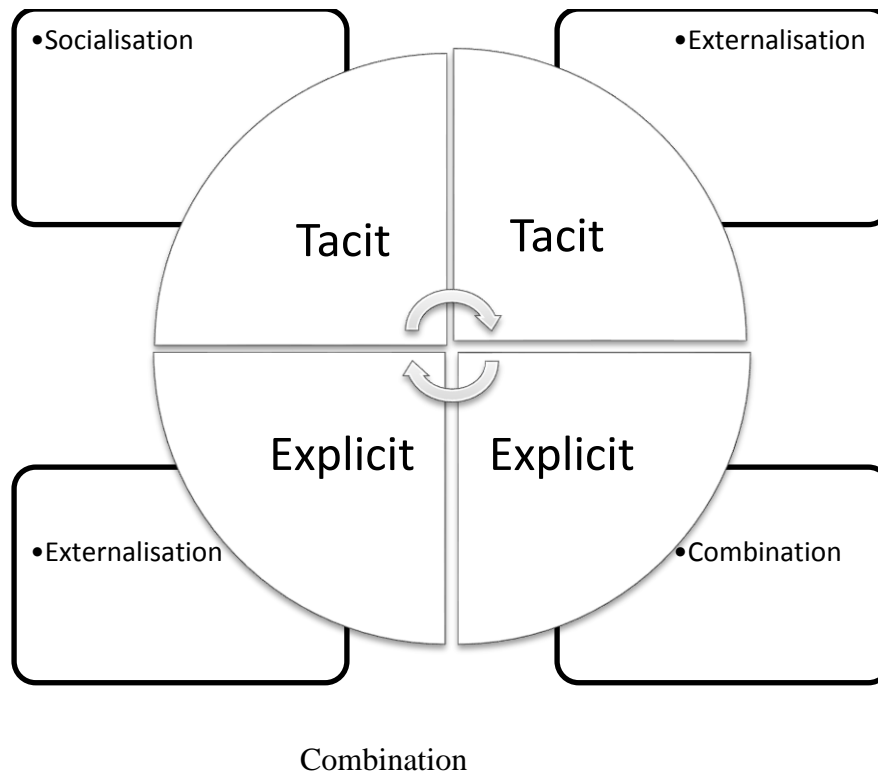


Figure 3.1 The SECI model. *Source: modified from Nonaka and Takeuchi (1996) to show how learning occurs.*

Figure 3.1 portrays the SECI model in which various learning processes occur through interaction. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1996) depict the process of knowledge conversion through the following process:

1. **Socialisation:** Socialisation is a process by which tacit to tacit knowledge is passed on through imitation, practice, guidance, observation and learning occurs. In this arena divas can share insights with their peers or hold workshops and seminars in which tacit knowledge is demonstrated (Dalkir, 2008).
2. **Externalisation:** Externalisation is a process where tacit knowledge is converted to explicit knowledge through codified documents and manuals so that knowledge permeates throughout the enterprise. The use of metaphors are highly recommended (Dalkir, 2008).

3. **Combination:** Combination is the simplest process where explicit documents are combined with other explicit documents to create new knowledge and thus, learning takes place. Data mining can take place in this arena resulting in new insights (Dalkir, 2008).
4. **Internalisation:** Internalisation involves a process where codified knowledge is converted into tacit knowledge. As explicit sources are used and learned, the knowledge is internalised, modifying the user's existing tacit knowledge. In this arena divapreneurs will develop new insights that will result in creativity and innovation (Dalkir, 2008).

The model's central assumption is that tacit knowledge can be transferred and converted to codified knowledge. The importance of the SECI model as the cornerstone and widely adopted KM concept in the first generation of knowledge management and Nonaka's work is evidenced by its dominance as the most referenced material in the KM field (Dalkir, 2008). It is vital to interrogate the dichotomy of knowledge.

3.1.3 The dichotomy of knowledge

Polonyi (1966) provided valuable observations critical to this research, he observed that we know more than what we can say and that knowledge takes several forms, key of which are its tacit and explicit form. Later, Nonaka (1994), defined tacit knowledge as the type that is not easy to communicate and is deeply ingrained in the mind of the knower. Explicit knowledge was seen as being describable, tangible and codified (Polonyi, 1966; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; and Evan *et al*, 2014). To date empirical studies have shown that there is value in knowledge assets.

3.1.4 The dichotomy of tacit and explicit knowledge

In order to effectively manage knowledge it is important to understand the dichotomy of knowledge (Wiig, 1993 and Dalkir, 2008). Thus the possession of knowledge, empowers the individual and enables efficiency and effectiveness in their performance and improves decision making competency. Consequently, possessing capabilities to acquire more knowledge, unlocks critical business information thus, timeously facilitating enlightened decision making. The conclusion is that gaining access to the appropriate knowledge at the appropriate time and at the

appropriate place is paramount in enterprise development (Dalkir, 2005). Figure 2.1 depicts the diagrammatical representation of the dichotomy of knowledge.

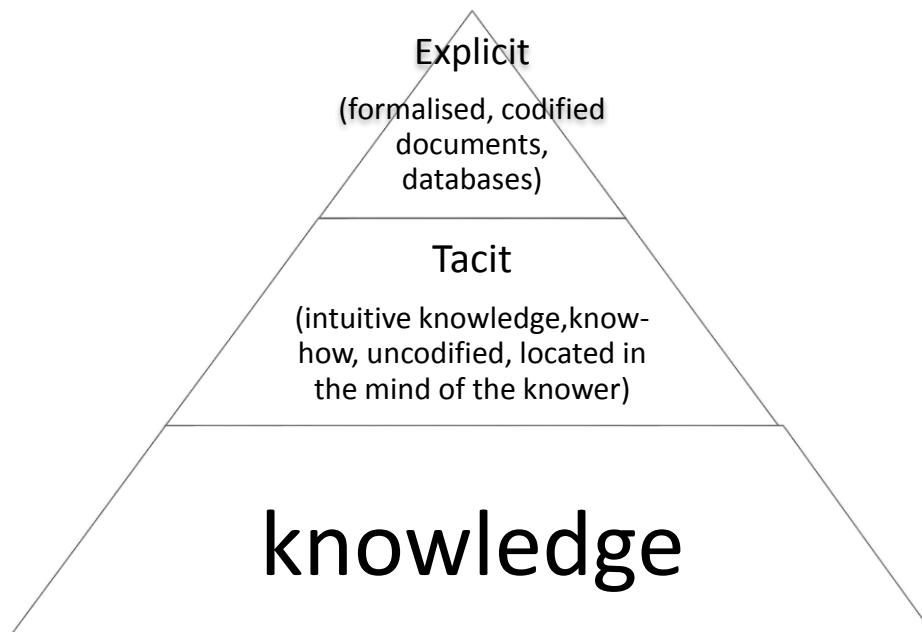


Figure 3.2 A diagrammatical representation of the dichotomy of knowledge. Adapted from: Dalkir (2005).

Codified knowledge is explicit and documented, on the contrary, implicit knowledge is easier demonstrated as a way of sharing, as it is difficult to describe. The transfer of tacit knowledge can even be a long process of apprenticeship (Ahmed, 2010). Tacit knowledge can be described as experiential know-how, know-when and know-why that is acquired subconsciously on the job. However, most enterprise knowledge remains implicit due to the impossibility of putting it into words up to the minute details necessary for successful performance.

According to Ahmed, (2010), organisations have in the past, concentrated on tangible knowledge and ignored the invincible tacit knowledge, despite the fact that most of an enterprise's knowledge is implicit, with only 10% of the knowledge being explicit. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) emphasised the difficulty of knowledge sharing due to limitations in expression and communication. Knowledge develops as a result of the interaction between codified and

uncodified knowledge. The procedure of knowledge acquisition begins with people sharing individual knowledge through social interaction via depositing knowledge in digital or analogue form. Newly created knowledge is shared and the cycle continues. Externalisation of tacit knowledge robs it of being a source of competitive advantage as it enters public good realm (King, 2013).

Skyrme (2000; 51) undertook a study in innovation. His work is informative and relevant to this research as he observed that creativity and idea creation are at the core of the innovation process. To survive as a business entity, divapreneurs have to be creative and innovative. Some of the ways of viewing innovation according to Skyrme (2000: 51) are as follows:

1. Enterprises have to access the existence of current knowledge from the macro environment;
2. Exchange of ideas and creative thinking should be encouraged through creating new knowledge;
3. Knowledge should be codified to make it easily accessible;
4. Through knowledge networking ideas and insights should be diffused.

3.1.5 Knowledge levels

In addition, there are four levels of knowledge as alluded to by Cong and Pandya (2003). These knowledge levels range from data, information, knowledge and wisdom. These levels are shown in figure 3.2.



Figure 3.3 The DIKW hierarchy depicting data, information, knowledge and wisdom (Howard, 2016:1)

It is essential to appreciate the levels of knowledge to enable one to acquire useful knowledge. The pyramid depicts the levels from data to wisdom (Dalkir, 2008).

3.1.5.1 Data

Data are raw and unprocessed, discreet and objective facts about events (Pearlson & Saunders, 2013). According to Howard (2016), the main KM activities include capturing accurate data which can be transformed into information.

3.1.5.2 Information

Information is defined as processed data which can assume the form of documents or apparent communication, which answer various questions. Information is inferred from data and answers the ‘know what’ questions. Laudon and Laudon (2014), extend this perception and suggest that

information is data transformed into a form that is significant and useful to users. The processes that are associated with the conversion of data into information involve sorting, classification, aggregation, calculation and selection performed either by people or systems.

3.1.5.3 Knowledge

Knowledge can also be viewed as expert insight which make available a context for integrating and evaluating information and new experiences. Knowledge is consequently the know-how, it is a loose mixture of framed experiences and values, or contextualised information. In enterprises knowledge is found entrenched not only in repositories but also in work standards, procedures, practices, routines and work (Dalkir, 2008, Koenig, 2018)). Thus information is converted into knowledge only if the holder has processed the information. Jashapara (2004) postulates, that data is information that is actionable, improves decision making and provides an effective input in terms of creativity and innovation, which is vital for competitive advantage sustenance. Furthermore, wisdom or expertise is specialised skills and knowledge in a specific area. Hence, it is clear that divapreneurs require specific business expertise in order for them to develop and stay competitive. The existence of business knowledge, culminates in business acumen (Crane and Bontis, 2014, Girard, 2015).

3.2 Knowledge management

Hajric (2017), views KM as the holistic or systematic management of an enterprise's intellectual assets to enable attainment of an enterprise's objective and strategic needs. Thus, KM is an embodiment of the processes, initiatives, tactics, and systems that enhance innovation and creativity, sharing, assessment, storage, and refinement of knowledge. On the other hand, Wellman (2009), limited the range of KM to techniques employed and best practices for the management of what is already known. This view of KM fails to capture a holistic approach to KM. Knowledge management as defined by, Geisler & Wickiamasinghe (2009) as the act of harnessing knowledge and effectively using it. This is collaborated by Koenig (2018) who considers KM as any process or practice of creating, acquiring, capturing, sharing and using knowledge, wherever it resides, to enhance learning and performance in organisations. Thus, this current study embraces the definition by Koenig (2018), as it assumes a wider perspective of KM, which incorporates not only

the management of current intellectual assets and its exploitation but the effort expended in harnessing and leveraging new knowledge.

Duhon and Koenig (2012) viewed those scholars that associate KM with technological systems as subscribing to a discipline that promotes a holistic approach to capturing, identifying, retrieving, evaluating, and sharing all of an enterprise's information assets. These knowledge assets include policies, documents, procedures, databases, and experience of employees. However, those organisations that adopted the heavy perspective to business, prioritised technology, and ultimately failed to recoup the anticipated high returns despite having invested heavily in technology. They ultimately failed to recoup their investment. The failure to recoup their investments led to the view that KM had failed to live up to expectations. However, it became clear later on, that technology is not the ultimate in KM but just an enabler (Duhon and Koenig, 2012, Crane and Bontis, 2014, Girard, 2015). Currently KM research focus has shifted towards establishing the place of big data analytics in knowledge management (Khan and Vorley, 2016).

3.2.1 Knowledge management processes

According to Botha et al (2008) there are four broad categories of KM practices as interrogated in the next section.

3.2.1.1 Knowledge creation and capture

Knowledge is spontaneously created through interaction, and KM focusses at harnessing the generated knowledge during those interactions (Blacker, 1995, Uriarte, 2008, Crane and Bontis, 2014, Girard, 2015). Globalisation resulted in markets being highly competitive, thus there is need for enterprises to constantly generate novel ideas, knowledge, and concepts as well as capture the generated knowledge. Without the generation of knowledge, innovation and creativity may not be possible (Crane and Bontis, 2014). With innovation and creativity comes alternative approaches of doing things, cheaper methods of producing outputs, more effective and efficient task completion, attainment of results, targets and objectives (Uriarte, 2008, Crane and Bontis, 2014, Girard, 2015). Knowledge creation is a process of replacing both an enterprise's uncoded and codified knowledge with new content (Uriarte, 2008). This occurs through collaborative and cognitive processes and is a conscious and deliberate effort.

3.2.1.2 Knowledge Sharing

Hajiric (2018), postulated that KM entails availing the appropriate knowledge to the appropriate people at the appropriate time. Unlike in cases of information sharing, knowledge sharing, requires that genuinely interested people develop new capabilities for action, rather than giving something or getting something, hence, it is about creating learning processes (Senge, 1990, King, 2013). Knowledge sharing is the most vital of the four elements of knowledge management (Uriate, 2008). Knowledge sharing is described as either due to pull or push. Push is when knowledge is pushed onto the user, while pull is when the users actively searches out knowledge sources or experts. Sharing knowledge sharing depends on the willingness to share by the parties involved. Hence the creation of a vibrant knowledge sharing culture, with incentives, and a conducive knowledge sharing environment is contingent to innovation and creativity. Knowledge management initiatives depend on available knowledge, hence it is perceived to be very important.

Bukowitz and Williams (1999), stipulated that explicit knowledge sharing is dependent on the level of:

1. **Articulation**-which refers to the knowledge user's ability to define what knowledge and information is needed. Without understanding what type of knowledge is needed it is difficult to make an assessment of the information requirement. When using search engines to limit the search parameters in a database it is critical that the seeker of knowledge be specific on their requirements.
2. **Awareness**- of the knowledge available, for instance, knowledge of whether a policy exists on divas' empowerment is important to them and those affected by the policy who are not aware of its existence, may still be effected without being aware of its existence and the objectives of the policy may not be adequately realised. Awareness campaigns could be used to raise awareness of the existence of the policy.
3. **Guidance**- Managers should stipulate critical areas of expertise of the members of the business enterprise, assist users, guide their contributions, and be responsible for the language used in publications and other communication material. Management is therefore key in successful build-up of the knowledge sharing system. This step is necessary in order to avoid information or knowledge overload.

4. **Completeness**- refers to the ease of accessibility of knowledge of published works. Self-published knowledge is often subject to scrutiny and takes longer to publish than centrally published knowledge as it is not as hands-on as the latter.

3.2.1.3 Explicit knowledge sharing

Ultimately most of the knowledge sharing process requires information technology (IT), to manage content and for data analytics. Thus, it is critical for divas to acquire IT since it is a vital enabler for the management of codified knowledge and information. IT enables the sharing, sorting, and accessing of explicit knowledge (King, 2013). IT facilitates continuous information flow, thus ensuring attainment of a competitive advantage.

3.2.1.4 Tacit knowledge sharing

Davernport and Prusak (2000) and later King (2013), ascribe tacit knowledge sharing to informal networks that enable interaction between people as being important. These informal networks provide vital information which might be readily accessed through the formal networks. The networks should span across hierarchies, however, these are said to be difficult to monitor. Management is supposed to support networks by providing the means for communication to enable people to interact and trade tacit knowledge. The value of chaos must be understood by management. Social interaction thrives in a flexible work environment as workers value independence and become creative in problem solving. Culture, according to King (2013), is vital in implicit knowledge sharing. The entity must inculcate a culture of sharing knowledge to make sure that holders of knowledge see the value of sharing it.

3.2.1.5 Knowledge dissemination

Knowledge dissemination is made possible through publications or uploading information into a database for easy accessibility to users (Uriarte, 2008). Dissemination is facilitated by the use of KM systems. Carrion et al (2016), view knowledge dissemination as a process of exchanging and sharing knowledge among people within an enterprise. In order to enable sharing, tacit knowledge must be converted to its explicit form. These systems use technology as an enabler and not a substitute of knowledge. Consequently, technology is the tool, mode or medium for relaying data and information. There are various KM tools that are used in knowledge dissemination or systems.

3.3 The importance of Knowledge management

The significance of KM stems from the fact that KM enables enterprises to capture, apply and generate value from their employees' creativity and expertise. According to the resource-based view, enterprises that implement KM systems are able to capture and account for collective expertise and efficiently deploy it to areas needing specific knowledge for competitive advantage. It follows that firms would benefit from leveraging KM practices through the efficient deployment of knowledge assets. Consequently, organisational efficiency and effectiveness is brought about by leveraging knowledge resources through tapping from those who have and feeding it to those who need it.

The rise of the knowledge economy in highly competitive environments is leading to a shift in emphasis, with KM providing enhanced performance through innovative, effective, quality processes and productive knowledge strategies (Cong and Pandya, 2003. King, 2013). Empirical studies show that 21st century organisations that place value on KM strategies are more likely to succeed than those without (Grant & Grant, 2008). The transition from industrialised economies to the knowledge economy has forced organisation leaders to reflect on the role knowledge plays in business and how to leverage it for competitive advantage. Enhanced performance is reflected in more streamlined processes, informed decision making, reduced duplication, more innovation, advanced data integrity and greater cooperation within the organisation. The emphasis is now shifting towards knowledge assets rather than products and to knowledge utilising value-added services, and creating activities. Hence, KM has increasingly proved to be an organisation's leveraging mechanism, vital for the attainment of a competitive edge (King, 2013, Hajric, 2018). Consequently, KM can contribute to cost efficiency and improved service delivery and ensure the development of enterprises.

KM is viewed as the leveraging of collective wisdom to increase responsiveness and innovation (Girard, 2015, Hajric, 2018). A broader view of KM is the acquisition and use of resources to create an environment in which individuals acquire, share and use that information to generate their own knowledge and are encouraged and enabled to apply their own knowledge for the benefit of the organisation. Accordingly, the goal of KM is to stimulate individual professionals to do an

excellent job while capturing their knowledge and transforming it into something that it can use, such as new routines, new customer insight, and new product concepts.

New knowledge is created through building blocks in which knowledge creation is also supported by relevant information and data which can improve decisions. Botha et al (2008) posit that knowledge is created through practice, collaboration, interaction and education, as the different knowledge types are shared and converted. The correct forums must be provided for the sharing of tacit knowledge such as informal communication, and the enabling of sharing of explicit knowledge through an information technology platform and knowledge management systems as well as providing an enabling environment for knowledge sharing through seminars and workshops. Thus, knowledge creation and sharing are not divorced from each other. The implications for divas is that there is need to appreciate how knowledge is created and in what form it exists in order to efficiently leverage knowledge for competitive advantage.

3.3.1 The Stages in KM evolvement

Koenig (2018) traces the evolvement of KM to the 1990s and the stages are discussed below:

The first stage of KM involved information technology which prioritised the idea of intellectual capital, internet of things, growth and development powered by knowledge and emphasis on best practices. Technology was the buzzword and it was deployed with KM being driven by the internet of things (Koenig, 2018). Dealers in computers took advantage of the demand for technology and most organisations that invested heavily in computer technology to facilitate KM did not recoup their investment hence there was no return on investment. It is important that divas realise that technology is not the ultimate in KM but just an enabler.

The second stage of KM, put emphasis on human resources and corporate culture, with communities of practice at the forefront. It was important for organisations to encourage information sharing through rewarding those who were keen to share. It was also important to take cognisance of organisational culture in knowledge sharing as well as the recognition of Nonaka's tacit knowledge and how to cultivate it (Nonaka, Ikujiro and Takeuchi, Hirotaka, 1995).

Third stage of KM, focusses on content management and taxonomy (Koenig, 2018). The focus shifted towards leveraging big data analytics to enable KM with big organisations such as Apple

embracing such platforms. The emphasis was on big data analytics through which computers sort out data to enable the prediction of customer behaviour by analysing patterns to enhance decision making (Khan and Vorley, 2016).

3.3.2 Knowledge Management systems

Employees are the most important resource in competition since capabilities, interest and experience are critical in KM dissemination. There must be web-based tools, that is, skills management systems that support knowledge distribution, thus spreading the workload throughout the organisation (Uriate, 2008). All employees are able to update their profiles in the system on their own. Projects can then be defined together with competencies and capabilities required for successful execution. A knowledge map can then be created that shows the weaknesses and strengths of the enterprise, as well as contemporary issues (Uriate, 2008, King, 2013). A knowledge map helps one to navigate through customers, suppliers and competitors, documents, experts, and all other information users, which could be partners (King, 2013, Hajric, 2018).

Lessons learned is another tool used in KM (Uriate, 2008). In every entity, people learn every day and use their experiences to improve their work constantly, for efficiency and effectiveness of organisational operations. The lessons learned bring about a method of disseminating knowledge within the enterprise and thus forms the enterprise memory, hence, in instances where mistakes are costly if an employee leaves they would go with the institutional memory, it is important to preserve the knowledge (Hajric, 2018). Furthermore, in cases where best practices are prioritised, lessons learned systems are also extremely useful.

Notwithstanding the KM tools mentioned above, there are also collaborative and document management tools for sharing opinions and knowledge, ensuring sharing of implicit knowledge. In addition, these tools, enable efficient user interaction for internal and external users thus providing the link between the organisation and its stakeholders (Uriate, 2008, King, 2013, Hajric, 2018). Consequently, such an environment also encourages interactive forums which enable implicit knowledge sharing. A cooperative environment provides employees with a conducive environment which facilitates working securely on virtual workspaces. This is achieved through the use of e-mails, internet, web-browsers and desk-tops in order to share knowledge, and

cohesively construct relationships that are beneficial to the growth of the organisation which bring about efficiency to processes.

In addition to the KM tools mentioned above, there are groupware and workflow management tools which are also known as artificial-based collaboration as they bring all employees virtually together, such as e-mail texts, or shared documents like purchase orders or an employee's file. E-mail messaging efficiently enables contacts to share views on work, problems and proffer solutions using e-mail platforms (King, 2013, Hajric, 2018). Another very useful KM tool is communities of practice. This tool is an important means of sharing knowledge among people who have common interests. Communities of practice involves sharing of knowledge amongst groups with similar areas of interest (Uriate, 2008, King, 2013, Hajric, 2018).

3.4 Knowledge Management implementation

The KM implementation process takes the following patterns: production, organising, transfer, transformation, implementation, and maintenance (Uriate, 2008). Liebowitz (2010) alluded to a KM implementation process with the following order: organisational and technical infrastructure, knowledge structure, and friendly atmosphere in organisations, clear goals and common language, multiple ways of knowledge transfer, top management support, removing barriers to motivation. Of all the KM implementation enablers, management support and the embracement of technology are perceived as being critical. This is due to the fact that in KM implementation, attaining management acceptance, commitment and support for the plan is important for a successful KM implementation such that through this support group, the KM implementation team must be able to strongly link the KM plans with the present and future goals, needs and real capabilities of the organisation. KM implementation requires an effective leadership that is transformational in outlook to manage change.

Notwithstanding the observation above, Skyme (2004), provides a framework for KM implementation consisting of three tiers: the first layer represents the knowledge champion facilitators, who need to understand the strategic importance of KM as they are the ones with the key to financial resources. The second layer of the framework consists of the intellectual property or amplifiers that enable knowledge flow through, the efficient distribution of information.

Finally, at the bottom of the framework is the foundation tier that provides the competencies that embed knowledge into the organisation’s system. It consists of two harmonising strands, a hard communication infrastructure that supports learning, and a soft skills that through the human aspect that develops knowledge enhancing roles, skills, and behaviours. The framework for implementing KM is depicted on table 3.1.

Table 3.1 The framework for implementing knowledge management (Skyme, 2004)

1 st layer leadership	Structures Cultures Human resources policies Vision
2 nd layer Levers	Processes People Measurement Information Space
3 rd layer Foundations	‘Hard’ infrastructure- internet. Groupware. etc. ‘soft’ infrastructure- skills, learning Plus Tools and techniques

Notwithstanding the framework shown above, according to Uriate (2008), the actual Knowledge management system in an entity, involves five clear stages:

Stage 1: advocate and learn

According to Uriate (2008) to advocate and learn involves introducing KM to entity members and explaining its importance; identifying the guiding team; sharing experiences of other organisations; identifying supporters of KM and promoting various KM initiative (Uriate, 2008).

Stage 2: develop strategy

Developing a strategy entails identifying and characterising the knowledge assets of the organisation; developing a clear KM goals and objectives and conceptualising and preparing

preliminary designs of some strategic KM as well as finding the resources to support the selected KM initiatives (Uriate, 2008).

Stage 3: Design and launch KM initiatives

When the advantages of using and sharing information and knowledge become clear, leadership then needs to institute measurable gains and return on investment (Uriate, 2008).

Stage 4: Expand and support

To reach the fourth stage could take years, however, by then the organisation would have gained significant expertise on managing knowledge. Some important lessons and experience are likely to have been harnessed due to prior exposure, thus, at this point, it is important for the divas to continue to move with traction on the KM journey (Uriate, 2008).

Stage 5: Institutionalise knowledge management

As KM is now an integral part of the organisational processes, it is important for the enterprise to improve its strategies, through revamping its operations, and revisiting its performance evaluation through relooking at performance indicators (Uriate, 2008).

Uriate (2008) posits that an entity can determine that it is ready to embark on the fifth and final stage of KM implementation once it exhibits the following:

1. The KM system and business model are aligned.
2. KM initiatives are operational throughout the entity.
3. Everyone in the entity has been trained to use KM infrastructure including management and staff.
4. Gaps are identified in the KM strategy solutions are proffered to close the gaps.
5. A support systems for KM is in place.
6. There must be a reward and employee compensation program in place which is aligned with the KM strategy.
7. Knowledge sharing and communities of practice should be the norm in the enterprise (Uriate, 2008).

By the time the enterprise reaches the fifth stage KM will have been established as a business strategy.

3.4.1 Challenges of knowledge management implementation

The major challenge that hinders KM implementation is usually a result of entities that ignore or do not take into cognisance the cultural frameworks of people. In an environment in which peoples' knowledge is treasured and compensated, introducing a culture that recognises intellectual assets and promotes tacit knowledge sharing is vital (Uriarte, 2008). If holders of knowledge are disgruntled, they might withhold their knowledge and in the worst case scenario, they might vanish with the knowledge (Drucker, 2002).

It is ultimately prudent to realise that technology is an enabler and not the ultimate in KM. Some software companies have tended to dupe organisations through over valuing their software. As a result, several organisations that invested large financial resources in KM technology were disgruntled when they failed to recoup their investment, (Alavi et al, 2013). Uriarte (2008) also alluded to the same view that, while technology is important in KM, it is not the ultimate. Decisions have to be made based on the type of knowledge and the business objective and not on technology. King, (2013), is of the view that the KM program must be in tandem with the business goals. Without a business case for embarking on a KM strategy, KM becomes futile. Updating the information on a KM program constantly is paramount as knowledge is constantly evolving. Information overload can compromise quality. These challenges should be mitigated through an assessment of risk before KM implementation so that mitigating measures can be taken for successful KM implementation.

3.5 Knowledge management and big data analytics

Embracing KM promotes a systematic perspective to classifying, capturing, retrieving, evaluating, and sharing an organisation's knowledge resources using archives, or previously un-captured employees' expertise. Furthermore big data refers to enormous quantities of unstructured and structured data consisting of billions of data points or opinions which can be accessed real time (Khan and Vorley, 2016). These data sets are characterised by velocity, volume, and variety documents, policies and procedures (Duhon and Koenig, 2012, Khan and Vorley, 2016). Consequently, knowledge management is critical in the 21st century, as it ensures knowledge sharing which is vital for business success. Research has shifted towards investigating the extent

to which combining big data text analytics and KM will enhance knowledge creation, integration and sharing (Crane and Bontis, 2014, Girard, 2015, Khan and Vorley, 2016).

Thus, the creation and dissemination of knowledge has progressively become vital in competitiveness in the advent of big data analytics. (Brynjolfsson and McAfee, 2012 O' Leary, 2013, Khan and Vorley, 2016). Analytics is a technique of letting computers apply their power of manipulation to explore valuable insights about customer behaviour. KM is enabled through categorisation, visualisation and interpretation thus, the two processes KM and big data analytics complement each other (Davenport, 2013, Chen et al 2012, Khan and Vorley, 2016). Big data is acknowledged as driving the next industrial revolution, as it has enhanced business activities through efficient decision making (Chae, 2015, Chen et al, 2012, Khan and Vorley, 2016). However, giants like IBM, acknowledge that 80% of the data available is unstructured (George et al, 2014). Thus, this observation has given rise to the idea of the possibility of combining using big data to facilitate KM. Big data mining refers to the process of analysing data sets. Accurately quantifying these data can reveal a great deal about customer transaction trends and provide critical knowledge that could prove useful in competition. Some of the organisations that have successfully embraced big data analytics are giants, Amazon, eBay and Walmart to effectively manage vast quantities of knowledge, as well as interact with their clientele to enhance their business operations (Davenport, 2013, Watson & Marjanovic, 2013, Khan and Vorley, 2016). Understanding these customer trends by divas can enable the prediction of customer future behaviour and expose valuable insights.

Given that the various companies mentioned above have successfully utilised big data for business success, points to the fact that embracing big data mining to enhance knowledge management practices could ensure that enterprises anticipate and deal with problems before they manifest. Khan and Vorley (2016) recommend that by embracing big data analytics together with KM there is a chance to unravel the hidden knowledge and create new knowledge. Such a scenario will ensure the elimination of costly and redundant investment of scarce resources. Big data analytics is however, only possible if knowledge management is successfully carried out. KM systems are seen as vital in enhancing the effectiveness and swiftness of business operations as well as being important sources of competitive leverage (Cockrell and Stone, 2013). Khan and Vorley (2016:3),

state that big data is the boundary for improvement, creativity and productivity growth and it follows that if divas embrace big data and KM, it may lead to enterprise development (Chec et al, 2012).

Method of big data text analytics

The big data analytics-knowledge management model (BDA-KM) model depicts the combination of big data analytics and KM process. The reasons for the collection of big data according to Wang and Pauleen (2017), may be initiated by predefined problems, motivations of exploring new opportunities without clear problems being defined, or the attainment of organisational goals. Figure 3.3 below shows big data and knowledge management processes.

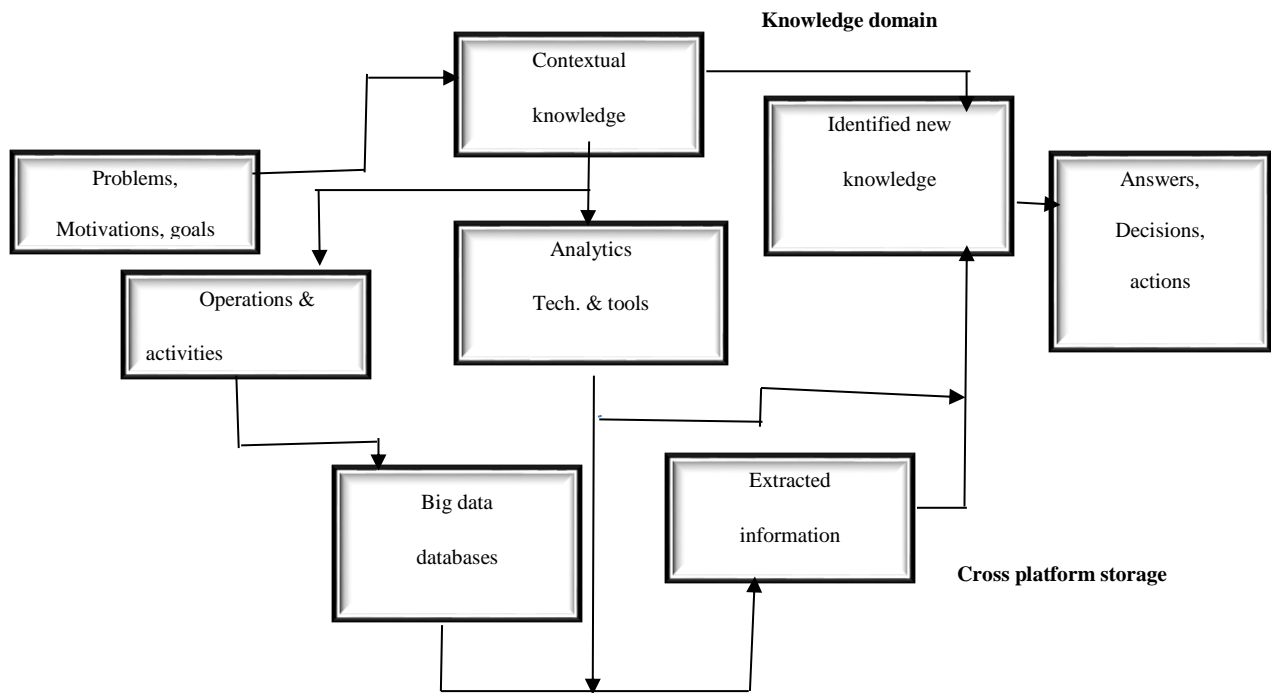


Figure 3.4 The big data/ analytics –knowledge management (BDA-KM) model (Wang, 2017)

Big data analytics enables the identification of new patterns that could support strategic initiatives or new opportunities. According to Wang and Pauleen (2017) the Google Cloud Platform and Amazon Web Services provide such devices to help enterprises in opportunity recognition. Due to the large volume of unprocessed data requiring processing for decision making, data analytic

Apache Hadoop distributed file system is an access free software which allows the storage and disbursement of volumes of data set on several servers, while the Map Reduce, provides the interface for generation, processing, and distribution of enormous data (Khan and Vorley, 2016).

3.6 Knowledge strategy

A knowledge strategy integrates a knowledge management strategy and strategic management in order to create new value by viewing knowledge as a strategic resource in management decision making (Bratianu, 2015). Knowledge strategy planning is relevant for divas operating in a stormy environment such as the one obtaining in Zimbabwe. In turbulent business environments there prevails uncertainty resulting in continuous need for achievement, thus it becomes imperative that strategic thinking and planning is employed in order to attain competitive advantage. According to the world economic forum report (2019), Zimbabwe is one of the poorest nations in the world with living standards having dropped to by 78% from what they were at the attainment of independence in 1980. Massive factory closures have resulted in de-industrialisation, hence, there is need for a turnaround strategy to create employment. A knowledge strategy presents means to manage uncertainty which results from ignorance which can be due to lack of data and information about the nature of the economic environment (Kotter, 2012, Bratianu, 2015).

A turbulent economic environment requires the embracement of strategic thinking which is a mental process that is future oriented that expresses a philosophy about work, competition and survival (Bratianu, 2015), a knowledge strategy can result in knowledge exploitation leading to the efficient use of explicit knowledge so as to maximise profits. In turbulent economic environments it is also critical to embrace the knowledge strategy through knowledge creation and using created knowledge to innovate products and services as shown in the figure 3.4.

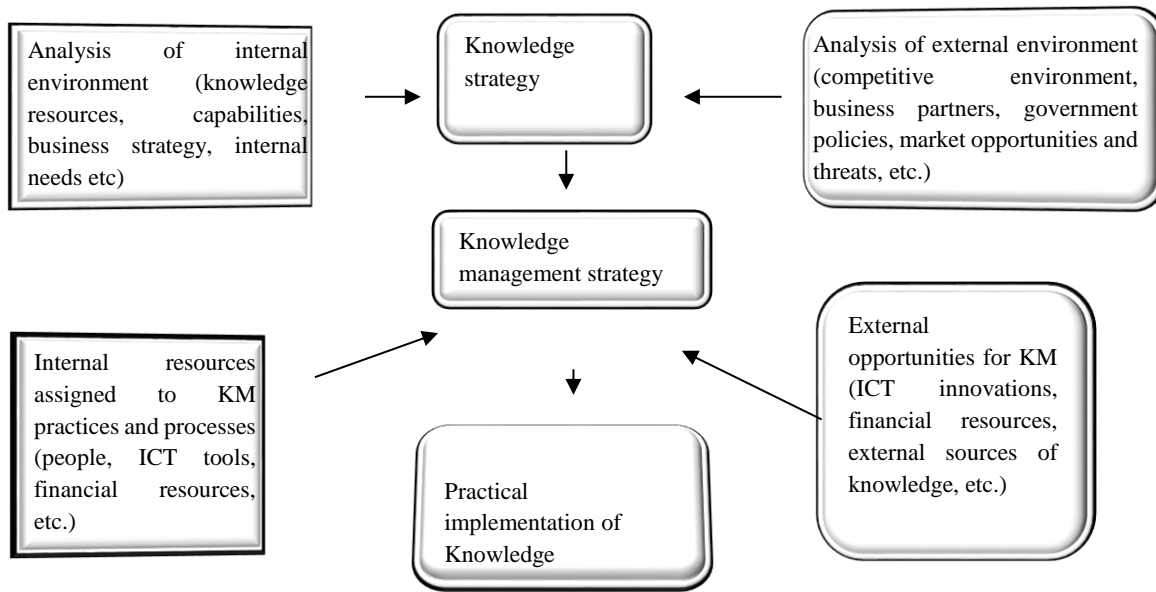


Figure 3.5 Rational view of knowledge strategy planning (adapted from Bratianu, 2015).

Figure 2.5 shows aspects of the knowledge strategy starting with an analysis of the internal environment, to assess the knowledge resources available, capabilities, business strategy and assessing the internal needs of the enterprise.

An examination of the external environment includes an exploration of the competitive environment, the type of business partners, government policies, market opportunities and threats that exist. The knowledge strategy works in conjunction with a knowledge management strategy which looks into the internal resources allocated for knowledge management practices and processes such as the human resource, information communication (ICT) tools and financial resources. Another aspect of the knowledge management strategy are the external opportunities for KM such as ICT innovations, financial resources, external sources of knowledge (Bratianu, 2015).

Scholarly literature demonstrates that entities that have adopted KM strategies stand a better chance to succeed than those reluctant to embrace such strategies (Bratianu, 2015). In highly competitive environments, the era ushered in by KM has led to an emphasis from goods and services to the amount of knowledge resources that the organisation holds. Consequently, KM enhances performance through the creative application of knowledge processes for efficiency and

effectiveness (Cong and Pandya, 2003, Khan and Vorley, 2016) Thus, improved performance is portrayed in informed and effective streamlined processes, decision making, more innovation, reduced duplication, advanced data integrity and greater organisation cooperation, resulting in useful knowledge being tapped.

3.7 The knowledge management cycle

Notwithstanding the KM models discussed above, Wiig's KM model is different as it magnifies the importance of knowledge. Wig proposes that knowledge must be organised through a form of semantic network that is congruent, connected, and complete, and that has perspective and purpose. All the models discussed in this study have a bearing on divas' successful enterprise development and can provide a roadmap for attaining that goal.

Wiig (1993) went further to identify the purpose of knowledge management as being an effort to make the enterprise intelligent through facilitating the creation, accumulation, deployment and use of quality knowledge. Wiig (1993: p. 39) views knowledge as the principal force that determines and drives the ability to act intelligently, thus approaching tasks with greater expertise. Wiig's cycle consists of four steps namely:

- a) Building knowledge;
- b) Holding knowledge;
- c) Pooling knowledge;
- d) Applying knowledge.

Wiig's cycle states that learning can emanate from: formal education, peers, personal experience and various other sources (Dalkir, 2005:54) and it addresses a broad range of learning from various sources. The cycle is demonstrated on figure 3.5.

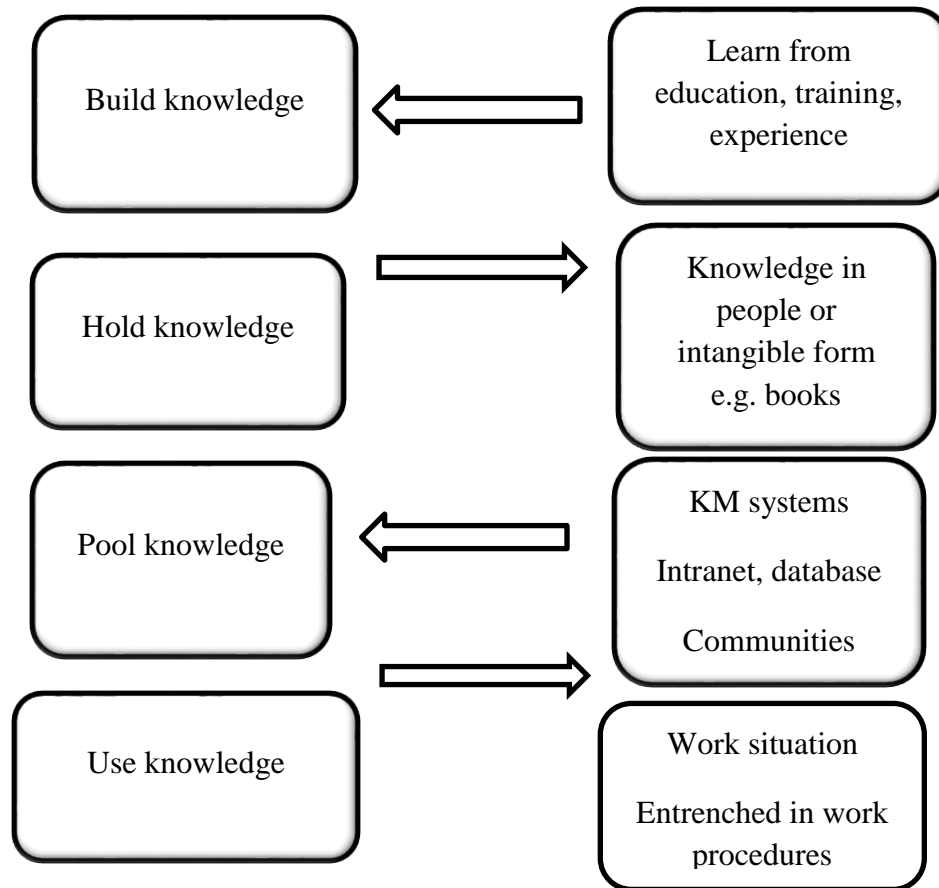


Figure 3.6 The major steps in the Wiig Cycle *Source: adapted from Dalkir, (2005 p.54)*

The relevancy of Wiig’s KM cycle to divapreneurship development is as follows:

1. The knowledge can be used to diagnose problems and their potential impact.
2. The acquired knowledge can be used to perform tasks such as the use of expert network to identify knowledgeable people in a certain area.
3. Knowledge can lead to the synthesis of alternative solutions to problems.

The knowledge management cycle has strategic implications for divapreneurs. The cycle represents the decisive basis for intelligent, competent behaviour by all organisational members. Addington, Mcgovern and Ferlie, (2006) view KM efforts as typically focusing on organisational objectives such as improved performance, competitive advantage, innovation, the sharing of lessons learned, and integration of continuous improvement of the enterprise. The advantage of the Wiig’s KM cycle is that it gives a clear and precise description of how organisational memory is put into use in order to generate value for individuals, groups, and the organisation itself. This

current study intends to establish the extent to which divas have adopted knowledge management practices for their business success.

3.8 Key knowledge management strategy components

Geisler & Wickiamasinghe (2009) posit that KM strategy enables an enterprise to attain a competitive advantage through enabling the free flow of ideas, streamlining response time, efficiently getting products to the market and providing an effective service, acknowledging the value of employees and eliminating unnecessary processes. Figure 3.4 depicts the aspects of the KM strategy components.

Schematic view of the key knowledge management components

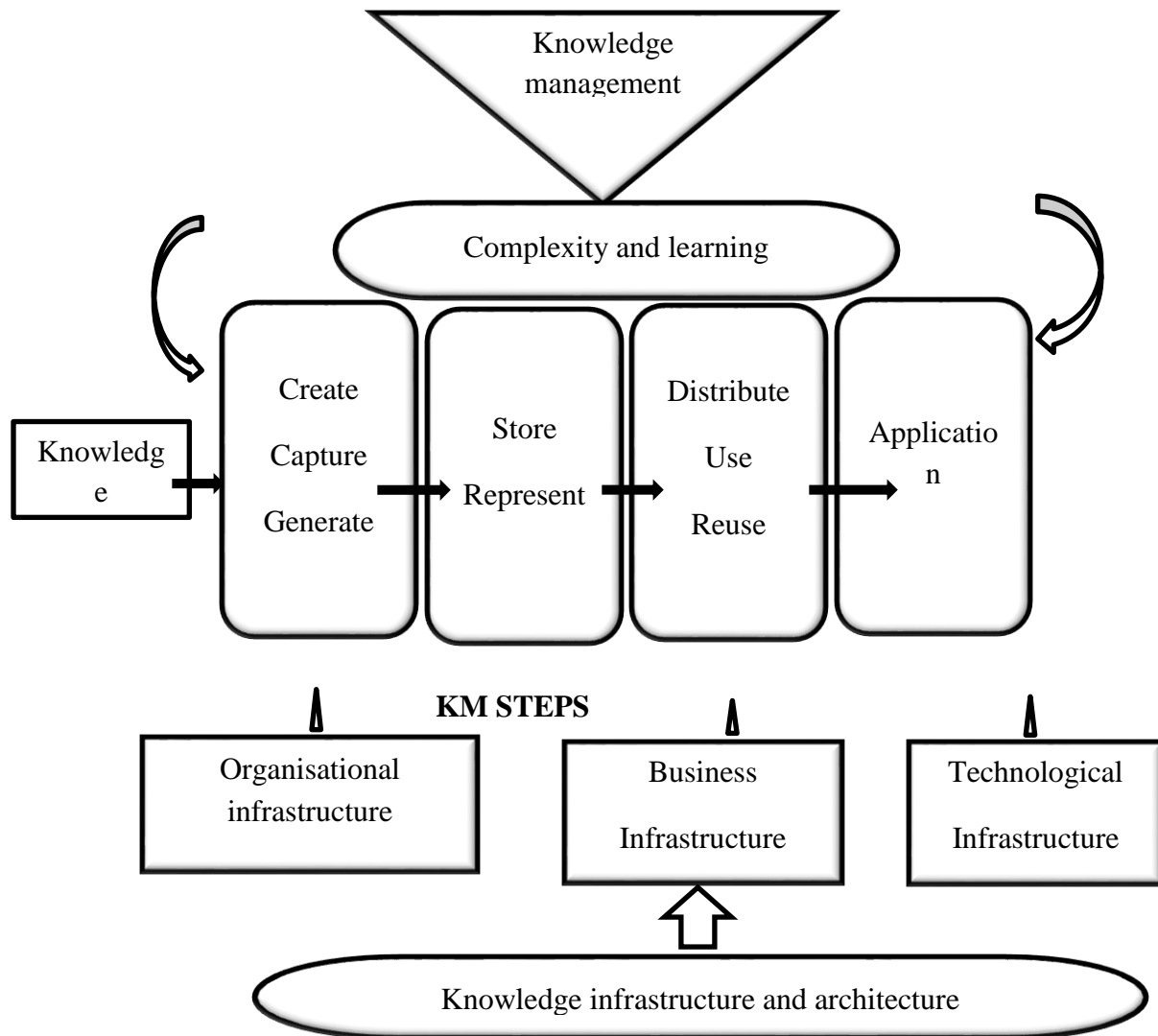


Fig 3.7 The dynamics of knowledge management components adapted from Glassier (2009)

The diagram above illustrates the interrelatedness of the knowledge management steps and the infrastructure that is required for the successful embracement of the knowledge management strategy (Geisler & Wickiamasinghe, 2009). Creation or capture and generation of knowledge involves amassing knowledge initiatives such as learning and interaction as well as finding tacit knowledge through the use of demonstration to transform implicit knowledge into its explicit form. Generating new knowledge also involves combining existing explicit knowledge to form new knowledge (Geisler & Wickiamasinghe, 2009). Storage or retaining knowledge involves

consolidating the entity's knowledge and storing in repositories for future use. Distribution or sharing knowledge involves exchanging knowledge amongst entity members as a foundation of competitive advantage which is attained through sharing and empowering with knowledge. It is worth noting that knowledge that is not shared is not useful (Geisler & Wickiamasinghe, 2009).

The knowledge management strategy also involves providing access to the most relevant knowledge available; adapting knowledge management best practices through making knowledge management a natural part of the workflow; obtaining the support of the key managers from the top down; addressing the cultural change that knowledge management implies; recognising and rewarding the effort of knowledge workers; and monitoring performance as well as analysing results for continuous improvement (Geisler & Wickiamasinghe, 2009).

3.9 Strategic success formula

Igor Ansoff's strategic success formula reveals that the strategy must match the environment. Furthermore, managers, climate, competence and capacity must also match the environment. Strategic success involves carrying out strategic planning and managing change using Ansoff's approach. The approach has ten steps as follows:

1. Identify dominant trends in the macro and micro environment.
2. Pinpoint those trends that have a direct and significant bearing on the business.
3. Assess each trend's potential impact on the business.
4. Carry out a swot analysis of the business's position compared with the contemporary trends.
5. Identify alternative strategic choices that must be made to come to terms with or as a response to the significant trends identified.
6. Evaluate each strategic choice in terms of pros and cons.
7. Select preferred strategic choices.
8. Test internal consistency of preferred choices.
9. Identify the necessary conditions required to effect or implement chosen strategies.
10. Prepare action plans and allocate resources and set control and monitoring mechanisms.

3.10 Theories

3.10.1 The learning theory

According to the individual learning theory, propounded by Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2003), learning occurs when individuals acquire information and knowledge. This process is viewed as identical to the enhancement of an individual’s mental models, which subsequently can guide the individual and thus, organisational behaviour. It is the focus on learning, which is centred on what goes on in the minds of people which is the interest of this study. Senge (1990), likens it to ‘systems thinking’ and organisational members must learn to relate to the system by thinking, in order to behave in adequate ways. The focus on mental models as an essence of learning in individual learning theory is the reason why it is referred to as cognitive structures (Easterby-Smith and Lyles, 2003). The learning framework is presented on figure 3.8.

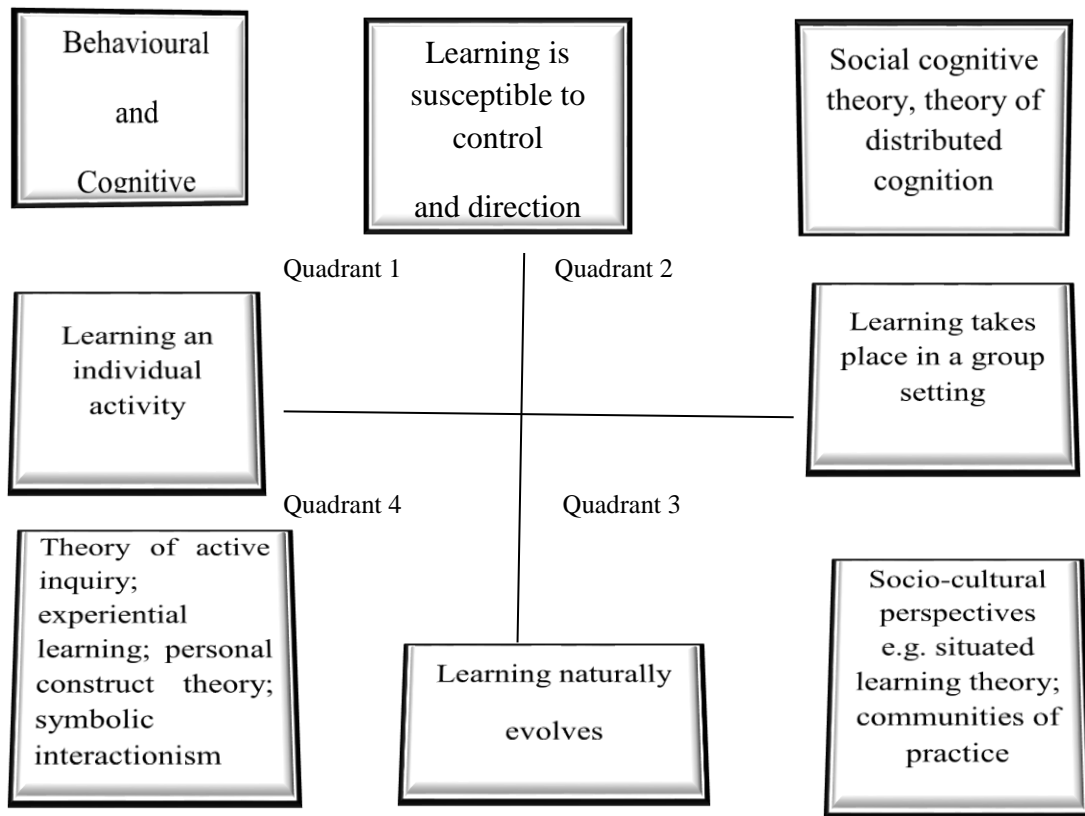


Fig 3.8 The four quadrant learning framework.

Source: Adapted from Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2011).

The four Quadrant framework depicted above represents two theoretical perspectives of learning, with the top part quadrant one and quadrant two representing cognitive processes and the bottom, quadrants three and quadrant four representing preoccupation with relationships.

Quadrant one: the individual perspective

The implications for divapreneurship development is that learning can be enabled and controlled by knowledge experts who have the responsibility to support the learner to enable the necessary change. Learning is achieved by creating an environment which reinforces desirable actions (Skinner, 1953). Both cognitive and behaviourist's recognise the existence of external stimuli for learning to occur. This view is also supported by the double loop learning (Argyris and Schon, 1978, and generative learning (Senge, 1990). On the contrary, for the cognitivists, learning is not just a change in behaviour, rather, it is a change in the way the information is processed and the individual's mental schema is built or re-organised (Blanchard and Thacker, 2010). Yet to Behaviourists learning is seen as a change in behaviour occurring as a result of practice or experience (Bass and Vaughan, 1967).

Quadrant two: the group perspective

The individual activities influence joint distributed patterns of knowledge and cognitions, which in turn affect their own thinking and behaviour (Pea, 1999). Bandura (1997) points out that individuals and context have a mutually reinforcing effect. The implications for divapreneurship development is that, on the whole, there is a sense that learning can be managed either through effective exchange and dialogue, or through interpretation systems and appropriate reinforcement.

Quadrant three: learning evolves naturally

The social constructivists are opposed to the idea that learning occurs individually. They argue that the person and environment interaction is critical, and that the individual is inevitably a product of his or her environment (Hysman, 2000). The implication for divas is that while learning is self-reflection, it also occurs involving others. This is due to the fact that groups create knowledge and attribute meaning to certain actions, giving rise to collective identity.

Quadrant four: the individual perspective

This quadrant addresses the practice based nature of learning such as experiential learning, project learning, team-based learning, action learning, personal development plans, coaching and mentoring, job shadowing and buddying to mention a few. This quadrant addresses the practice based nature of learning such as experiential learning, project learning, team-based learning, action learning, personal development plans, coaching and mentoring, job shadowing and buddying to mention a few. The implications for divapreneurship development is that learning in all forms emphasises reflective practices (Hysman, 2000). Lessons learned are captured onto knowledge management databases for re-use by teams. It is in this quadrant that organisational learning and subsequently learning organisation occur.

3.11 Psychological entrepreneurial theories

Psychological theories account for the individual personal characteristics that are associated with entrepreneurial success. Baum et al (2014) consider psychological theories as dealing with the mental and emotional facets of a person that drive entrepreneurial activities. These psychological theories were classified into three categories by Simpeh (2011), namely personality traits, McClelland's need for achievement and Rotter's locus of control. These three categories will be explained in terms of their impact on entrepreneurial success.

3.11.1 Personality trait theory

Coon (2004) portrayed personality traits as those characteristics that a person exhibits in most situations. These personal traits can either be inborn or acquired and they are inferred from the behaviour of the entrepreneur. Characteristics commonly associated with entrepreneurs are that they tend to be opportunity driven, creative and innovative and show astute management skills and business know-how. Entrepreneurs tend to be dissatisfied with the status quo, are change oriented and are also lifelong learners. The personality trait model helps explain the personal characteristics that are enduring and make it possible for entrepreneurs to succeed in business.

3.11.2 Locus of control

This theory was propounded by Julian Rotter in 1954. According to Rotter (1966) cited in Sempeh (2011), locus of control depicts a person's insight about the causes of the events in their lives. An individual with an internal locus of control trusts that success is inherent in their effort as they have control over life events. Those with an external locus of control ascribe their success to support from outside such as luck or fate. According to Sempeh (2011) entrepreneurs tend to have a higher internal locus of control than other business sectors. Locus of control is associated with risk taking and innovativeness amongst other traits. Risk takers have a higher likelihood to become entrepreneurs as this is the most basic action that entrepreneurs undertake towards success through high performance.

3.11.3 Need for achievement

Unlike the personality model which dwells on inborn qualities and the locus of control which looks into the individual's perceptions about the punishments and rewards in their life. McClelland ascribed entrepreneurial success to the need for achievement which is the driving force behind most successful entrepreneurial ventures (Sempeh, 2011).

Thus, Baum et al (2014), are of the view that understanding the psychological traits assists in making a determination whether society has several individuals possessing entrepreneurial characteristics which has government policy implications.

3.12 Knowledge management and enterprise development

Entrepreneurship involves establishing a business venture, acquiring or expanding an existing business, bearing risks and uncertainties in making business choices (Kuratko, 2009). It is worth noting that scholars have come up with different definitions of entrepreneurship. Any entrepreneurial venture that thrives in the 21st century must understand that this is the knowledge age and should thus be one that learns, remembers and makes informed decision making based on knowledge. Divapreneurship development cannot be adequately addressed without appreciating the meaning of entrepreneurship. A successful divapreneurship venture that prospers in this 21st

century will be one that conducts business effectively and efficiently (Davenport and Prusak, 1998).

Entrepreneurial activities are intricately linked to innovation, creativity and competitive advantage. Entrepreneurial activities cannot take place without business opportunities. Many researchers tend to focus on the nature and drivers of business opportunities and how these are discovered and how they are exploited or created (Kirzner, 1997; Alvarez & Barney, 2007) (Lachmann, 1986; Garud and Karnoe, 2001). In this line, several studies have analysed theoretically how insights from knowledge management (KM) can unravel the learning processes associated with opportunity discovery and creation. It is clear that the entrepreneur's ability to create, discover and successfully exploit opportunities is closely related to their perception (Gaglio, 2004) and method of learning. These studies have considered different theoretical perspectives (Short *et al.*, 2010), and have emphasised various facets including, the nature of the entrepreneur and the nature of the knowledge involved in the opportunity formation process (Alvarez *et al.*, 2013). In order to establish the precursors to entrepreneurship development it is critical to have an overview of women entrepreneurship development in general and in Zimbabwe in particular.

3.13 The conceptual framework of the study

The conceptual framework depicted in figure 3.9 shows the study map of how the variables relating to the phenomenon under study are related. The key variables in enterprise development that developed from the review of literature and examination of the theoretical framework reveals that knowledge management strategies and government policy are interrelated. Figure 3.9 portrays the relationship between the key variables.

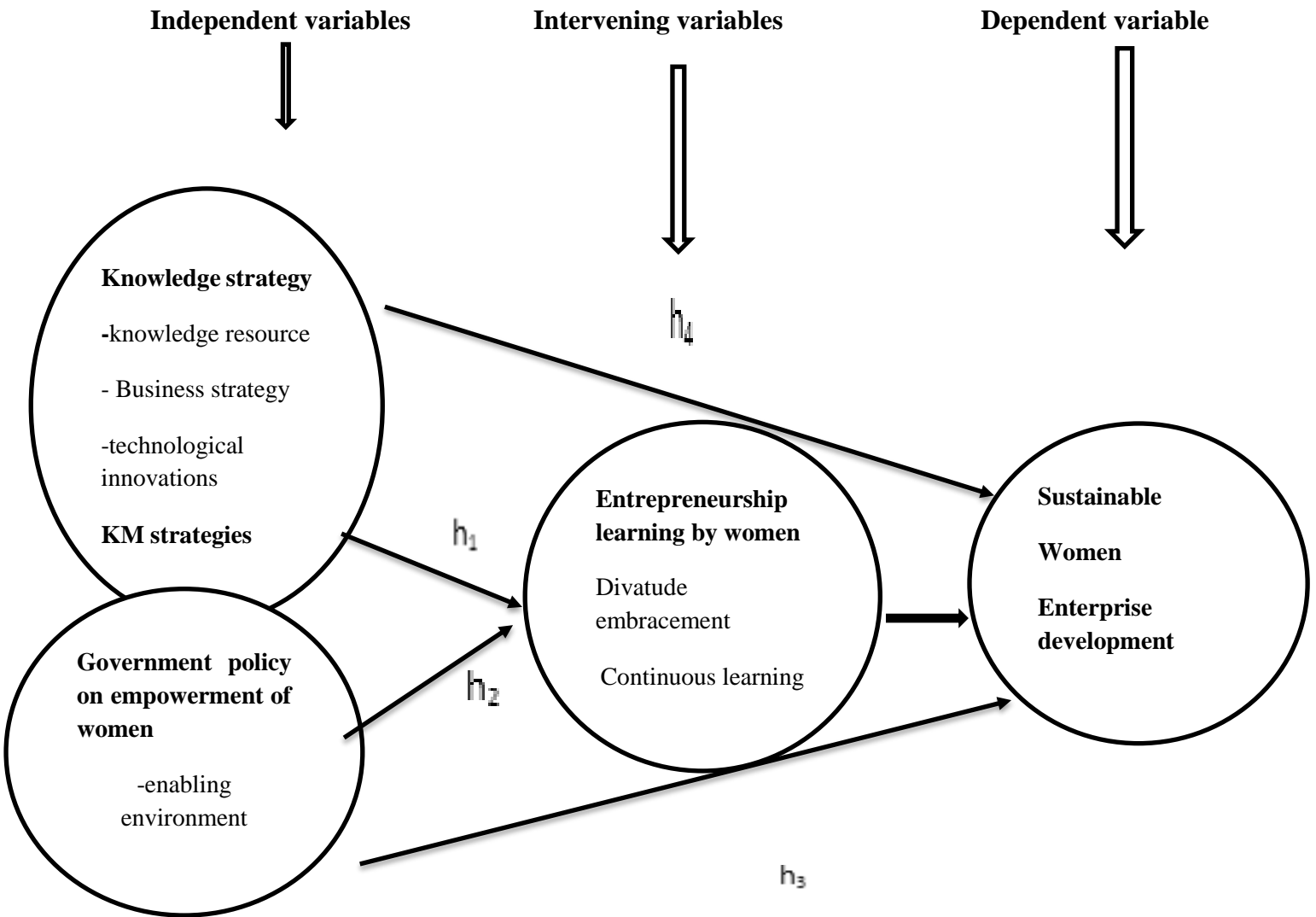


Figure 3.9 The conceptual framework (own compilation, 2019).

Figure 3.9 show that knowledge strategy and government policy interventions are independent variables in divapreneurship with entrepreneurial learning and personality traits being the intervening variables in the equation. Knowledge strategy integrates a knowledge management strategy and strategic management in order to create new value by considering knowledge as a strategic resource in management decision making (Edvinsson, 2002). The crafting of a business strategy, will ensure that the operations of women enterprises are aligned to the strategic plan, mission and the vision. Such a strategic alignment will ensure that the enterprises do not lose sight of their reason for existence. The use of technological innovations such as big data analytics results in improved women business performance, efficient decision making, efficient processes and quality products and service provision. Through entrepreneurship training interventions, divas could be equipped with requisite knowledge, skills and the right attitudes for success. Without the provision of an enabling environment through government policy, women entrepreneurship development will remain elusive. The embracement of the divatude could be attained through entrepreneurship training and education as well as continuous learning through knowledge sharing workshops and seminars.

3.14 Hypotheses

In order to more accurately understand the interrelatedness of the variables the listed hypotheses were formulated.

H₁: There is a positive relationship between knowledge creation and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₀: There is no positive relationship between knowledge creation and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₂ There is a positive relationship between knowledge sharing and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₀ There is no positive relationship between knowledge sharing and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₃ There is a positive relationship between government policy intervention and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₀ There is no positive relationship between government policy intervention and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₄ There is no positive relationship between knowledge strategy and divapreneurship development.

H₀ There is no positive relationship between knowledge strategy and divapreneurship development.

H₅ There is a positive relationship between continuous learning and divapreneurship development.

H₀ There is no positive relationship between continuous learning and divapreneurship development.

3.15 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed theories on knowledge management and government policy and provided a theoretical base for the current study. Although there are various theories of entrepreneurship, two theories were found to be relevant to this study namely, the learning theory and the personality trait theory. Various frameworks that are relevant to divapreneurship development were discussed, in particular the connection between knowledge management strategies and technological innovations as well as government policy and their relevancy to enterprise development. The elements on the conceptual framework of the study were briefly discussed. The next chapter provides a road map for the thesis, by detailing the research design, approach, sampling techniques and data collection methods.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

This chapter, commences by highlighting the research philosophy underpinning the study and explains the competing research philosophies, namely those of positivism and interpretivism, realism and pragmatism. Such an explanation is followed by a detailed discussion of the different research approaches. The research methodology adopted for investigating the phenomenon under study is presented in order to provide the techniques and options that were available to answer the study's questions, thereby achieving the study's objectives. The case for post-positivism is argued, on the grounds that, in social and behavioural science studies, absolute objectivity does not exist, in which the researcher is completely divorced from the topic under study. The subsequent sections of the chapter comprise of the research design, research strategy, target population, sampling design and sampling procedure, data collection procedures and research instruments, validity and reliability of the research instruments, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

4.1 Research Philosophy

Research is viewed as a disciplined inquiry into the study of phenomenon, thus it is a step by step method of problem solving (Gay and Airasian, 2016). In contrast, Fellows and Liu (2011: 4) consider research '*as a journey of discovery, with the intention to both discover and to reconstruct the truth.*' Yet in contrast, Saunders (2009:138) views research as '*grounded on philosophical assumptions, which are in line with the researcher's understanding of the truth.*' In this study research is understood as involving the development of knowledge and understanding the nature of knowledge. The study was undertaken to establish precursors to divapreneurship development in order to contribute to existing limited research on women entrepreneurship development. It is critical to appreciate the philosophical assumptions in terms of epistemology as well as ontology (Easterby-Smith *et al* (2015) in behavioural research. Epistemology deals with what constitutes satisfactory knowledge in an area of study and concerns itself with understanding the source of what people know. In this perspective, the questions that emerged in this study related to what constituted significant evidence, and what gave rise to knowledge thereof. Thus epistemology

questions the origin of knowledge, nature of knowing and building of knowledge and also looks into what role values play in understanding knowledge. On the other hand ontology embodies what reality entails as well as the nature of entities found in the universe. Ontology also deals with what is considered as evidence in research (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). Ontology mainly focuses on objectivism, recognising the fact that social objects exist outside those individuals linked to their existence. In effect, therefore, ontology is the researcher's perception of the nature of the real world relating to questions that may not have definitive answers such as what happens to people when they die. Ontology also deals with subjectivism, recognising that social phenomena is created from the beliefs of those related to their existence (Saunders, 2009). Hence, people have different opinions regarding ontological questions.

4.2 Research Paradigms

Liu *et al* (2015) define a research paradigm as a system people view events and thus it is a broad system of beliefs guiding research and practice. Scientific research both natural and behavioural have taken different dimensions in line with different philosophical assumptions leading to different types of research. These have resulted in different methodological underpinnings emerging, namely positivism, interpretivism, realism and pragmatism as described in the onion designed by Saunders *et al* (2009:139). Saunders' research onion explains the different aspects of research and has the following layers: research approaches, research philosophies, research strategies, methodological options, time limits, research techniques and procedures which are important in this study and it clearly lays out the methodology adopted. All these layers of the onion are shown on figure 4.1.

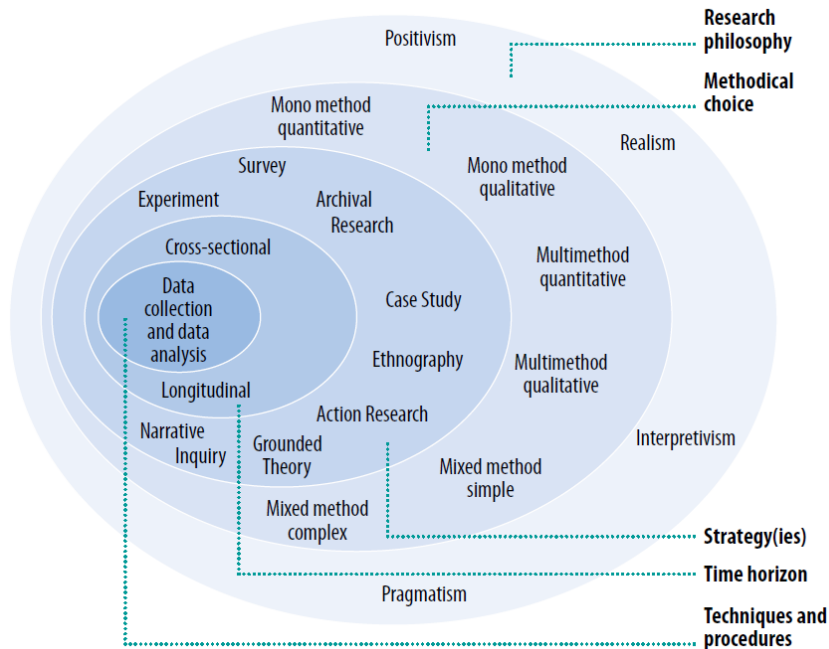


Figure 4.1 Saunders Research Onion: Saunders and Tosey (2015).

4.2.1 Positivism

The positivism research paradigm or the scientific method, is objective in nature and is wholly quantitative and interpretations are through deductive reasoning and logic (Saunders, 2009). Easterby-Smith *et al* (2015:56), views positivism as associated to the fact *‘that the social world exists independently and that its properties can be measured through objective methods, rather than inferred subjectivity through sensation, reflection or intuition.’* The nineteenth century philosopher Auguste Comte (1853:3), held the ontological belief that, ‘there is no knowledge except that which is based on observed facts.’ This statement hinges on the epistemological belief that knowledge is of significance only if there is empirical evidence backing it. Positivists believe in empiricism, which is based on the belief that observations and measurements constitute the core of all scientific endeavours (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). Thus, researchers who support positivism have argued that the world is concrete and real, and that a separation is necessary between the researcher and the research object in order to prevent the former’s subjective feelings from affecting the research process, which might, otherwise, cause bias to the study.

4.2.2 Interpretivism

In contrast to positivism, interpretivists strongly view the world as being subjective, due to being determined by people, as opposed to objective, externally observable facts (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). Liu *et al* (2011) supports the same argument and believe that truth and reality cannot exist independently as they are socially constructed. The researcher's part in the course of the research is viewed by interpretivists as that of gaining a broad overview of the context of the topic being researched.

Contemporary schools of thought have their own preferences by promoting their own ideologies and claiming superiority of one school of thought over another. As the debate rages on, various research approaches characterising both the positivist and interpretivist approaches have emerged. Proponents of positivism, for example, believe that qualitative data does not necessarily exist in exclusivity, and that all data can be quantified by means of allocating figures or codes (Easterby-Smith, 2015). Interpretivists, in contrast, argue that all data are basically qualitative, with numbers merely being attached to meanings in quantitative analysis.

4.3 The post-positivist paradigm

The recognition that neither positivism nor interpretivism best explains reality to perfection, led to a new paradigm known as post-positivism. Ryan (2014: 16) explain that the post-positivism paradigm has gained popularity due to the fact that divisions between objectivity and subjectivity are socially constructed. Post-positivists recognise that all observations are prone to error, which allows for the theory to be revisited (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). One of the philosophical foundations of post-positivism is critical realism which underscores the fact that there is reality beyond people's thinking. This is in direct contrast to the view by interpretivists that there is no external reality until it is constructed socially by observers through interpretation.

Essentially, post-positivists doubt people's ability to understand reality with a high degree of certainty to which positivists subscribe. To address the shortcomings of positivism, post-positivists emphasise the importance of using multiple measures and observations (i.e. triangulation of data) to enhance the understanding of reality (Easterby-Smith, 2015). Though both positivists and post-positivists are realists, the latter tend to be more critical of reality than the positivists are. Post-positivists also believe that the best way to achieve objectivity is to triangulate across multiple

methods of data collection and analysis. Thus, in line with such thinking, objectivity is not inherent in an individual, as is presupposed in interpretivism nor does it exist outside the knowledge of the researcher, as the positivists argue. Instead, it is a fundamental social occurrence (Fellows and Liu, 2011).

4.3.1 Justification of the post-positivist paradigm

The current study adopted the post-positivist paradigm, based on the understanding that researching knowledge management strategies and government policy in divapreneurship development is deeply rooted in the social and behavioural context. The choice of such an approach also hinges on the fact that total objectivity is considered to be impossible in social and behavioural science research. Furthermore, it is assumed that subjectivity is inherent in the social and behavioural world, although it can be reduced by means of triangulation of the methods used, through introspecting and by subjecting the topic covered to scrutiny (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 201). Such practices can, at least partly, be measured to a certain extent on a scale representing the perceptions of the respondents.

Whittaker (2015:135) states that the manager or any other individual is not an autonomous self-sufficient source of intelligibility, who possesses mental states in isolation, and who acts in terms of an essentially disinterested intentionality. The fact that individuals and objects cannot be separated in the research context is clearly enunciated by Whittaker (2015: 135), who argues that ‘any distinction that presumes the manager or the world as simply there is meaningless.’ Rather, such a person derives their being (i.e. their intelligibility) from existing in the world. It is for this reason that this current study argues that neither a purely positivism nor a purely interpretivism approach can adequately address the research questions but a combination of the two approaches (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). Determination of interdependence between knowledge management strategies and government policy, which is the major aim of this thesis, can best be accomplished through using post-positivist and interpretivist approaches. From a constructivist perspective, it is possible to get the best from both perspectives through gathering evidence from both quantitative and qualitative data to capture diverse views and experiences of different individuals and observers, through triangulation. Triangulation ensures the corroboration of research findings through the use of various unrelated data sources or data collection methods.

4.4 Research design and strategies

Babbie and Mouton (2009: 72) define a research design ‘as the planning of scientific inquiry, meaning to specify as clearly as possible what the researcher wants to discover and to determine the best way to do so.’ Defining the research questions was considered vital in this study, hence the research design is the roadmap of how the research questions or testing of the hypotheses was carried out by the researcher (Saunders, 2009:156, Creswell, 2013, Ohammadzader, 2014). The research design in this study consisted of both quantitative and qualitative or mixed method research (Tashakkori and Teddie, 2003; Creswell, 2013). Quantitative research involves numeric relationships between variables and is objective, and assumes either an experimental or non-experimental category (Saunders, 2009). The non-experimental method was chosen in this study as no deliberate attempt was made to alter the behaviour of the research subjects, thus the survey design was opted for.

In experimental research which is considered the most precise and reliable method of research, there is manipulation of the phenomenon in order to establish the cause and effect. In contrast in non-experimental research, neither the behaviour nor conditions of the subjects of research are intentionally changed. The phenomena is measured in the same state in which they are discovered (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). Examples of non-experimental research are survey, exploratory studies, or correlation studies, and causal comparative studies. Survey research focuses on measuring the characteristics, attitudes and perceptions of different groups towards certain phenomenon. There are also correlation research approaches that determine and examine the strengths and direction of the relationship between two or more variables in relation to the same group of people (Creswell, 2013). Causes of differences between certain groups of people is investigated by causal comparative research. This current study adopted a non-experimental research design using mixed- method research. The logic for this strategy was that the weaknesses of each individual method would be compensated for by counter balancing with the strength of another and by combining methods, the researcher hoped to overcome the deficiencies of each method (Creswell, 2006, Tashakkori and Teddie, 2003; Creswell, 2009, Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015).

4.4.1 Contrasting strengths of qualitative and quantitative methods

As observed by Castro *et al* (2010:1), within the social and behavioural sciences, the advantages of quantitative methods ensure: a) objectivity and accurate operationalisation and measurement of specific constructs based on the natural scientific method which holds that research must be limited to what one can observe and measure; b) the ability to carry out group comparisons, the overall objective is to test and verify theory and not to develop one; c) the capability to examine the intensity of association between variables of interest and d) the ability for model specification and the testing of research hypothesis. The disadvantage of this scientific method was that it detaches information from reality (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2003).

In line with assertions by Gelo *et al* (2008), the qualitative approach adopted in this study offered the following advantages: a) the ability to tap into the experiences and insights of divas; b) verbal accounts that could be examined contextually in which observations of emotions, beliefs and behaviours occurred; c) the methods enabled the tapping into the experiences of divas in a different way than would have been wholly captured using measurement scales and multivariate models. However, the disadvantages faced through using the qualitative methods was that it posed difficulties in establishing associations and links that occur between observations, cases, or constructs (Castro *et al* 2010:1), however, this was mitigated through triangulation.

4.4.2. The research problem revisited

What motivated this study was the fact that whilst knowledge management models and strategies have been well constructed in developed countries and successfully applied for SMEs development there is limited research and evidence of successful adoption of these practices by divapreneurs in Zimbabwe (Chen *et al*, 2012, Davenport, 2013). There was also lack of periodical evaluation of the impact of SMEs associated government policies on the development of women businesses and there was dearth information on the extent to which women businesses took advantage of these policies. As noted by Parker (2010) and earlier by Greene *et al* (2003), the scholarly entrepreneurship literature has reached few solid conclusions, and is often contradictory, and continues to provide little practical direction for female entrepreneurs intending to establish or grow small businesses or policy makers seeking to improve the entrepreneurial climate. Furthermore, from prior studies (Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2009), the government of

Zimbabwe has not come up with specific policies that bring about divatude in women, hence, without a paradigm shift in government policy, from the ‘give to support’ policy which currently obtaining divapreneurship will remain elusive.

The study questions imaged as follows:

1. Which approaches have been adopted for developing divapreneurship in Zimbabwe?
2. What is the extent to which divapreneurs have adopted KM strategies for their development in Zimbabwe?
3. Is there a relationship between government policy interventions and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe?
4. What are the gaps for implementation in government policies with reference to divapreneurship development?
5. What model can Zimbabwe adopt for developing divapreneurs?

The mixed method research was adopted in order to answer the research questions as outlined below.

4.5 Mixed methodology design

Onwuegbuzie (2004) consider the mixed method approach design, as one of two research types which may be designed. Both qualitative and quantitative data are mixed within or across the entire research process. In contrast, with the mixed method research design the study is conducted in two phases such that there would be both a quantitative and a qualitative phase. In using the mixed method research design the researcher had the choice of either conducting the research either concurrently or sequentially (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). The study adopted the sequential approach. Furthermore, in line with the post-positivist paradigm, and in light of the objectives of the current study, a cross sectional design using questionnaires and interviews was deemed to be the most appropriate design for the study. The questionnaires and interviews were used to measure the perceptions and opinions of the respondents in regard to knowledge management practices and impact of government policy interventions as interrelated precursors for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe, in terms of the adoption of a mixed methodology approach. Furthermore, Onwuegbuzie (2004) states that the mixed method research fits the description of

methodological pluralism, and its supporter's claim that the method tends to provide superior research results.

In this study the researcher settled for the quantitative approach as the dominant paradigm, with qualitative analysis playing the supportive role in the research. The choice of the sequential explanatory design process was considered ideal in view of the decision to make use of the focus group discussions (FGDs). Creswell (2013), believes that qualitative research can enrich, as well as elaborate upon results gained from quantitative approaches, hence enhancing findings.

The sequential explanatory design (SED)

The sequential explanatory method adopted in the study had two phases: Phase one involved the collection and analysis of quantitative data; phase two employed qualitative methods to elaborate on the results from the quantitative phase. There are two variations of SED: these variations pertain to the use of qualitative methods which is linked to the preceding quantitative results. The participant selection model is used when researchers are interested in using quantitative information to screen participants to a more detailed qualitative study. The follow-up explanatory model is used to elaborate on and explain group differences or statistical relationships found at the quantitative phase. This can be done by identifying study participants that fit into respective categories and then use qualitative methods to further explain these differences.

The study utilized the follow-up explanations model which is shown on figure 4.2.

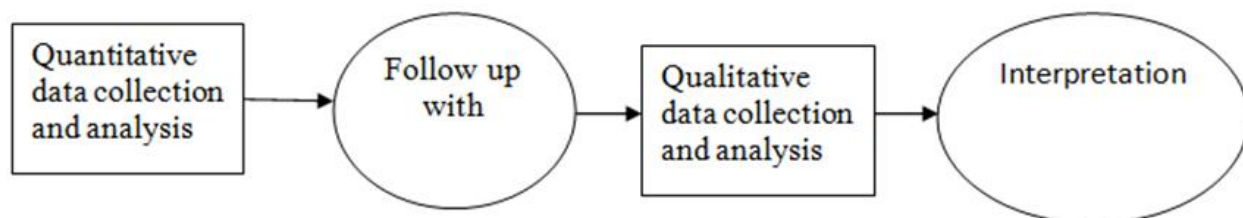


Figure 4.2: Adapted from: American Journal of Educational Research, (2016): Sequential Explanatory approach

In line with the quantitative approach being the dominant approach, with the qualitative approach as the supportive one, the survey method was deemed to be the most appropriate for the current study. Given that survey research is usually quantitative, that necessitated standardising

information used in defining or describing variables and their relationships in the study. Such information was supplemented by means of qualitative data obtained from findings, in order to enhance the validity of the findings concerned. The researcher sought to establish the interrelatedness of KM strategies and government policy interventions on divapreneurship development using the analytical survey design.

4.6 Population of the study

In 2012 the total population of registered women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe was 20665 (Nani, 2011). Thus the target population in the current study comprised all women entrepreneurs who were registered and operated businesses for more than three years in the following delineated areas: Hwange 616; Victoria Falls 641; Harare 640 and Bulawayo Metropolitan Province 2846. Knowledge management strategy and government policy interventions were measured through assessing the perceptions of the divas. The divapreneurs were assumed to be fully conversant with the phenomena being investigated, due to them either influencing, or being affected by those knowledge management processes and policies which obtain in women entrepreneurship development. The choice of the four cities is ascribed to the hive of entrepreneurial activities in those towns.

It is worth reiterating that the current study solicited information only from women entrepreneurs on a willing to participate basis following purposive sampling. The term women entrepreneurs is understood as referring to those women who organise or run business enterprises and own at least 51% of the capital in the enterprise. Consequently, women entrepreneurship consists of those enterprises in which women, initiate, organise and combine the factors of production, operate the enterprise, handle economic uncertainty involved in running the business enterprise, and undertake risks (Ahl, 2006). Divapreneurship denotes personality traits of being driven, inspired, victorious and action oriented as key success factors in women entrepreneurship. It is infused with divatude which refers to a positive attitude which leads to success in women entrepreneurship. The respondents provided relevant information for the research, due to their concern with knowledge strategies and learning undertakings at their enterprises as well as their perceptions on the role of government policy interventions on enterprise development.

In an effort to establish the population figure, the following institutions that deal with empowerment of women in business in Zimbabwe were identified as: Non-governmental organisations, Professional Women in Business (PROWEB), Women Institute Leadership Development (WILD), Ministry of Women Affairs, Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises, Zimbabwe National chamber of Commerce (ZNCC), Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI). However, it was difficult to get a definitive composite figure of women in business. To make research progress, an estimate was consolidated from the diverse figures collected from these organisations, although no figures could be obtained from the Ministries due to bureaucracy. The first step in establishing the population of the study was to get figures of registered women entrepreneurs and the total number of registered female owned businesses in Bulawayo alone stood at around 2846, in Hwange 616, and 641 in Victoria Falls Harare 640 and the total was 4743. This figure constituted 53% of the 20 665 total registered figure of women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe. There is dearth research output on how those women entrepreneurs who have survived beyond three years have succeeded to do so, hence this study targeted those women enterprises whose businesses had survived for at least 3 years in order to gain insight on the precursors for their development (Mboko and Smith-Hunter and Boyd, 2009, Radhakishim, 2000).

4.7 Sample and sampling Procedures

4.7.1 Sampling Procedures

Easterby-Smith et al (2015) stipulate that sampling methods can be divided into non-probability and probability sampling. Simple random sampling, stratified, cluster, systematic and multi-stage random sampling are all examples of probability sampling methods. In contrast non-probability sampling consists of convenient sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling. For this particular study purposive sampling was used and the divas were expected to have operated a business for a minimum of 3 years. Purposive sampling is used in qualitative research to investigate solutions to research questions (Leedy & Ormond, 2013, Yin, 2012). Using purposive sampling ensured that the researcher elicited opinions from participants who were highly conversant with the phenomenon under study. In terms of operation, the female business owners were supposed to have been operating profitably within Hwange, Victoria Falls, Bulawayo and Harare cities.

Places where the study was conducted were regarded as clusters and were chosen conveniently due to their accessibility to the researcher. A sampling frame of all female owned businesses in each cluster was created and simple random sampling proportionate to size applied. Probability sampling methods requires a sampling frame, therefore the current study applied cluster random sampling. Babbie and Mouton (2009) explain that the purpose of sampling is to select part of the elements in the population so that inference can be made about the whole population.

The choice of the sampling method is determined by the nature of objectives of the study (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). The authors assert that sampling using the probability random sampling method is the most ideal and effective way of achieving representativeness of the sample. Babbie and Mouton (2009) support the view by Durham and Painter (1999) that the best method of portraying all the variety of a large heterogeneous population is clearly that of random sampling. The choice is based on the understanding that the survey's results can be generalised to the entire population with specified margins of error. Clustering effect as a result of correlation between knowledge management and government policy activities was addressed in sample size calculation. The total population of registered women entrepreneurs according to the Ministry of SMEs stood at plus or minus 20 665 in Zimbabwe in 2012.

4.7.2 Sample size determination

In order to make inferences about the population, sample size determination must be done. Saunders (2009) argues that obtaining information from an entire population using samples saves time, is less costly and provides quality information, and plays an important role in the designing of questionnaires. Sample size was computed using a formula provided by Yamane (1967) as well as Saunders et al (2009: 221) adjusted for the clustering effect (Design effect).The sample was calculated as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} \times DE$$

Where:

n= the sample size

N= the population of the study

e= the level of significance (set at 0.05 for this study)

DE=Design effect (assumed to be 1.3 for this study)

$$n = \frac{4743}{1+4743*0.05^2} \times 1.3=520$$

The minimum required sample for this study is 520 (adjusted for clustering effect).

The estimated population of women entrepreneurs basing on the FinScope study alluded to earlier were as shown on the sampling frame on table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Statistics of registered female entrepreneurs per city

Area	Population in the four areas	Sample
Harare	640 (13.5%)	70
Bulawayo	2846 (60%)	312
Hwange	616 (13%)	68
Victoria Falls	641 (13.5%)	70
Total	4 743 (100)	520

4.8 Research Instruments

Both structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used in collecting data as well as focus group discussions (FDGs). Depending on the variable being tested, the data collection instrument was adapted accordingly. Open ended questions were used for interviews to avoid the results being biased towards preconceived categories provided by the researcher (Castro et al, 2010, Creswell, 2011, Easterby-Smith et al, 2015). The data collection instruments that were used were varied due to the mixed method research. Webb et al (2015), argue that so long as one has only a singular class of data collection, and that class is the questionnaire or interview, one has

inadequate knowledge of reactive measurement effects. There is therefore no justification for using a single measurement.

Qualitative research focussed on specific issues such as behaviour of divapreneurs and actions. The same approach was used to identify the types of knowledge management practices women entrepreneurs indulged in. For the qualitative data open ended questions and focus group discussions were carried out. General open-ended questions asked during the interview allowed the participants to supply answers in their own words. Observations of participants were used to gather data and aggregation of words or texts and thematic analysis was carried out by the researcher.

All respondents targeted for the quantitative analysis filled in a Knowledge Management questionnaire (KMQ) and Entrepreneurship Learning Questionnaire (ELQ). The Knowledge Management questionnaire (KMQ) was used to determine knowledge management practices in participants. The KMQ had 15 questions in 5- point Likert scale. Also, the Entrepreneurship Learning Questionnaire (ELQ) asked about impact of various elements of continuous learning processes on business development. The questionnaire itself has three main parts. The first part assessed organizational profiles, knowledge management practices and the last section entrepreneurship learning practices. Surveys were used to gather primary data through direct questioning of respondents through questionnaires. The data targeted attitudes, knowledge, perceptions, awareness and intentions. The focus was on using surveys to standardise in order to ensure uniformity in data collection (see annexure).

The purpose of a questionnaire is data collection for the purpose of reaching definitive conclusion of a problem under study (Shiu et al, 2009). In agreement Malhotra (2010) asserted that a questionnaire is an organised technique for data collection that is composed of a succession of questions, written or verbal, that a respondent answers. In this study the researcher utilised the Likert scale in the questionnaire formulation. The primary objective of utilising structured questions was to reduce time taken thinking questions through, thus recognising the busy schedule of divas, since anything that disrupts their work regime would be ignored, resulting in incomplete information.

The use of the questionnaires proved less costly and cheaper, at the same time it enabled the collection of a wide range of data on the phenomenon under study. Shiu et al (2009), further postulated that structured questions offer the researcher with an opportunity to manipulate the thinking of the respondents when answering the questions. In contrast unstructured questions give the respondents an opportunity to volunteer information which may not have been specifically asked for but which were relevant to the phenomenon under study. Open ended questions did not restrict respondents to answer in a particular way but gave them the leeway to structure their responses in their own words. Questionnaires gave the respondent ample time to give the required information in the provided document, hence these elicited a high response rate. The timeliness of responses to queries was found to be an important attribute for analysis because in some contexts knowledge needs to be shared promptly for the knowledge seeker to find it useful in knowledge sharing. The quantitative approach was found useful in determining these. Attitudinal variables were measured using the quantitative data collection instruments such as structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Analysing scores on collected documents were used and the quantitative data was used to test the hypothesis (Castro et al, 2010).

4.9 Reliability and Validity analysis

4.9.1 Validity of Data

For findings to be valid they must be about what they appear to be about. Validity ensures the generation of authentic and valid results. Tape recording was one of the methods embraced to ensure validity. In order to triangulate and assure validity and credibility, several methods of data collection were used. To counter various threats to validity, it was ensured that the research approach used measured what it was meant to measure. Notwithstanding the above procedures, the research was conducted systematically in order to enable replication by other researchers. The research approach taken was intended to fully explore the phenomenon under study (Babbie and Mouton, 2009, Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2015). The instruments used were adapted to suit the study on women entrepreneurship, hence the researcher deemed it necessary to assess their validity. The three types of validity were taken into consideration, namely: face and content validity; concurrent or predictive validity and construct validity (Easterby-Smith et al, 2015).

Construct validity's main purpose is to show the contribution that each construct makes to the total variance observed in the phenomenon. Concurrent validity addresses the issue of the extent to which one instrument compares with another when they are simultaneously administered. Predictive validity, in contrast, refers to the extent to which an instrument can easily predict or forecast the outcome of a study. The importance of validity is that the integrity of the conclusions drawn from the research must be assured. Hence, the extent to which an instrument accurately measures what it is intended to measure is paramount. The accuracy with which a given data set represents a given variable or construct in the study assures validity (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003, Saunders, 2009).

In order to assure face validity it was important to logically link the questions with the five objectives of the study. Experts consisting of entrepreneurship lecturers and practitioners were requested to review series of items on the questionnaire in order to establish whether the questions were neither vague nor ambiguous, but measured what they were intended to measure, thus ensuring face and content validity. Consequently, the next step was to correct those questions that were found to be inaccurate. Satisfied with the questionnaire instrument, a pilot exercise was conducted using sixteen respondents purposively drawn from the sample population under study so as to test that the instrument satisfied the face and content validity as recommended by Babbie and Mouton (2009). Having participated in the pilot study respondents were not included in the actual data collection since their insights had already been sought in order to help adapt the instrument due to their experience and expertise with regard to the phenomenon under study.

Construct validity was assured through factor analysis in which the percentage of variance was explained by each construct. The dimensions for the independent variable (KM) comprising of knowledge creation, sharing, transfer and application were verified as appropriate through literature review and experts' suggestions. Government policy also had its constructs such as testing the extent to which it was supportive and provided an enabling environment for business to thrive. Experts' suggestions were incorporated in order to bring about synergy between the instruments and the variables of the study to assure content validity (Babbie and Mouton, 2009: 72).

In terms of generalisability or external validity, the findings of the study might not be generalisable to all populations due to the complexity of measuring knowledge aspects. Internal validity in relation to questionnaires relates to the measure of what was intended to be measured (Easterby-Smith, 2015). The main aim was to develop questionnaires in such a manner that the questionnaires actually represent the reality of what was being measured. Hence the different types of internal validity had to be accounted for as follows:

4.9.1.2 Content validity

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008) content validity relates to the ability to which the instrument covers the investigative questions. Content validity was assured through a pilot study then statistically tested using Cronbach's alpha. Failure to cover all the aspects through the content of the questionnaire means that some study questions that address a specific objective could remain unasked, hence the study's objectives would remain unattained. The review of literature provided insights on the key variables of the study that were finally mapped on the conceptual framework linking relationships between the variables. To that end in drawing up the research instrument it was critical to ensure that all the research questions addressed each variable fully.

4.9.1.3 Criterion-related or predictive validity

For criterion validity to be assured, the questions on the instrument must lead to accurate predictions. This flows from the fact that if the questions were constructed to measure the intensity of the relationship between variables, then the test of these measurement would be correlation coefficient (Easterby-Smith, 2015). Hence, the questions on the instrument must be able to measure the presence of those constructs which were intended to be measured in the study, thus ensuring construct validity. Construct validity ensures the study's generalisability.

4.9.1.4 Testing reliability

Reliability is concerned with the dependability, uniformity, predictability as well as stability of the mechanism (Babbie and Mouton (2009). It is important to be able to replicate similar results using the same mechanism even when used by other researchers. The more replicable the more appropriate the instrument the more reliable it becomes and this is in tandem with the views of Sekaran (2003). Hence, it follows that an instrument's reliability is seen to the extent that it remains

consistent throughout the different times it is used such that if the same survey instrument that was used in this study is reused, it should produce similar results. The reliability of a measuring instrument also includes the accuracy of measurement of phenomenon (Babbie and Mouton (2009). Reliability is therefore associated with trustworthiness, credibility, consistency and dependability of the study. In this study reliability was assured through respondent member checking after each focus group discussion session was complete so that respondents could satisfy that their opinions had been captured accurately.

As postulated by Saunders (2009) there are four different methods of assessing reliability and these are: test-retest, split halves, alternate form and the internal consistency method. In test-retest the same instrument is used twice to retest the perspectives of the same respondents to check for consistency in the responses over time. Not only are the responses tested twice, but the calculation of the correlation coefficients of the responses involved are done such that if the correlations of both tests is 0.70 or above, the instrument is deemed reliable (Babbie and Mouton (2009). For the alternate method of reliability testing it requires pilot testing so that after they have completed and the instrument has been collected the sequence and wording of the instrument are substituted, ensuring that the meaning of the sentences remain unaltered. Second administration of the adjusted instrument is effected to the same sample. The aim is to ensure that the correlation is 0.70 and above which is deemed reliable (Easterby-Smith, 2015).

In addition to the methods of ensuring reliability discussed above there is the split halves method which requires a large sample for splitting into half so that questions can be varied and it is viewed as time consuming. Once each instrument is completed and returned, the correlation coefficients are calculated, which, if found to be above 0.70, shows that the tool can be considered reliable (Saunders, 2009). Internal consistency assures that the instrument measures what it was expected to measure. In research internal consistency measurement is key and is achieved through the use of the Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951; Nunally, 1978, Easterby- Smith *et al*, 2015). If a measuring instrument has items that are expected to measure the same variable then the expectation is that these items would have consistency and this consistency can be statistically measured. In measuring the Cronbach's alpha the focus is ensure that the outcome is closer to one, or at least above .70 which is considered acceptable. For those items that score below .70 it means they must

either be adjusted or replaced with more reliable ones. It is worth noting that in most instances researchers tend to test for internal consistency as opposed to the other three methods of testing for reliability as there are disadvantages associated with those three. The test retest and the alternative methods these require a lot of time which in this instance, the divas might not have. With regard to the split halves there is subjectivity and having discounted the three methods the most suitable measure of reliability which was suitable for the current study was the internal consistency method which is user friendly. Using SPSS the Cronbach's alpha was calculated, which was used to establish the average of measurable items and their correlation. Marczyk et al. (2005) observe that Cronbach Alpha value of 0.70 is the minimum acceptable in terms of reliability. Babbie and Mouton (2009) postulated that a number of factors may affect the reliability of an instrument, including the wording of the questions, the mood of the respondent and the nature of interaction between the researcher and the subject. Given that the aim of using Cronbach's alpha was to assure reliability, the instrument was pilot tested as mentioned before using sixteen purposively selected respondents who provided feedback on the way in which the questions were formulated, as well as on their wording, and on the length of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was revised after the pilot test to address the concerns raised.

4.9.1.5 Establishing validity in the qualitative phase of the study

Credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research can be tested and demonstrated in various ways. Validity and reliability measures are largely associated the positivist research paradigm using statistical processes (Easterby-Smith, 2015). The two concepts are concerned with the level of dependability, credibility, and level of internal consistency of the findings. Saunders (2009) postulates that if it is possible to assure internal consistency using quantitative measures then it should also be possible to do the same using qualitative measures though using analytical tools. Babbie and Mouton (2009) further argues that the adaptation of validity and reliability concepts should focus on ensuring the credibility, transferability and trustworthiness of the research concerned.

In light of the post positivist approach adopted in the current study, the appropriate validity approaches applied were triangulation, disconfirming evidence and peer debriefing. In triangulation across multiple sources of data, the researcher conducted FGDs with the representatives of women in business separately from that which was conducted with a

representative of the management of the participating female owned enterprises. Separate interviewing strategies provided an opportunity to cross-check the evidence which was gathered from each set of participants. In addition, follow-up interviews were conducted to clarify some of the issues that appeared to have been either ambiguous or incomplete during the interpretation phase.

Disconfirming evidence is another technique also applied as a measure to ensure the credibility of the qualitative phase. Such application took the form of establishing preliminary themes, which were based on the reviewed literature, consisting of knowledge documentation, transfer, acquisition, application, and creation (for knowledge management practices), and of individual, team and institutional entrepreneurial learning and government policy. During the FGDs interviews, care was taken to identify those activities undertaken in the business enterprise concerned which corresponded to *a priori* themes.

Peer debriefing also provided an opportunity for improving the credibility of the study. Research was conducted with the help of three research assistants. After every FGD interview, both the researcher and the research assistants compiled summaries of the interview data using the summary sheets concerned. The interview notes were shared with other fellow PhD candidates in order to obtain feedback on the research methodology aspects, thus contributing to the overall credibility of the study.

For each of the above mentioned techniques there are advantages and disadvantages. An extended period in the field creates trust and simultaneously it can prove costly hence, funding is needed. Time constraints due to divas continuing to be involved in the study member checking was not possible. The robustness of the questionnaire determined the level of reliability and this also determined whether or not it would produce consistent results under different conditions. In this study reliability was assured through: a) test re-test in which estimates of reliability were obtained by correlating data with those from the same questionnaire collected under similar conditions; b) internal consistency which involved correlating the responses to each questionnaire with those to other questions in the questionnaire.

4.9.1.6 Pilot study/ Pre-testing of instrument

A pilot study is designed to assess the suitability of the data collection instrument as well as to gather information prior to a larger study, in other words it gauges the feasibility of a larger study in order to quality assure and improve efficiency and effectiveness of the data collection instrument. The aim of carrying out the pilot study was to reveal deficiencies in the design of the instrument so that these could be addressed in order for reliability to be assured. As already alluded to, sixteen women entrepreneurs and those involved in training of women entrepreneurs participated in the pilot study voluntarily. The time taken was about thirty-five minutes and participants agreed that the time was reasonable. The respondents in the pilot study condemned five questions which were seen as leading questions and these were substituted. Although the questionnaire was found to be free from obscurity and ambiguity, when a second test was carried out at a different setting with a different group of ten, it was noted that during certain times of the day it was difficult to get the attention of the respondents as they were all busy going about their daily business activities. For that reason, there was need to allocate more time to data collection, such as leaving the questionnaires and collecting them at an appointed time.

4.10 Data collection Procedures

4.10.1 Quantitative data collection

In every research process, data collection is key in the generation of vital data for analysis and generation of results (Groves et al, 2009). Saunders (2009) observed that data collection involves collating and measuring of information related to predetermined variables systematically, in order to test hypotheses and evaluate outcomes. To that end in this current study the researcher avoided collecting unnecessary information which could distort the key focus of the study. Thus a strategy of purposively targeting respondents after a careful compilation of lists of potentials in the sample population was executed. Primary data was collected through self-administration of questionnaires as well as conducting FGDs, as propounded by Williamson (2006). Secondary data was collected through various journals that specialise on women entrepreneurship literature and various articles generated by both government, non-governmental organisations, books and various media. Primary data collection was done for a period of three months (from February to April 2018) assisted by three research assistants.

In terms of ethical considerations participation was on a voluntary basis based on informed consent. Questionnaires were delivered and some e-mailed where possible to cover a wider audience and these were followed up with phone calls where possible. Assisted by the three research assistants questionnaires were distributed to targeted women enterprises in Harare, Bulawayo, Hwange and Victoria Falls. The research assistants had undergone training on how to conduct themselves during the data collection exercise for maximum cooperation from the targets. Recovering the completed questionnaires at the appointed time was not always possible as in some cases it took several visits to the premises of the respondents due to their busy schedules. However, the exercise was successfully executed within the three months in contrast to the two months which had been originally budgeted for. The researcher had received research funding but the data collection period proved longer than had been anticipated. The researcher exercised due diligence to ensure that all research instruments issued to the respondents were received through maintaining a register of all dispatched questionnaires and those returned.

4.10.2 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

The groups were chosen according to business criteria, and there were fifteen to sixteen participants in each group. The snowballing method was used for group member selection. Focus group discussions were a supplement to the quantitative study in making a business case for the adoption of KM strategy and government policy interventions for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe. The FGDs interviews were informed by the work of Saunders (2009) and by findings in the quantitative phase of the study. In an effort to gain understanding on the phenomenon under study it was established that interviews offered the best opportunity to gain a detailed information from the respondents (Easterby-Smith, 2015). In order to ensure maximum participation by all respondents, FGDs proved advantageous over individual interviews, provided a conducive environment and control was instituted. The FGDs enabled interrogation of issues with the researcher maximising on in-depth discussions each session.

Easterby-Smith (2015) asserted that people by nature are more open and willing to discuss issues in a group setting such as that obtaining in FGDs settings as opposed to individual interviews. Consequently, this would ensure the eliciting of ideas that would not surface otherwise. In FGDs respondents interrogate issues without being self-conscious. Thus, FGDs encourage openness

more than what is possible if one were to ask the same issues to an individual (Babbie and Mouton, 2009, Easterby-Smith, 2015).

The data generated through FGDs surpasses that collected from individual interviews due to the cross pollination of ideas (Babbie and Mouton, 2009). This process was significant because exploring challenges faced by women entrepreneurs needed a deeper understanding. Malhotra (2010) states that in addition to that, questioning each other's views enables viewing issues from a different perspective. Focus group discussions allow participants to revise their line of thinking. In deliberating on female enterprise development FGDs were considered the most appropriate of data collection procedures.

The advantage of FGDs was that they enabled the collection of large amounts of data at any one session as well as exploring issues in-depth. The control process that was instituted ensured that one respondent had interrogated a question the rest could intervene with their disparate viewpoints (Malhotra, 2010). The atmosphere under FGDs is less more relaxing as opposed to individual interviews, such that even shy individuals contributed as the environment was not deemed to be threatening. The researcher was cognisant of the fact that some respondents could be affected by group dynamics and to that end intervention to set them at ease was made. The recommended number of participants is fifteen to sixteen (Malhotra (2010) and the researcher decided to stick to these figures as they proved to be manageable. Although Rabiee (2004) supports the view that FGD respondents should be strangers it was not possible to find women entrepreneurs who were strangers to each as this sector thrives on networking. Participation of female business entrepreneurs, taken from the same city meant that the groups were relatively homogenous as recommended (Malhotra (2010). FGDs usually last between 1 to 2 hours (Malhotra, 2010). In the current study, the time available was determined by the flow of the discussions and the characters of the participating female enterprises and was between 60 to 90 minutes.

4.10.3 FGD interview guide

Protocol for the interview was executed following a predetermined guide on the research questions as recommended by Malhotra (2010). The guide served the purpose of aligning the discussion but was not rigidly stuck to in instances where it was necessary to deviate the researcher did so. According to Saunders (2009) the interview guide may evolve over a series of groups, for example

when a grounded theory is used. Semi-structured FGDs involve a variable amount of prompting and probing. Open-ended questions are used at the beginning, in order to avoid undue influence in participants' thinking (Easterby-Smith, 2015). To avoid influencing the discussion overly, tactical use of follow-up questions provide more information, although conversation is influenced by the interviewer's choices about which comments to follow-up on and what aspects of these to explore.

4.10.4 FGDs administration

Creswell (2009) explains that there are five phases in implementing a qualitative inquiry. Phase one comprises the preliminary field work where the researcher obtains preparatory information and identifies what needs to be followed up or explored in depth in the actual study. In phase two, the investigator must gain clearance into the setting. This involves contacting appropriate individuals at the site of inquiry, gaining permission to carry out the study in the setting, and obtaining consent. Phase three comprises focus exploration of the phenomenon being studied. Lincoln and Guba (2003) state that this is an intense period of data collection, data recording and preliminary data analysis. It is a time of learning from the participants and the study setting. In phase four of the inquiry the researcher arranges to leave the field, addressing issues of disengagement and closure. In the fifth and final phase of a qualitative inquiry, field notes are transcribed, the final report is written, and member checks are done.

Ideally, participants in the study should be selected through purposive or convenience sampling. Since focus group discussions cannot be generalised, probability sampling may not be required. The snowballing method was used for group member selection. Six different FGD meetings were held with female entrepreneurs who were members of various organisations who resided in Victoria Falls, Bulawayo and Hwange and Harare between February and April 2018. To recap, the groups were chosen according to the nature of business criteria, there were fifteen to sixteen participants in each group. The first two groups consisted of participants whose members came from different business categories in Victoria Falls. The third and fourth group consisted of participants composed of females who were in different business categories in Bulawayo. The fifth group was held in Hwange and the last group was held in the Harare chapter. The snowballing method was used for group member selection.

Prior knowledge of the topic under discussion and the purpose of the investigation was provided. The main topic of the focus groups was to establish challenges faced by these business entities, areas of training they would want addressed by Higher learning Institutions and the impact of government policy on their business activities. The seating arrangement must allow for eye-to-eye contact between the facilitator, the note taker and the participants (Saunders, 2009). A semi-circular seating formation is recommended and in this study this approach was adopted. This provided a means of observing and recording the non-verbal cues of the participants, which assists in obtaining a clearer understanding of their feelings or beliefs. In some cases there was need for a translator for Shona, Ndebele and English only as these are the common languages understood by the majority of people residing in the areas under study in Zimbabwe.

Focus groups were held in neutral settings and conducted in a permissive and non-judgmental atmosphere. The venues were quiet and spacious enough to comfortably accommodate all participants and substantial costs were incurred in securing convenient venues. The facilitator ensured as much as possible equal participation of all group members in the discussion. The sessions were tape-recorded for subsequent verification, transcription and analysis. This allows for verbatim analysis and frees the facilitator to engage with the group to obtain diverse views. Participants could respond to one another's comments. Focus group discussions were flexible enough to accommodate unbiased, diverse views.

Questions that were included on the guideline for the focus groups were provided my members of each group for involvement in order to elicit a buy in. each member was requested to provide five questions. Each session started with members airing their sentiments about the phenomenon under research in particular knowledge management strategies and government policy interventions in divapreneurship development, nature of business and challenges they were facing.

4.11 Data analysis and Presentation plan

4.11.1 FGDs data analysis

Analysis of focus group discussions may involve two basic approaches, namely qualitative and content analysis (Malhotra, 2010). The qualitative analysis relies on summary or verbatim reports while the content analysis typically produces numerical description of the data (in table format).

The two approaches should not be mutually exclusive but complementary. In this current study, the analysis of data from the focus groups involved the transcription of views and opinions that emerged and that had been verified through the group process. The provisional report was given to the participants for scrutiny. Participants were given a chance to confirm that the report had captured the data as constructed by them, or to correct, amend or extend it. The qualitative data that was collected in this study consisted of transcripts of individual interviews with the respondents as well as focus group discussions. Video recordings were also generated during the focus group discussions. These data took up several pages of typescript and these had to be summarized into themes.

As noted by Saunders (2009), there are no quick fix techniques in qualitative data analysis. After familiarisation with the data through reviewing and transcribing the recorded material, the data was organized and indexed or coded for ease of retrieval. The relationship between categories was established, resulting in the refinement of themes. The initial coding framework was developed both from *a priori* issues and from emerging issues from the reading and familiarisation stage. This thematic framework was then refined during subsequent stages. Indexing or coding consisted of applying the thematic framework to data, using textual codes to identify specific pieces of data which corresponded to differing themes. Headings were used to create charts of the data in order to easily read across whole data sets.

The researcher followed the view by Yin (2012) document collection should be compiled hence, Microsoft word spreadsheet was used for document for compiling information according to themes, session date. Interview transcript and field notes were scanned and saved by date and theme to enable future review of data. Data was then organized using excel, spreadsheet and NVivo software which is a programme for analysing interview data (Macklin, 2015). Excel spread sheet proved useful in gathering themes to analyse and code data collected during interviews. All the documents including electronic file, hard copies, voice recording will be kept in a safe for five years secured. The coding of data was done on a case by case basis as well as the variable being measured.

4.11.2 Quantitative data analysis plan

During field data collection the questionnaires were edited for completeness and consistency. Checking and validation was immediately done as questionnaire were received from the field and were also analysed for completeness and incomplete values. Data entry was performed on SPSS version 25.0 and checked for accuracy before the final statistical analysis. Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Percentages, frequencies, means, and standard deviations were used to summarize the survey data. Profiles of the organizations and employees were presented in a frequency distribution table.

The study sought to predict development of female owned businesses based on knowledge management strategies and government policy intervention activities. It also sought to establish the relationship between KM and Government Policy (GP) activities on the development of female owned enterprises in Zimbabwe. Inferential analysis examined the relationship between KM and government policy on development of divapreneurs through the use of multiple linear regression analysis, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and correlation analysis.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a metric used for hypothesis-testing that is used to test the equality of a minimum of two population samples so as to determine whether differences exist among sampled data. ANOVA helps establish if the differences between samples are simply due to sampling errors or (random error) or due to systematic treatment effects that causes the mean in one group to differ from the mean in another. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 25.0, was used to conduct the Kruskal-Wallis (K-W) test which is used when the assumptions of the one-way ANOVA tests cannot be met, on the knowledge management and government policy activities across the different business categories of enterprises surveyed. In the ANOVA, it is assumed that the dependent variable is normally distributed and that there is approximately equal variance on the scores across groups. In this study the Kruskal-Wallis test, was used which in contrast does not make the same assumptions made in one-way ANOVA. Correlation coefficients were calculated using Pearson's Product Moment. Correlation analysis determines the relationships between two or more variables or sets of variables and shows the levels of significance of the relationship. Such analysis also shows both the direction of the relationship between the variables and the magnitude of the relationship.

The probability value (p-value) of a statistical hypothesis test is the probability of realising a value that is statistically more extreme than that due to chance if the null hypothesis is true (Easterby-Smith et al, 2015). A p-value of 0.5 was utilised as the threshold for making inferences and concluding. SPSS was used to generate scores for multivariate analysis for each research variable. The requirement was that for the individual variables, p values of the coefficients generated in the regression analysis would have to be less than .05 at a 95% confidence level. Null hypothesis are statements of no difference or effect. A p-value close to zero shows that a null hypothesis is false, and typically that a difference is very likely to exist. A p-value of .05 indicates that there is only a 5% chance of drawing the sample being tested if the null hypothesis was actually true.

4.12 Ethical Considerations

The researcher requested approval from the University of Lusaka to carry out research and the approval letter was granted. Every research that involves human subjects requires approval before data collection is carried out. This is to assure that the participants are treated ethically in research and that their participation is voluntary (Easterby-Smith et al, 2015). According to Sekaran (2003), ethical issues are related to how respondents are treated, and to how confidential information is safeguarded during the research process. The current researcher collected data in two phases. The first phase involved a cross sectional survey, in which respondents were required to complete questionnaires, whereas the second phase involved conducting FGDs. Due ethical consideration was applied in both phases. Participants were informed that they were free to withdraw their service if they discovered that they were not comfortable with the progress of the survey as participation could not be forced on them, rather it was voluntary, to that end it was not surprising and expected that some of the respondents did not return the questionnaires for various reasons. In addition, participants were assured that they would not endanger themselves in anyway by participating in the survey and they were given the assurance that the researcher had been cleared to carry out the research.

The study participants were female entrepreneurs with business competitive information which had to be protected, hence it was of utmost importance that all the information gathered be treated with confidentiality. To ensure the anonymity of the respondents, they were asked not to indicate

their names on the questionnaires concerned. During the qualitative phase, several possible key informants were approached, of which some refused to participate for various reasons, including the desire not to disclose certain information about their enterprises.

Those who accepted were informed that their responses would be kept as anonymous as possible, and that their names would not be revealed in the final report. However, for purposes of the follow-up interviews, their details were kept by the researcher. In the presentation of the results of the study, the responses are kept anonymous, in order to uphold the ethical position which had been agreed on with the respondents. In addition, the reporting was objective, based on the findings obtained. Ethical considerations that were taken to protect the participants were as follows:

- 1) Informed consent: the participants were addressed on the justification for carrying out the study and how the results of the study would be used to inform policy makers for better decision making.
- 2) Voluntary participation: participants were informed that they were free to withdraw if they were not comfortable participating.
- 3) Assurance of protection from harm: Participants were assured that they would not endanger (non-maleficence) themselves through participating in the survey. Harm could include tarnished reputation through being associated with certain comments by the public.
- 4) Access to relevant information only: participants were assured that the questionnaire was structured in such a manner that only relevant information could be gathered and nothing more.
- 5) Participation must be non-compensable to avoid inducing participation and biased results: none of the participants derived a financial benefit from participating in the research.

All ethical protocol involving human subjects was followed throughout the research. The participants were treated with respect and fairness, their names, rights and privacy and information were protected.

4.13 Conclusion

The chapter highlighted on the research design used, the target population, the sampling procedures, techniques, the research instruments, reliability, validity and research instruments,

data collection procedures, data presentation and analysis procedures as well as ethical considerations. The blue print and road map of what procedures were carried out was described in detail. The chapter also provided the lenses and procedure through which data would be analysed. Techniques that were accepted in the research field as valid that would be used before embarking on the research were described. The next chapter will look at data analysis and presentation of the study results with the aim of showing how the results illuminate the research questions and hypotheses.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter forms the body of the thesis and consists of the presentation and analysis of the results. The study sought to make a business value proposition for the adoption of a knowledge management strategy and government policy as forerunners for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe. To that end the thesis problem was stated as being that divapreneurs did appear to be aware of the importance of adopting technological innovations and that the government tended to use a policy of give to support instead of empowering divas for their development. Surveys and FDGs were used to investigate the problem in order to reach a plausible conclusion on how the government could bring about divapreneurship development which has remained elusive. To that end a purposive sample was drawn from a target population from Bulawayo and Harare Metropolitan Provinces, Hwange and Victoria Falls in Matabeleland North. These cities were chosen due to the proliferation of entrepreneurial business ventures, due to crippling unemployment.

The mixed method research paradigm underpinned the study with both quantitative and qualitative data integrated in data collection. The rigorous exercise involved intensive triangulation of various data output. The quantitative data output was processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) tool version 25.0. Results from focus group discussions and semi- structured interviews were processed using Micro-soft spreadsheet, textual and content analysis. All the data output is presented and analysed in this chapter.

5.1 Data collection challenges

The first challenge of this study was participant's abilities to interpret and communicate their experiences effectively. This limitation was mitigated through simplifying the questions to remove ambiguity during the piloting exercise. Secondly the semi-structured interview responses, at times did not provide sufficient data which resulted in the researcher scheduling face to face interviews at the participant's choice of venue and this proved costly. A third challenge was that some participants in some instances were not prepared to share their experiences as they argued that they were protecting their competitive strategy. Women entrepreneurs have busy schedules as they have

multi-faceted life roles to play besides running enterprises, hence, there were time limitations in engaging them in some instances, resulting in a protracted period of data collection. Moreover, as observed by Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd (2009:3), 'women entrepreneurs are not a homogenous group, even when the analysis takes place while keeping geographical context constant, cultural and social patterns prescribe the characteristics of women entrepreneurs worldwide.' To mitigate all these challenges and avoid compromising the results of the study the researcher finally dedicated three months to data collection instead of two to allow for more time to deal with the data collection challenges.

5.2 Demographic data

5.2.1 Details of the sample

The personal information of the participants was limited to the age, business sector, activities and products of the business. The age was defined to be in the ranges of between 18 to 28, 29-38, 39-48, 49-58 and above 59; while the business sector was specified to be products, service and or other. The choice of the age category was in line with what other authors in similar studies had used (Nani, 2011, Zindiye et al, 2012). The business sector was selected as most women businesses are found to be more intense in either in products or service sectors.

5.2.2 Response rate

The response rate obtained from the survey was 94% which is considered to be a satisfactorily good response rate. Out of 558 questionnaires distributed to targeted women entrepreneurs 530 were returned. Vigorous screening for incomplete responses or missing values resulted in 510 questionnaires qualifying for analysis. The respondents consisted of women whose businesses had survived beyond three years as a measure of success in business ownership. The reason why the study segregated this particular group was that, according to Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd and (2009), there is dearth research on those women who have survived for more than three years and formalised their businesses.

5.2.3 Profiles of the women enterprises

Opinions of a total of 510 women enterprises in Zimbabwe were solicited. The results are shown on the table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Profiles of women enterprises

Variable	N	%
Age		
18-28	78	15.3
29-38	121	23.7
39-48	169	33.2
49-58	82	16.0
59 and above	60	11.8
Business sector		
Products	247	48.4
Service	220	43.4
Other	34	6.7
Missing values	9	1.7
Activities and products of the business		
Food products	30	5.8
Health & personal care products/florists	48	9.2
Leather	30	5.8
Printing and publishing	39	7.5
Beverages	22	4.2
Leisure	13	2.5
Clothing	78	15.0
Leisure goods	30	5.8
Service	220	43.1

Source: Primary data, 2018

Table 5.1 shows that 15.3% of the participants were below 28 years of age, 23.7% were in the age category 29 to 38 years, 33.2% were in the age category 39 to 48, 16 % were in the age range 49

to 58 and only 11.8% were in the age category 59 and above. The majority of those surveyed were therefore in the age range: 29 to 38. This age range is prominent as being entrepreneurial as seen in findings of by other studies by Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd (2009).

From the analysis by business sector, a large proportion of women enterprises were in the business sector that provides products, 48.4% and 43.4% were providing services and 6.7 were in the mining sector. With regard to activities and products of the business, 15% were in clothing, 9.2% were providing health and personal care products, 7.5% printing and publishing and 4.2% beverage. These percentages are in line with the findings of other researchers in this sector (Mboko and Smith-Hunter, 2012). The results confirmed the outcome of other studies carried out in Zimbabwe by Nani (2011), Zindiye (2012). The 39-48 age group is the in the majority in the business sector. This age group is mainly technology conscious, hence, embracement of technological innovations would not be a big challenge.

5.3 Qualitative data presentation

Data was presented thematically, textually and through content analysis. The qualitative data which had been coded into themes is presented according to the each research objective.

1. To investigate approaches for developing divapreneurship in Zimbabwe.
2. To establish whether divapreneurs have adopted KM strategies for their development in Zimbabwe.
3. To determine the relationship between government policy interventions and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.
4. To identify any gaps for implementation in government policies with reference to divapreneurship development.
5. To develop a model Zimbabwe can adopt for developing divapreneurship development.

Results of the qualitative study

5.3.1 To investigate approaches for developing divapreneurship in Zimbabwe.

In an effort to establish the approaches that had been taken to enhance divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe, interviews were held with women entrepreneurs who had survived for more than three years and experts involved in offering support to that sector. It was established that the government promotes women entrepreneurship development through the Small Enterprise Development Corporation (SEDCO) and the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Community Development, Small and Medium Enterprises. Loans were disbursed through SEDCO to finance facilities and operations for SMEs including women entrepreneurs when available from government through a set criteria. The accessibility to these loans is not assured due to constricted funding due to the economic challenges bedevilling the country. These findings confirm prior findings by Majoni et al (2016), who observed that accessing funding was not easy in Zimbabwe. Some women also stated that the cost of borrowing from SEDCO was very high, hence, the high interest rates were prohibitive. The table below shows responses pertaining to government or donor funding received by women entrepreneurs:

Subtheme: Access to funding

On a question to participants on whether they had accessed either government or non-governmental funding the responses are shown on table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Access to government or donor funding by women entrepreneurs

	Number	Percentage %
Received government and donor funding	245	48%
Did not receive government and donor funding	265	52%
Total	510	100%

Table 5.2 shows that out of a sample of 510 women entrepreneurs, 48% of the respondents had accessed funding either from government or donor agencies, 52% had not accessed funding and had obtained capital through other means such as personal savings, bank loans, and family sponsorship amongst various sources. Most women owned businesses had survived the turbulence in the economy through diversification of the business activities they were involved in.

5.3.2 To establish whether divapreneurs had adopted KM strategies for their development in Zimbabwe.

Respondents were asked whether they had embraced the use of knowledge management practices and information communication technologies (ICTs) and 75% confirmed that they had embraced ICTs, internet of things and utilised computers in their day to day operations. 25% had even gone further to embrace digital literacy. Thus all respondents (100%) were using some form of ICTs or smart phone. Bratianu (2015) states that a turbulent economic environment requires the embracement of strategic thinking. The Zimbabwean economic environment is not stable due to inflationary pressures exerted by various economic fundamentals, hence, strategic thinking is critical. A knowledge strategy can result in knowledge exploitation leading to the efficient use of explicit knowledge in order to maximise profits through knowledge creation and using created knowledge to innovate products and services.

Empirical studies by Bratianu (2015) revealed that organisations that have adopted KM strategies are more likely to succeed than those who have not adopted such strategies. In highly competitive environments, the era ushered in by KM has led to an emphasis from goods and services to the amount of knowledge resources that the organisation holds such as information communication technologies, computers and embarking on big data analytics. The results of the study showed that what remained outstanding was the embracement of technological innovations such as exploring the use of big data analytics as a key enabler for knowledge management for the attainment of a competitive advantage through emulating organisations such as Apple, Amazon, eBay and Walmart.

5.3.2.1 Subtheme: Access to business knowledge

In an effort to establish the extent to which divas had adopted KM strategies respondents were asked the extent to which business knowledge was a challenge to them. The results are shown on table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Access to business knowledge

Theme	Subthemes	Yes	No
To what extent is business knowledge a challenge?	1.Access to business knowledge	50%	50%
	2.Knowledge sharing	70%	30%

According to Stevenson (2010), a challenge is a situation that tests someone’s abilities, action or situation that causes an obstruction; it blocks or hinders progress. Table 5.3 shows that half of the respondents (50%) indicated that business knowledge was not a challenge. These findings resonated well with prior studies by Barreira (2004) who also found an insignificant statistical correlation between business knowledge and entrepreneurial success. Respondents were of the view that skills rather than business knowledge and readily accessible information were important to them. It was articulated in the FGDs by women entrepreneurs that they lacked a well- equipped facility with machinery and equipment where they could gain skills through hiring the equipment at an affordable fee. This request resonates well with the current government focus on incubation

hubs that are being set up at five institutions of Higher learning to incubate ideas and provide equipment for producing products.

Some of the participants stated that certain personality traits needed to be overcome such as: *'Lack of aggression, boldness; exposure to latest news and trends, inability to change mind-set, time limitation due to home responsibilities; lacking entrepreneurial spirit; lack of drive and lack of ability to manoeuvre or navigate in the current economic situation.* 50% of the participants found business knowledge to be a challenge, with some of the participants stating that: *"individuals tend to avoid sharing knowledge to avoid competition, thus making information difficult to access, especially for those in need of advice to start or grow a business."* Other respondents in the florist sector reinforced the assertion by commenting that, *'individual florists withhold information especially the ones who have been in this trade for a long time.'*

Of the 50% of the respondents who had challenges with access to knowledge, 35% were in agreement that: *'unless permitted or connected to the right source of information it's not always easy to find it. One does not always come across the information and the ones that have it do not advertise it.'* 15% of the respondents said although business knowledge was vital it was difficult to cope in business due to the unpredictable political and turbulent economic environment in Zimbabwe. It was clear from the submissions that although knowledge was elusive it was a vital link to entrepreneurship development.

5.3.2.2 Subtheme: Sources of business information

In response to questions on sources of business and information these were: Peers, internet, social media and local media. Peers were cited by 28% of the participants as a valuable source of business information. However, some indicated: *'sharing ideas with fellow ladies who are in the same line of business,'* as a vital source of information and knowledge. Zimbabwe International Trade Fair, Business conferences, SMEARS, and ZNCC were other sources of business knowledge that were cited by 51% of the participants during the FGDs interviews. On the other hand 21% cited internet and social media as a major source of business knowledge and information. *'Internet, Facebook, twitter, World Wide Web, and WhatsApp, local media, other entrepreneurs, associations, organisations, social media.'* Library books, Case studies from courts were also cited as sources of business knowledge and information.

5.3.2.3 Subtheme: Knowledge empowering organisations

The following organisations were found to be actively involved in knowledge creation and training women in business:

ZimTrade, SMEDCO, Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises, Women's Alliance of Business Associations in Zimbabwe, EMPRETEC, Ministry of Industry and Commerce and Enterprise Development.

The majority of the FGDs participants (80%) had a role to a greater extent of empowering other entrepreneurs. The following were some of the ways of empowering other women enterprises that were cited during the FGDs: various organisations provided student industrial attachments for undergraduate students from Higher Learning Institutions, training, mentoring, on-the job training and capacity building for financial literacy. A few of the FGDs participants (20%) did not have a role in empowering other entrepreneurs citing the following reasons based on not having the correct information: *'it's not easy as we have not gone to school of cutting and designing flowers and at the moment, we have not embarked on any such programmes.'* The following were some of the quoted statements from FGDs participants:

'We empower by attaching anyone interested in entrepreneurship training including attaching students.'

'My organisation only impacts knowledge internally, externally I have no time and have no patience.'

'I am a mentor for business through non-governmental organisations (NGO) and on-the-job training for other entrepreneurs.'

'We build their capacity on financial literacy and viable business models.'

'I am a PROWEB mentor for the past three years, have been a mentor for eight ladies and we have been taking attachment ladies.'

Overall most divas stated that it was important to anchor each other to greater heights given that men were not forthcoming, and when men did offer assistance they demanded favours. Overwhelming work and lack of honesty in people were some of the cited hindrances.

'People are not honest there is lack of integrity in keeping agreements, lack of drive and motivation to accomplish their tasks.'

'The work is overwhelming as I was a mentor for almost three organisations.'

5.3.2.4 Sub theme: Knowledge sharing

Knowledge shared can be used and reused to create novel and valuable information and knowledge (Uriate, 2008). 71% of the FGD participants reiterated that platforms for sharing knowledge were available, on the contrary only 29% of the respondents said there were no platforms for sharing business knowledge among women in business. It was also observed that: *‘Sharing knowledge is very easy as you can just go to a person who has the know-how to do hair styles and learn or you can go to a college’*.

Some participants concurred that platforms were there but faced abuse, in that people were not focussed on schooling others but were intent on profiteering out of sharing information. The following list of women organizations where business knowledge was available was obtained: Women in action, church-based groups, Professional Women in Business (PROWEB), women’s associations, Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (CZI), Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce (ZNCC), ZIMtrade, Informal Trade Associations (ITA) or the electronic calendar.

5.3.3 To determine the relationship between government policy interventions and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

Respondents were interviewed on their views pertaining to government policy interventions that impacted positively divapreneurship development and the results are shown on table 5.4.

Table 5.4: government policy

Theme	Subthemes
Policy issues	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. High interest rates and foreign currency shortages2. Financial illiteracy3. Lack of capital in the Market4. Lack of access to markets5. Limited or no access to finance

5.3.3.1 Subtheme: High interest rates and foreign currency shortages

Results on table 5.4 showed that the cost of capital was prohibitive due to the fall of the Zimbabwe Real Time Gross Settlement (RTGS) or Zimbabwe local currency (ZWL) against the United States dollar, which fluctuated drastically. This collapse in the local currency made it difficult for divas to access foreign currency to finance importation of raw material as well as to restock. It was also revealed that foreign currency could only be accessed from the black market at a much higher rate. The cost of borrowing was very high and prohibitive, hence, it was difficult for divas to obtain loans due to the high interest rates in view of low business. All these challenges pointed to the study's view that in terms of government policy Zimbabwe has not come up with specific policies to cushion and grow divapreneurs.

5.3.3.2 Subtheme: Financial illiteracy

Results showed that 50% of women in business in Zimbabwe lacked formal financial literacy skills such as basic book keeping skills, hence, this affected their investment decisions. Although there were various organisations such as SEDCO and EMPRETEC to mention a few that offered short training courses to SMEs which equipped them with basic financial literacy skills, some of the women had never undergone training but either had inherited family businesses and used experience or used gut feeling. Yet, the other 50% had undergone formal training with some either having attended university education or Polytechnics, which equipped them with financial literacy skills. Some of the critical training needs identified were as follows:

'Understanding how to access finance, budgeting skills and financial management, how lenders and micro lenders operate, and an awareness of sound credit facilities.'

The following challenges were raised during the FGDs discussions. Some participants pointed out that: *'Women enterprises are not able to separate business money from family finances.'* While others concurred adding that *'the idea of mixing business and family money was attributed to the problem of low business in the market.'* There was low business so they ended up mixing family money with business money to boost business. Other participants were of the view that: *'most*

women in business are unable to either bank cash or to budget and all this is as a result of lack of exposure to business environment among women.'

5.3.3.3 Subtheme: Lack of capital in the Market

Results showed that women's access to risk capital is limited. Moreover, firstly, they faced lots of legal procedures, which were often said to be complex in nature, in obtaining loans from banks. Secondly, the excessive and unreasonable delay in obtaining the loans despite several visits to banks discouraged women from venturing into business. At the same time, a good deal of self-employment financing programmes have been promoted by both the government and commercial banks. Some respondents had this to say:

'There is no proper funding available in Zimbabwe for expansion or start up in business. The biggest challenge is access to funds. As much as there are women empowerment funds that have been made available, accessed through banks such as the women's bank; it's not always easy to get funds due to lack of collateral security and moreover, the interest rates are prohibitive.'

'No capital. Not able to get loans. Business is just low. Finances and securing business credit are very difficult.'

'There is restricted access to markets because of existing by-laws e.g. that inhibit vendors from selling their produce in designated areas in the city centre.'

'There are too many regulations to adhere to and also the payment of extra charges. Accessing finance for businesses is difficult. Accessing loans there is need for collateral.'

5.3.3.4 Subtheme: Lack of access to markets

Results revealed that 70% of women were facing challenges related to access to both local and foreign markets for their products due to shortage of knowledge of available markets. Intelligence on available markets were not easily accessible despite the institutional arrangements in place with organisations such as EMPRETEC, Confederation of Zimbabwe, and Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce. Only 30% seemed to have made a breakthrough to stable markets.

5.3.3.5 Subtheme: Limited or no access to finance

The following table illustrates subthemes that emerged from the focus group interviews on the limited access to finance as follows:

Lack of collateral security

Responses on challenges related to lack of collateral security revealed that: 70% of the respondents in FGDs alluded to lack of funding due to absence of collateral security, while 30% bemoaned the high cost of funding. The findings are in line with Singh (2012) who regards finance as the ‘life blood’ for any business enterprise. Lack of funding appeared to be one of the biggest singular impediment women must face which hindered enterprise growth and this in line with assertions by Wasilczuk and Zieba (2008). The other challenge related to lack of working capital for restocking due to the depressed economy which resulted in lack of credit in the market.

All respondents (100%) in this study agreed that women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe have been particularly disadvantaged in the past as most did not own any property, which can be used as collateral on loans and some need their husbands’ permission to enter into financial arrangements. The issue of lack of guarantor for loans was raised by several respondents, hence, women were frequently denied credit facilities by the bankers. The following are some of the utterances:

‘No finances, getting a loan needs collateral security, people prioritise so tailoring is considered to be secondary’

‘Collateral is in husband’s name.’

‘Guarantors are not readily available.’

‘There is lack of capital.’

5.3.4 To identify any gaps for implementation in government policy with reference to divapreneurship development.

The study sought to establish whether there were shortcomings in government’s policy on women entrepreneurship that needed redressing. To that end opinions of both women entrepreneurs and experts in the field were solicited. It was established that the two groups were at variance, with experts arguing that the government had put in place various support systems to enhance women entrepreneurship, on the contrary the some women entrepreneurs themselves disagreed on the basis that they were not aware of the support systems that were in place. Moreover, some stated that the government had not provided adequate places of abode or premises for women entrepreneurs. Women entrepreneurs also bemoaned lack of systematic training which could be easily accessible to them. The themes below capture the concerns of women entrepreneurs in respect to education and training.

5.3.4.1 Subtheme: Government policy interventions and enterprise development

The comments below were received from a business breakfast meeting on the role of government policy in revamping the economic sector.

A contribution was made that:

'You cannot control your economic destiny if you are unable to mobilise savings....'

Hence failure to mobilise savings was seen as a hindrance to enterprise development, technical development, as well as failure to expand national productivity, value addition and beneficiation and transformation of Zimbabwean firms from primary produce to secondary produce were some of the challenges stated. Enterprise development was also hindered by antiquated machinery as a result of capital flight in Foreign Direct Investment (FDIs). There was also the issue of perceived high country risk profile due to perceived government policy inconsistency as it was noted that the risk profile was increasing, and there was discord and lack of competitiveness in the market. There was dire need for consultation of various business sectors before policies were crafted in particular with reference to women business development. There was also need for local content protection which would enable local enterprises to have a guaranteed market for their products.

Women alluded to the high cost of doing business in Zimbabwe due to lack of competitiveness as the country had the highest tax of 37%, high interest rates of 20-30 % for bank loans. There were also challenges to entrepreneurship development due to power cuts resulting in production downtime, infrastructural bottlenecks, high cost of production, reduced productivity, low investments and all these challenges reduced revenue for the government making funding unavailable to women businesses. It was noted that there was serious fiscal indiscipline in the economy which had negative impact on the performance of the business sector.

Divapreneurs bemoaned the absence of adequate, reliable, affordable and sustainable infrastructure for their operational stability. The recommendations were that the government through its policy should tackle corruption, in particular at the border post where Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) was said to be failing to arrest corruption. ZIMRA also had too many tax heads which affected women enterprise efficiencies and development.

It was established that women business development was affected by lack of foreign currency due to the inability by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe to regulate currency. The absence of a local currency at the time the research was carried out and the use of the surrogate bond notes was

grossly impacting negatively the ability of women business operations as they could not import vital stock for their operations, due to the unavailability of foreign currency. Hence, the government needed to capitalise the financial sector to avail loans to women business owners and act as a guarantor for those loans.

5.3.4.2 Subtheme: Lack of Entrepreneurial training

The following critical training needs also emerged from the FGDs discussions: budgeting skills, book-keeping, marketing, basic information literacy skills, business management, customer care, stock control, and management as well as communication skills. Some of the comments on training needs were as follows:

'Skills in selling as people are different and financial management.'

'Patience is a virtue; no miracles can happen without hard work, finance and marketing.'

'Book keeping, Marketing, Basic Information literacy skills.'

'It is essential for entrepreneurs to learn and understand what it means to run a business.'

'Women must come together to share common problems and assist each other find solutions.'

Only few participants indicated the following training areas critical in trade: *'customer care, stock control, stock management and communication skills.'*

It was established that the process of operating a business could be very difficult in both the formal and informal sector because divas often lacked entrepreneurial skills. Entrepreneurial education equips one with the acumen to make informed decisions. Lack of entrepreneurial training was sighted as one of the handicaps to divapreneurship development according to the divas. Some of the respondents alluded to: *'the lack of business management skills such as marketing and financial management.* In concurrence some participants pointed out that, *'for this trade of hairstyles, the challenges are that, to get professional training at polytechnics is very expensive.'*

Regarding the proficiency and capability of the business enterprise, women entrepreneurs argued that they did not possess expert skills compared to men in business and therefore the functioning of business enterprise was not that good. In order to manage all these limitations, women entrepreneurs tended to devote a longer period of time for all types of activities, hence, they ended up not having sufficient time given the divided attention they had to deal with in terms of business and family chores. According to the individual learning theory, propounded by Esterby-Smith and

Lyles (2003), learning occurs when individuals acquire information and knowledge. This process is viewed as identical to the enhancement of an individual's mental models, which subsequently can guide the individual and thus, organisational behaviour. It was important to this study to establish the extent to which divas devoted time to enhancing their knowledge through education.

5.3.4.3 Subtheme: Continuous learning

The respondents understood entrepreneurship training to take two forms, formal and informal learning. Either one underwent skills training on- the- job and occasionally attended seminars and workshops through continuous learning offered by various organisations or one could go to one of the universities in Zimbabwe that offered entrepreneurial education and study. It was established that some of the universities that offered entrepreneurial education were Lupane State University, Chinhoyi Institution of Technology and Ezekiel Guti University. According to most respondents the limiting factor to studying for degree programmes was that the duration was long (four years) and some respondents could not spare the time to pursue the studies. An interview was conducted at one of the departments that provide a degree programme in Entrepreneurship and the view of those involved in the programme was that entrepreneurship should be inculcated starting from primary school up to Higher learning Institutions where a module on entrepreneurship should cut across all disciplines. That way it was more likely that the entrepreneurial spirit could be nurtured at an early stage and entrepreneurship could become a career option rather than a necessity led option to evade unemployment. The organisations that were involved in organising workshops and seminars were mainly EMPRETEC, SEDCO and the Zimbabwe Youth Council, ZNCC, ZAMFI as well as ZimTrade. The challenge faced by respondents with respect to continuous learning was that they were kept busy running their enterprises and at times it was difficult to spare the time to attend training as in most instances they were hands on in business. It was established that training offered by colleges lacked practical aspects, hence, the government needed to relook into entrepreneurial training through speeding up the establishment of entrepreneurial hubs to enable skills practice for entrepreneurs.

5.3.5 To develop a model that Zimbabwe can adopt for developing divapreneurs.

Role of Universities in entrepreneurial training

This theme addressed the areas of synergy possible between the Ministry of Women's Affairs, Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises encapsulated views with regards to entrepreneurial training and captures output from the discussions held by the researcher and a Ministry official:

At the end of entrepreneurial training conducted by Universities within communities it was anticipated that SMEs/divas will exhibit the following traits:

- 1. Have a permanent business premises where they operate from. These SMEs/divas must be assisted to attain enterprise registration, hold an operational licence, and be able to open a bank account. The SMEs/divas must also be conscientised to belong to a trade association, and be encouraged to build goodwill through the provision of quality products or service that are good enough for the export market.*
- 2. SMEs/divas had to adopt best business management practices such as record keeping, registration of workers with the National Employment Council (NEC). The enterprises should endeavour to make small contributions to their workers' pensions, they needed to be made aware of the value of being part of the value chain with suppliers of raw materials and buyers of their products or consumers of their service for business acumen. The emphasis was on helping SMEs/divas to concentrate on the value chains and that the small businesses were to lean on the bigger ones for growth. Hence there was need for transformation of the mind set of SMEs/divas through entrepreneurship training.*
- 3. Universities were to help the SMEs/divas develop networks that they could leverage on such as participating in trade shows to showcase their products, concentrating on excellence and remaining apolitical;*
- 4. Universities had a role to play in enabling SMEs/divas to fit in the legal environment taking cognisance that the law endures, hence, there was need to comply with statues in conducting business instead of taking short cuts. Remaining apolitical was a good business practice which needed to be emphasised.*

5. *Universities had a task to help SMEs/divas adapt to new trends in the industry rather than to remain backwards but to adopt modern business practices such as knowledge management strategies, big data analytics and technological innovations. Thus, SMEs needed to keep track of contemporary trends and follow industry trends.*
6. *Universities had to help SMEs/divas conduct businesses in a clean environment in order for their products and services to be of quality. Business premises had to be hygienic and well-kept to ensure that enterprises remained going concerns with a healthy market for the products and service due to the adherence to quality management principles.*
7. *It was the role of Universities to follow a growth path from year to year, through the setting up of growth targets, whilst at the same time taking cognisance that it was not everyone who could be an entrepreneur, hence, it was necessary that thorough screening was conducted when business proposals were being vetted for funds disbursement.*
8. *To help SMEs/divas in particular to be continually creative and innovative. Without creativity and innovation attaining a competitive advantage would be difficult to attain for divas.*
9. *Universities would have to strive to develop SMEs/divas to become responsible corporate citizens, through contributing towards national development.*
10. *There would be need for strict monitoring of the progress of the beneficiaries of business funding in order to ensure that the businesses prosper and the fund revolves to benefit more communities.*

The ten points discussed form the framework for divapreneurship development which is part of the contribution of the current study.

5.4 Other challenges incidental to the study

Gender discrimination of divapreneurs

Discrimination, financial resources, business premises, lack of trust and integrity in business deals, lack of drive and motivation and overwhelming work, were some of the challenges raised by the respondents during the FGDs interviews. Discrimination is distinguishing unfavourably or the detection of the difference between one thing and another (Mandipaka, 2014). From various submissions from the respondents gender discrimination and stereotyping still remains a challenge

faced by most divapreneurs. Results revealed that the male-dominated society to some extent hindered women entrepreneurs from being successful in Zimbabwe. Gender inequality was identified as a big problem among women. Mitchell (2004) posits that besides the risks entrepreneurs face, women face additional problems of being a woman in a male-dominated society. Some of the respondents alluded to the fact that, *'women entrepreneurs operate in the same environment as male entrepreneurs, there are gender biases embedded in the Zimbabwean society which limit women from active economic participation and access to business and development services.'*

'Women are never taken seriously in the business world, they are taken to be caregivers and nurturers but never seen as successful leaders or entrepreneurs.'

'Discrimination from men who think certain businesses are for men..... Women are not supportive of each other, they pull each other down.'

Men undermine decisions by women. The positions they hold are always interrogated.'

Men also demand sexual favours or bribes for the award of tenders and discriminate for loans.'

Some respondents indicated that they were working hard to grow their business enterprises, but society was hindering their progress. The following were some of the statements quoted from the interview:

'We are trying to build an empire; however, we are looked down upon as 'women with a hobby.'

'Society does not believe that women are able business persons.'

It was established that it was not very easy for women entrepreneurs to for instance travel from one place to another for business purposes as freely as men do. Moreover, divas faced some peculiar problems of inconvenience, safety and security measures when they happened to stay out late in the night at distant places for instance during the Trade Fair days. Initially, women who wanted to start any business or an entrepreneurial activity were facing role conflict in their families. Being involved in entrepreneurial activities by women was becoming a difficult task due to the difficulty in overcoming such conflicts and cope with the twin role of womann as wife and mother in the family and a successful entrepreneur in business.

The results of the qualitative study were summarised on the table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Summary of focus group discussion result

Themes	Findings
<p>1.Challenges women faced by women in business</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Lack of capital, - Lack of collateral security - Lack of professional training at polytechnics it is very expensive -women are not taken seriously in the business world -they are seen as caregivers not leaders -Depressed economic situation affecting florists- training only available in South Africa- seasonal income -Lack of funding for start- up or expansion not peculiar to women but affects everyone. -Lack of access to women empowerment funds -Scarce teaching resources -Lack of Business Management skills such as Marketing -Unstable business environment therefore one cannot depend on one business -Inability to bank cash and to budget Influx of cheaper smuggled goods -Bottlenecks in securing operator’s licence - Discrimination from men -Lack of support amongst women -Sexual favours for the awarding of tenders -Discrimination for loans -Too many regulations to adhere to and payment of fees as much as \$500

<p>2. Business knowledge challenges for women</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Skills are critical due to the quality consciousness of clients -Unwillingness to share knowledge by women to avoid competition- especially for start-ups. -Unless one is connected to the source of information access is limited -Lack of aggression and boldness by women -lack of exposure to current trends -Time limitation due to family responsibilities -lack of the entrepreneurial spirit -Failure to manoeuvre and navigate the current economic situation -stereo typing men think women cannot run a security firm
<p>3.Platforms available for sharing knowledge</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Training - Internet websites -Nongovernmental organisations - Professional women in business. -Women Institute Leadership Development (WILD). - Ministry of Women Affairs. -WhatsApp -Monthly brochures -Women Institute of Leadership development (WILD) -Business seminars -workshops -Trade fairs -Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) -Women in Business -ZNCC
<p>4 Training needs identification</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Customer care -Stock control -Budgeting skills

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Book keeping -Motivation - creativity and Innovation -Entrepreneurial skills -Financial management -Business idea generation -Procurement -Business plans (drawing) -Sock management -Marketing -Communication -Strategic planning -Information literacy
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Quantitative data analysis

5.7 Survey results

5.7.1 Reliability of the questionnaire

It was important to triangulate the results of the qualitative study through quantitative data. The first step was to test the research instrument for reliability and the following results were established:

Description of the sample

This section in the survey addresses variations between various groups. The Cronbach’s alpha procedure was computed for each of the following study’s variables: knowledge creation (KC), knowledge sharing (KS), continuous learning (CL), knowledge strategy (Kstra) and government policy (GP). Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were computed to establish the reliability of each

research test item. Cronbach' alphas were computed based on the correlation coefficients among the variables compromising the test. The reliability coefficients are shown on table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Reliability coefficients (Cronbach Alpha) for the enterprise development practice

Item	Cronbach alpha
Knowledge management	
Knowledge creation	0.78
Knowledge sharing	0.49
Continuous learning	0.67
Knowledge strategy	0.46
Government policy	0.65
Overall	0.74

Source: Primary data, 2018

The Cronbach's alpha procedure was computed for each part in the knowledge management practices as shown on table 5.6. Each rating scale had the Cronbach's alpha coefficients computed so as to measure some underlying factor. Cronbach alpha were computed based on the correlation coefficients among the variables compromising the test. Table 5.6 shows that the lowest Cronbach alpha is 0.46 for the knowledge strategy. The low Cronbach alpha of 0.46 for knowledge strategy was due to the fact that initially respondents were not familiar with the terminology, hence the researcher had to rephrase the questionnaire so that questions asked could be easier to relate to during the piloting stage. The knowledge creation shows the highest Cronbach alphas of 0.78. Three items were found to be considerably well above the criterion of 0.60 and could therefore be classified as reliable (Neuman, 2003), the high internal consistency reliability was attributed to the high homogeneity and similarity of the questions (called indicators), in defining the five (5) main dimensional knowledge management practices. The knowledge sharing aspect scored a Cronbach alpha of 0.49 due to the fact women entrepreneurs did not realise the value of knowledge sharing as they tended to hoard knowledge. Overall alpha coefficient was also calculated for the entire questionnaire variables to measure the internal consistency estimate of the general idea of the five prevalent knowledge management practices inter-correlation. The logic of this step was to get an estimate about the holistic influence that the KM practices was generating.

5.7.2 Measure of personal wealth trend since business inception

In order to discover how the businesses had performed over the years it was necessary to measure the extent to which personal wealth as a measure of enterprise growth had behaved. The results on the personal wealth trend are shown on table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Personal wealth trend since business incubation

Personal wealth	N	Percentage
Remained the same	41	8%
Increased	51	10%
Increased significantly	418	82%
	510	100%

The table 5.7 above shows the extent to which personal wealth of the women entrepreneurs under study had changed since business inception. Business for most divas had grown significantly with 82% (418) testifying that business had grown, 10% (51) stated that business had fairly increased and 8% (41) stated that their business had remained the same. The results revealed that the correct category of respondents had successfully selected according to the selection criteria of the study, which sought to women entrepreneurs whose businesses had survived to a minimum of three years. The study had targeted those women businesses that had shown symptoms of survival over more than three years despite the turbulent economic conditions prevailing in Zimbabwe.

5.7.3 Women entrepreneur business category

The table below shows the extent to which the respondents had the capacity to make strategic management decisions in the enterprise in order to determine the direction the enterprise takes. The results on the women entrepreneur business category are depicted on table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Women entrepreneur business category

Founder	N	Percentage
Founder	398	78%
Non founder	112	22%
		100%
Strategic management		
Participation	433	85%
Non participation	77	15 %
		100%

Table 5.8 above shows the enterprise ownership categorisation. The selection criteria for the study respondents was that one had to be the female owner of the enterprise or active business partner. The results revealed that the majority 78 % were founders of the enterprise and 22% had either inherited the business or were business partners. 85 % actively participated in the strategic management of the enterprise, while 15 % did not participate in the strategic mapping of the enterprise. These results were important because the study wanted to assess the extent to which divas incorporated strategic management in their operations in order to make a business case for the adoption of Knowledge management strategies for divapreneurship development.

5.8.7 Hypotheses testing

It was important in this current study to triangulate the results of the qualitative study through hypotheses testing. It was necessary to find out whether there were differences between the participant age categories in the five knowledge management practices and analysis for variance (ANOVA) was carried out on the data in order to ascertain the age groups in which adoption of KM practices was prominent.

5.8. Regression analysis

5.8.1 Hypotheses testing

H₁: There is a positive relationship between knowledge creation and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₂ There is a positive relationship between knowledge sharing and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₃ There is a positive relationship between government policy intervention and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

H₄ There is a positive relationship between knowledge strategy and divapreneurship development.

H₅ There is a positive relationship between continuous learning and divapreneurship development.

A multiple regression was performed on the dependent variable and independent variables. The regression was done to ascertain if there was a linear relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable so as to check if the above hypothesis could be accepted or not. The outcome from this analysis is shown on table 5.9 and the subsequent two tables.

Table 5.9 Anova

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics		
					R Square Change	F Change	df1
1	.644 ^a	.596	.576	.940	.496	14.982	3

. Predictors: (Constant), KS, CL, KS

b. Dependent Variable: ED

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	39.707	3	13.236	14.982	.000 ^b
	Residual	94.527	107	.883		
	Total	134.234	110			

a. Dependent Variable: ED

b. Predictors: (Constant), KS, CL, KS.

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.903	.372		5.110	.000
	KS	.171	.074	.199	2.311	.023
	CL	.131	.071	.155	1.843	.038
	KS	.303	.067	.400	4.543	.000

The best model fitted for the relationship was as follows :

$ED = 0.303 KS + 0.131CL + 0.171KSt + 1.903$, where KS is knowledge sharing, CL is continuous learning and KSt knowledge strategy.

It should be noted that all the independent variables have a positive constant suggesting a positive relationship to Enterprise development for the significant variables.

The regression model fitted showed a linear relationship between Dependent Variable (Enterprise Development) and the independent Variables (Knowledge Strategy, Knowledge Sharing and Continuous Learning). The model shows an F-value=14.988; P-value= 0.00 , F-value is bigger than P-value in the model above hence the independent variables explain a significant linear relationship with enterprise development.:

Knowledge strategy (KSt) }
 Knowledge Sharing (KS) } $R^2 = 0,596$
 Continuous Learning (CL) }

The results show that the coefficient of determination r^2 is 59%, meaning that the three independent variables knowledge strategy, knowledge sharing and continuous learning explains 59% of the

total variability on the enterprise development. 41% of variability might be due to multicollinearity between variables and other variables not investigated in this study.

5.8.2 T-test

The independent variables t values on the model were all significant with P value less than Alpha 0.05 at 95 % confidence interval as shown below:

For knowledge strategy significance of t-value = 2.311 p-value 0,023 < 0.05 significance and 95% confidence level. For continuous learning significance of t-value = 1.843 p-value 0.038 < 0.05 significance and 95% confidence level. For knowledge sharing significance of t-test = 4.543 p-value 0.000 < 0.05 significance and at 95% confidence level.

Kruskal-Wallis H test

The Kruskal-Wallis H test, though weaker than the one-way ANOVA was performed in order to deal with the more than three conditions that impacted enterprise development namely: knowledge management, knowledge sharing, continuous learning, government policy and knowledge strategy. The result are shown on tables 5.10, 5.11 and 5.12.

Table 5.10: Kruskal-Wallis H test for differences of KM practices against age categories

Test Statistics ^{a,b}						
	Knowledge creation	knowledge sharing	Continuous learning	Knowledge strategy	enterprise development	Government policy
Chi-Square	1.482	2.863	2.942	4.815	4.647	3.953
Df	4	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.830	.581	.568	.307	.325	.412

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: age

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Knowledge creation is the same across categories of age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.830	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of knowledge sharing is the same across categories of age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.581	Retain the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of Continuous learning is the same across categories of age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.568	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of Knowledge strategy is the same across categories of age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.307	Retain the null hypothesis.
5	The distribution of Government policy is the same across categories of age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.412	Retain the null hypothesis.
6	The distribution of enterprise development is the same across categories of age.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.325	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Table 5.10 examines the size of differences between the participant age categories in the five knowledge management practices. Non-parametric (Kruskal Wallis test) procedure was performed on the data set. The results show that none of the five knowledge management practices (KM) and Enterprise development statistically vary according to age categories of the age of the women entrepreneur. This means that adoption of KM strategies does not statistically differ according to age.

5.8.3 KM practices against business sector

It was important to examine the size of the differences between the categories of business sector in the five knowledge management practices in order to inform decision making for the government and non-governmental organisation who might be willing to offer assistance to this sector.

Table 5.11: Kruskal-Wallis H test for differences of KM practices against business sector

Test Statistics ^{a,b}						
	Knowledge creation	knowledge sharing	Continuous learning	Knowledge strategy	enterprise development	Government policy
Chi-Square	1.038	2.188	.932	5.731	2.478	8.228
Df	3	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	.792	.534	.818	.125	.479	.042

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: sector

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Knowledge creation is the same across categories of sector.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.792	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of knowledge sharing is the same across categories of sector.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.534	Retain the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of Continuous learning is the same across categories of sector.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.818	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of Knowledge strategy is the same across categories of sector.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.125	Retain the null hypothesis.
5	The distribution of Government policy is the same across categories of sector.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.042	Reject the null hypothesis.
6	The distribution of enterprise development is the same across categories of sector.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.479	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Table 5.11 examines the size of differences between the categories of business sector in the five knowledge management practices. Non-parametric (Kruskal Wallis) procedure was performed on the data set. The results show that one out of five organisational development practices (GP) statistically vary according to business sector. Kruskal Wallis test shows that knowledge creation, knowledge sharing, knowledge strategy, continuous learning and enterprise development do not statistically vary between and within groups according to business sector category. Only government policy intervention varies between and within groups according to business sector.

Table 5.12: Kruskal-Wallis H test for differences of KM practices against business activities

Test Statistics ^{a,b}						
	Knowledge creation	knowledge sharing	Continuous learning	Knowledge strategy	enterprise development	Government policy
Chi-Square	15.142	6.958	16.301	14.091	9.852	11.203
Df	8	8	8	8	8	8
Asymp. Sig.	.056	.541	.038	.079	.276	.190

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: activities

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Knowledge creation is the same across categories of activities.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.056	Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The distribution of knowledge sharing is the same across categories of activities.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.541	Retain the null hypothesis.
3	The distribution of Continuous learning is the same across categories of activities.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.038	Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The distribution of Knowledge strategy is the same across categories of activities.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.079	Retain the null hypothesis.
5	The distribution of Government policy is the same across categories of activities.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.190	Retain the null hypothesis.
6	The distribution of enterprise development is the same across categories of activities.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.276	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Table 5.12 examines the size of differences between the categories of activities in the five knowledge management practices. Non-parametric (Kruskal Wallis test) procedure was performed on the data set. The results show that one out of five organisational development practices continuous learning (CL) statistically varies according to business sector. Kruskal Wallis test shows that knowledge creation, knowledge sharing, knowledge strategy, government policy intervention and enterprise development do not statistically vary between and within groups according to business activities of the enterprises.

5.8.4 Correlation analysis

Table 5.13: The summary of the relation between Knowledge Management practices and Enterprise development

		Enterprise development	Knowledge creation	Knowledge sharing	Continuous learning	Knowledge strategy	Government policy
Enterprise development	Pearson Correlation	1	.122	.274**	.142	.270**	.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.183	.002	.122	.003	.102
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510
Knowledge creation	Pearson Correlation	.122	1	.151	.253**	.250**	.296**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.183		.100	.005	.006	.001
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510
Knowledge sharing	Pearson Correlation	.274**	.151	1	.518**	.555**	.026
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.100		.000	.000	.778
	N	520	520	520	520	520	520
Continuous learning	Pearson Correlation	.142	.253**	.518**	1	.461**	.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	.005	.000		.000	.949

	N	510	510	510	510	510	510
Knowledge strategy	Pearson Correlation	.270**	.250**	.555**	.461**	1	.301**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.006	.000	.000		.001
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510
Government policy	Pearson Correlation	.150	.296**	.026	.006	.301**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.102	.001	.778	.949	.001	
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5.8.5 Knowledge creation and enterprise development

H₁: There is a positive relationship between knowledge creation and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

The correlations within the construct of knowledge creation reveals that having undergone business training that enhances knowledge creation (KC1) was positively correlated with increased number of branches (ED1), continual existence for more than 3 years (ED3) and plans to expand operations (ED5). However, knowledge creation constructs KC1 were negatively correlated with the organisation having increased number of employees (ED2) and business making reasonable profit (ED4). Knowledge creation constructs (KC1, KC2, KC3 and KC4) were not associated with enterprise development constructs at 0.05 level with highest correlation coefficients when the enterprise has undergone business training that enhances knowledge creation (KC1) and having plans to expand operations ($r=0.11$, $p\text{-value}=0.207$). Internal and external knowledge combined for competitive advantage (KC5) was positively but weakly correlated with plans to expand operations (ED5) with a correlation coefficient of ($r= 0.22$, $p=0.014$).

The following sub-sections focus specifically on the correlations of the two main pillars of the study, KM and enterprise development (ED) as shown on table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Knowledge creation and enterprise development Correlations

		Enterprise development	Knowledge creation
Enterprise development	Pearson Correlation	1	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.183
	N	520	520
Knowledge creation	Pearson Correlation	.122	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.183	
	N	520	520

An overall weak positive correlation between knowledge creation and enterprise development showed (0.122), where the highest significant correlation was at (0.22) existed between having internal and external knowledge combined for competitive advantage (KC5) and having plans to expand operations (ED5) with a correlation coefficient of ($r= 0.22$, $p=0.014$) which reflect the importance of internal and external knowledge on creating organisational competitiveness. The lowest correlation was between having internal and external knowledge combined for competitive advantage (KC5) and business in existence for more than 3 years ($r=-0.27$, $p\text{-value}=0.167$).

5.8.6 Knowledge sharing and enterprise development

H₂ There is a positive relationship between knowledge sharing and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

The following sub-sections focus specifically on the correlations of the overall Knowledge sharing (KS) and enterprise development (ED) and examine how the defined prevalent KS practices correlate with them as shown on table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Knowledge sharing and enterprise development correlations

		KS	ED
KS	Pearson Correlation	1	.274**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002
	N	520	520
ED	Pearson Correlation	.274**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	
	N	510	510

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

KS-Knowledge sharing

ED-Enterprise development.

Consulting media resources such as the internet for business knowledge (KS3) was positively associated with having the organisation increasing the number of branches ($r=0.21$, p -value= 0.026). Organisations which strategically disseminate knowledge (KS2) were associated with having existed for more than 3 years ($r=0.19$ p -value= 0.04). A significant association was also found between KS2 and KS1, KS2 and KS5 with organisations that have plans to expand operations (ED5). Women enterprises that cited relationship between expert business knowledge and attainment of competitive advantage (KSI) were significantly associated with expansion of operations (ED5)($r=0.223$, $p=0.01$). Similar results were also found between KS2 and ED5 as well with KS5 and ED5. The highest correlation coefficient was found between KS5 and ED5 ($r=0.31$, $p=0.001$). A weak but positive correlation between knowledge sharing and enterprise development were found with a correlation coefficient ($r=0.274$, $r=0.002$).

5.8.9 Knowledge strategy and enterprise development

H₃ There is a positive relationship between knowledge strategy and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

The following sub-sections focus specifically on the correlations of the overall Knowledge strategy (KStra) and enterprise development (ED) and examine how the defined prevalent KStra practices correlate with them. The results are shown on table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Knowledge strategy and enterprise development correlations

		Knowledge strategy	ED
KStra	Pearson Correlation	1	.270**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	510	510
ED	Pearson Correlation	.270**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	510	510

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

ED-Enterprise development

Women enterprises that had a relationship between expert knowledge and attainment of competitive advantage (KStra1) were significantly associated with having plans to expand operations (ED5) with a correlation coefficient $r = 0.33$, $p\text{-value} = 0.001$. Results on table 5.16 indicate that women enterprises that indicated knowledge is strategically disseminated in their organisation were correlated with having plans for business expansion ($r=0.21$, $p\text{-value}=0.025$). A positive correlation was found between an organisation that uses technology to store knowledge (KStra3) and having plans to expand operations ($r=0.23$, $p=0.014$). Having marketing information made available to employees (KStra4) practice was not associated with any of the enterprise development constructs. Organisations that have a vision and mission that are known by employees (KStra5) were highly significantly associated with expansion of business ($r=0.49$, $p=0.001$). Overall correlation coefficient between knowledge strategy and enterprise development was weak but positive at $r=0.27$, $p=0.003$ (table 5.16).

5.8.10 Continuous learning and enterprise development

The following sub-sections focus specifically on the correlations of the overall continuous learning (CL) and enterprise development (ED) and examine how the defined prevalent CL practices correlate with them. The results are shown on table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Continuous learning and enterprise development Correlations

		ED	CL
ED	Pearson Correlation	1	.142
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.122
	N	510	510
CL	Pearson Correlation	.142	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	
	N	510	510

*ED-Enterprise development

*CL-Continuous Learning

Entrepreneurial training equipped respondents with business knowledge (CL) was significantly associated with business expansion ($r=0.36$, $p=0.001$). Going through seminars and workshops (CL3), continuously updating business knowledge due to the changing business environment (CL5) and women facing start up challenges due to lack of business information (CL6) were not significantly associated with any of the enterprise development constructs as shown on table 5.17.

5.8.11 Government policy and enterprise development

H4 There is a positive relationship between government policy and divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe?

The following sub-sections focus specifically on the correlations of the overall Government policy (GP) and Enterprise development (ED) and examine how the defined prevalent GP practices correlate with them. The results are shown on table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Government Policy and Enterprise development Correlations

		GP	ED
GP	Pearson Correlation	1	.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.102
	N	510	510
ED	Pearson Correlation	.150	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.102	
	N	510	510

*GP-Government policy

*ED-Enterprise development.

Understanding government policy for empowering women SMEs (GP1) was weakly but positively correlated with plans for business expansion (ED5), ($r=0.27$, $p=0.003$). However, it was not statistically significant. Government policy of providing tax holidays to encourage start-ups was associated with plans of business expansion ($r=0.269$, $p=0.004$). Overall correlation coefficient between GP constructs and enterprise development constructs was ($r=0.15$, $p=0.10$) as shown in Table 5.18 below. Results show that GP was associated with enterprise development, but it was not statistically significant.

This current study adopted a mixed method research paradigm in order to triangulate and validate the research results, to that end table 5.19 shows results of chi-square tests done on the data.

Table 5.19: Operationalisation of various knowledge aspects.

	Knowledge, skills abilities(KSA)	Response (%) N= 100					Mean	Std Dev
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree		
KSA 1	In my enterprise we identify knowledge, skills and abilities that are necessary in doing a job.	0	0	2	52	46	4.44	0.538
KSA 2	We hold workshops for knowledge sharing	0	0	5	39	56	4.51	0.595
KSA 3	In my enterprise we are equipped with customer specific knowledge.	0	0	4	31	65	4.61	0.567
KSA 4	work-related knowledge is supplied	0	0	5.2	64.6	30.2	4.25	0.543
KSA 5	We have created networks outside the enterprise which have contributed to business performance	0	0	0	40	60	4.6	0.492
KSA 6	We are empowered with task-related knowledge	0	4	0	23	73	4.65	0.687
KSA 7	Market-related knowledge is supplied	0	0	0	35	65	4.44	0.538
KSA 8	Transactional related knowledge is availed	0	0	2	52	46	4.44	0.538
KSA 9	Task related knowledge is availed	0	0	5	39	56	4.51	0.595

1. KSA 1, showed that 78 % of respondents with a mean of 4.44 agreed that their enterprise viewed acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities as being critical for efficient job performance. However, further probing revealed that some of the enterprise did not support training initiatives as they regarded training as an unnecessary expense and tended to prefer briefings as opposed to formal training.

2. KSA 2 showed that with reference to the sharing of tacit knowledge, 95% with a mean of 4.51 revealed that knowledge sharing was viewed as a critical endeavour for enterprise profitability, however, the holding of workshops were far apart, given the constant environmental changes that occurred in the industry.
3. KSA 3 showed that equipping with requisite customer job knowledge was positively acknowledged with 96% of the respondents with a mean of 4.61, agreeing that they were kept updated on customer specific knowledge.
4. KSA 4 showed that 94.8% of the respondents with a mean of 4.25 agreed that they were supplied with work-related knowledge for successful maintenance of the customer database.
5. KSA 5 showed that all the respondents with a mean of 4.6 were unanimous in agreeing that their enterprise had created networks outside the organisation which have contributed to business performance.
6. KSA 6 showed that 96% respondents with a mean of 4.65 agreed that they were empowered with task-related knowledge which was critical in task execution.
7. KSA 7 showed that all respondents with a mean of 4.44 were agreed that their enterprise supplied them with market-related knowledge hence they were kept aware of market trends.
8. KSA 8 showed that 98% of the respondents with a mean of 4.44 confirmed that they received transaction related knowledge to ensure that all transactions that required follow up were done expeditiously.
9. KSA 9 showed that 95% were at consensus that task related information was supplied such that every individual was aware of their responsibilities.

It is submitted that all the tests carried up above were in line with the Bouncka/Pye (2003) categories of knowledge which is key in attaining an effective knowledge management strategies. The outcome of the research revealed that although the respondents were not aware of the knowledge management terminology, they were actually carrying out most of the knowledge management activities. What was missing was the systematic application of knowledge management strategies.

5.9 Conclusion

The results of the study were presented in this chapter. Since data was collected using the mixed method research method, in which both quantitative and qualitative data was collected, it was necessary that the data be triangulated to ensure validity. Results from focus group discussions, face to face and semi-structured interviews as well as data from surveys were presented. The results were presented in the back drop of observing ethical considerations to adhere to the protection of the participants and had been promised prior. The data collected were intense and took considerable time to sort in order for patterns to be formed which were then presented. The next chapter deals with the discussion of the results so that conclusions and recommendations can be drawn from the study's findings.

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS DISCUSSION

6.0 Introduction

The results of the study were presented in the preceding chapter. The thesis statement presented in chapter one was stated as that divapreneurs did not seem to be aware of the importance of adopting technological innovations for business success and that the government tended to use a policy of ‘give to support’ instead of empowering divas for their own development. To that end the study’s objectives alongside the study questions were constructed together with the hypotheses for measuring the interrelatedness of the study’s variables and the rigorous study culminated in the discussion of the results in this chapter.

6.1 Discussion of Results

6.1.1 Approaches to women entrepreneurship

The results showed that although the government and various non-governmental organisations provided support systems for women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe, accessibility of the support systems by the target group was affected by ignorance of the existence of these support systems. Absence of specific government policy initiatives for assisting women grow their businesses was seen by most respondents as retarding business growth of that sector, hence the thesis statement that the government tended to use a policy of ‘give to support’ instead of empowering divas for their own development was proved valid through empirical evidence. The study’s contention was reaffirmed that there was need for a paradigm shift in the approach to divapreneurship development through providing facilities such as entrepreneurship hubs where divas could gain practical skills. These results were in sync with findings by Stevenson and St-Onge (2005) who alluded to a similar situation obtaining in Uganda where there were no deliberate strategic initiatives targeted at improving the lot of women entrepreneurs. Effective social communication structures and not political structures should be put in place by the government to ensure efficient information dissemination of availability of support systems to intended target groups.

The Zimbabwe economy was said to be volatile, business was slow due to the unstable business environment which made it risky sticking to one business, thus women entrepreneurs diversified

where possible. Women's business operations were adversely affected by the cash crisis, as banks were barely disbursing cash. The little that the respondents got from clients could not be banked as it would be required in order to access foreign currency which was ultimately illegal since it was obtained outside conventional means. Divapreneurship development hinges on the ability to transact with ease and as long as Zimbabwe remains without its own currency the ease of doing business will continue to be a stumbling block in the development of women enterprises. It was also apparent that most women could not access loans from banks, and other financial institutions because they did not possess assets in their names that could be used as collateral security and this confirmed prior studies by Nani (2011).

6.2 Knowledge management strategy implementation

The results on the knowledge management aspects from the findings of the study are discussed in the sections that follow. It was the study's findings that knowledge management strategies are key in attaining a competitive advantage in line with findings with findings by Bratianu (2015).

6.2.1 Knowledge Management practices

The knowledge management practices construct tested four aspects: knowledge creation, knowledge sharing, knowledge acquisition and knowledge application with respect to enterprise development. Results revealed that respondents were involved in all those KM practices activities. According to Bratianu (2015), the ability to create new knowledge is often at the centre of the organisation's competitive advantage. These findings implied that as a result of the adoption of knowledge management practices divapreneurs had lesser business challenges compared to those who had not adopted knowledge management, hence, their survival and growth to more than three years. According to Wiig's knowledge management cycle (1993), the purpose of knowledge management was identified as being an effort to make the enterprise intelligent through facilitating the creation, accumulation, deployment and use of quality knowledge. Those who had adopted KM practices had expanded their knowledge through formal education and training. Their sharing of experience was through networks.

KM scholars (Grant and Grant, 2008) are convinced that sharing of business experiences reduces chances of making wrong business choices. However, it was noted in this study that some respondents used experience gained from running family business. The management style adopted

was one that had been perpetuated over the years, and tended to use gut feeling and some were oblivious of the changing environment around them. The implication of these findings for divapreneurship development was that it was important to have a systematic approach to managing a business, through using tried and tested business strategies such as combining strategic thinking and knowledge management practices which gives direction to an enterprise. Access to information would enable divas to quickly adapt to change in the economy, as knowledge sharing is the most critical of the four knowledge management elements. It was noted that knowledge sharing seemed to be a big challenge in women entrepreneurship as some thought by hoarding knowledge it would become their source of competitive advantage. Some theorist on KM, Polonyi (1966), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) and later, Addington, Mcgivern and Ferlie, (2006), magnified the fact that knowledge sharing improved performance, competitive advantage, innovation, and that the sharing of lessons learned and integration of continuous improvement of the enterprise could ensure enterprise development. The fact that divas had embraced technology was worth noting as 21st Century organisations live in the knowledge age and could not compete well without embracing technology. However, when it came to the use of big data analytics and predictable analytics, divas were not aware of the value of embracing these contemporary practices to stay abreast of change. This fact pointed to the inflexibility of divas to embrace change for their business performance, hence, growing their enterprises was held back, yet their male counterparts were more aggressive and embraced change with ease.

6.2.2 Knowledge creation

Knowledge is created through practice, collaboration, interaction and education, as the different knowledge types are shared and converted (Wiig, 1993, King, 2016). Knowledge creation is also supported by relevant information and data which can improve decisions and serve as building blocks in the creation of new knowledge. Given that the results showed that most of the participants shared experiences and had attended formal entrepreneurial education, it was clear that the respondents were involved in knowledge creation to a certain extent. The SECI model by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1996) shows that various learning processes occur through interaction. Collaboration through networking that the respondents were involved in was made possible through social and electronic media in which all respondents were engaged in. Continuous learning was not statistically significant, but positively related to enterprise development, which implied

that it was not perceived as a priority by the respondents. Yet learning theorists such as Senge (1999), posit that an enterprise must embrace the dictates of a learning organisation. Senge (1999), likened it to systems thinking and stated that enterprise members must learn to relate to the system by thinking strategically, in order to behave in adequate ways. Constant training is important due to globalisation and technology which makes it possible for customers to access a lot of information hence they demand goods and services of a superior quality.

The four quadrant learning framework by Easterby-Smith (2011), reveals under the individual perspective that learning is achieved by creating an environment which reinforces desirable actions. From a group perspective, the learning framework, encourages effective exchange and dialogue and is opposed to hoarding of knowledge. The social constructivists are against the idea that learning occurs individually, instead they are of the view that the person and the environment must interact (Hysmann, 2015). Interaction was critical, but that the individual is inevitably a product of his or her environment. Thus empirical evidence revealed that women have suffered through years of neglect and were socialised to assume a backseat when it comes to making critical business decisions, hence it would take a lot of unlearning the socialised behaviour for divas to shake off the inferiority mentality. The implications for divas' development is that they need to be aggressive in their seeking of knowledge through engaging in continuous learning. The learning framework encourages team-based learning, action learning, personal development plans, coaching, mentoring, shadowing, to mention a few which divas can embark on to learn the ropes of the trade. It was pleasing to note that 80% of the respondents concurred that they were involved in mentoring other less experienced entrepreneurs.

6.2.3 Knowledge sharing

84% of the respondents had organisations that encouraged the sharing of knowledge and experiences and this was in line with the assertion by Polonyi (1966) that knowledge and information are vital strategic tools for the attainment of competitive advantage. Alavi and Leidner (2001) allude to coding and sharing of best practices, the creation of corporate knowledge directories and the creation of knowledge networks. Most respondents had no challenges with networking and getting access to knowledge. Young techno savvy divas made use of the internet of things, Facebook and social media as well as WhatsApp which were found to be amongst the

most popular platforms used by divas. Owners of hair saloons concurred that one had the option of either undergoing experiential learning on the job or going to the Polytechnics for formal training, which apparently was said to be a more expensive option. In sharing knowledge Nonaka (1994), says it is important to consider the environment within which sharing takes place. Amongst the findings of this study was that business information was to some extent available only to those who could afford it, hence, there was need for government intervention to provide affordable entrepreneurial training.

6.2.4 Knowledge acquisition and application

74% of the respondents concurred that knowledge once acquired, was disseminated to the areas needing it for use in solving business problems and also in decision making and this was in line with theorists such as Wiig *et al.* (1993) and later Carrion *et al.* (2016), who stated that dissemination is an important process of sharing and exchanging knowledge among individuals or a network of people within the enterprise, since knowledge which is not shared is of no value.

6.3 Training and education

The turbulent economic environment made it difficult to set up florist training facilities, hence, florists complained that those needing training had to go to South Africa for training as none such facilities were available in Zimbabwe. The situation was exacerbated by the fall of the Zimbabwe RTGS dollar against the United States dollar, which made the idea of going abroad for training prohibitive. The study established that the business environment was fluid and nothing remained constant including the quality expectations of the customers, hence there was need to continually upgrade knowledge through training and continuous learning including workshops and seminars to enable women to share knowledge and network for success.

As a knowledge sharing mechanism training agencies such as Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community Development, Women in Business, ZNCC, CZI, Women Institute Leadership Development (WILD), non-governmental organisations, Professional women in business, should use female mentors wherever possible in order to give women a chance to network. Training should emphasise the importance of strategies to move into higher value markets as opposed to the traditional service industries where women are mostly found. Introduction of entrepreneurship clubs and business idea generation through pitching contests at

schools could be initiated in order to nurture entrepreneurship orientation of girls at an early stage so that they embrace the entrepreneurial spirit early in life. Attendance at business seminars, workshops, trade fairs, agricultural shows should all be encouraged for divas to see and learn from others. Although organisations that offered training and business knowledge were available, it was noted that training was not holistically and systematically done due to lack of a government policy direction on entrepreneurial training and education.

The findings with regard to Higher Learning Institutions regarding entrepreneurial learning, revealed a curriculum which although empowering divas with knowledge, was too theoretically based with little exposure to practical business aspects such as seminars and innovation dialogues missing. The aspect of the involvement of Higher Learning Institutions in planned learning stood at 94%. Those respondents who were experts in providing entrepreneurial education stated that they were hindered by scarce training resources. The implications for divapreneurship development is that universities should play a major role part in entrepreneurship training through offering expert knowledge and running short courses to empower SMEs in general and women in particular. The training could target empowering women with business management and marketing skills as well as financial literacy which respondents concurred were lacking in some instances. Universities could source donor funds and network with the private sector to roll out a training programme.

Some of the respondents stated that they lacked formal business training and thus needed training in the following areas as per the findings of the survey: Communication skills (customer care, motivation); procurement (stock control, stock management); financial management (budgeting skills, book keeping); creativity and innovation; entrepreneurial skills (business idea generation, drawing business plans); marketing and strategic planning.

6.4 Discrimination

Despite the fact that the Zimbabwean constitution provided legal frameworks for women to be treated with dignity and ensure equal opportunities, women were effectively still facing discrimination and biased treatment on the ground due to the male centric society which still erected barriers impeding women enterprise growth. Thus, women needed to work together to

shatter the ‘glass box’ of discrimination through a resilient fighting spirit and willingness to overcome obstacles to their progress. The government had not provided enough policy measures to address challenges faced by divas. It was clear that the situation on the ground faced by women pointed to the fact that there was still a lot of interventions that were called for to emancipate women from the shackles of discrimination. The findings from the respondents were that women are not taken seriously in the business world and that they are seen as caregivers not leaders. There are government policy implications to this statement, it was clear that just like in Uganda, in Zimbabwe, there is general lack of awareness of women’s potential to be economic contributors due to stereo-typing.

6.5 Challenges faced by divas

The challenges hindering divapreneurship development were articulated as summarised below:

6.5.1 Lack of capital

There was lack of capital for both business expansion and start-up due to women not having collateral security as women in most instances do not own property, these results resonate well with a similar assertion by Mboko, Smith-Hunter and Boyd (2009) and Nani (2011). However, the government through SEDCO and the Women’s bank offers loans to the disadvantaged including women and youths with fewer bottlenecks but at a high interest rate which is prohibitive. In an effort by government to encourage SMEs in general and divas in particular, the government through the Ministry of Women’s Affairs, Gender, Community Development and Small to Medium Enterprises, now view universities to be the nerve centre for unrolling entrepreneurial and project management training targeted at specific provinces such as Manicaland, Matabeleland North and Masvingo Provinces.

Women entrepreneurs faced stiff competition from an influx of cheaper smuggled goods from neighbouring countries in particular South Africa, which made their goods appear relatively expensive. There were policy implications to the government in that the influx of cheaper products adversely affected local entrepreneurial ventures who fail to compete due to high costs of production and doing business, hence government intervention is required.

On the policy side, the respondents incurred bottlenecks in securing operator's licences and they complained that there were too many operational regulations to abide with. Bottlenecks in formalising operations should be eliminated so that divas operate smart ventures that are recognised by law. There was need for divas to realise that despite remaining apolitical, it was their constitutional right to lobby government to ensure that they influence policy in favour of their lot.

Respondents spoke of discrimination from men in particular those women in the security sector, men tended to think women cannot run a security company. These findings are in line with those made by Still and Timmons (2000), Woodie and Ardeguo (2004). The discrimination was also prominent in the awarding of loans which saw men being favoured over women.

The results revealed that there was lack of support amongst women, instead women competed with each other. Once women become driven, having a compulsion and urgent desire to succeed through being highly energetic and motivated; and are inspired, imbued with the spirit to do something as by a supernatural or divine force; as well as being action-oriented, willing or likely to take practical action to deal with the impediments they are currently facing, only then will divapreneurship become a reality.

It emerged that women were expected to give sexual favours for the awarding of tenders. This observation from empirical findings is a result of years of lack of gender equality which exists on paper only, government policy should speed up gender main streaming so that all obstacles that hinder divas' development due to gender related impediments are eliminated.

6.5.2 Financial illiteracy

Divas alluded to the challenges of financial illiteracy. These problems of financial illiteracy affected efficiency and the ability to expand productive capacity and thereby reduce cost to make women in business ultimate survival possible. A peculiar challenge which was discovered was that banking was shunned by women business owners who claimed that once they deposited their cash into the banks they would have difficulty accessing the cash back, due to perennial cash shortages. Failure to deposit money adversely affected the chance of growth for the businesses as the money could be ether misappropriated as accountability for large sums of cash is difficult. However, although, the use of plastic money was heavily encouraged in the economy, there were instances

when cash was required. Moreover, there was a parallel pricing system which made transactions more expensive when using either plastic money or eco-cash (Econet Wireless wallet) but cheaper when using cash. Although this practice of dual pricing was illegal, nonetheless, businesses encountered the challenge frequently. City Council by-laws and statutory requirements were said to be too stringent and prohibitive to business start-up and expansion. These results had implications for government policy. All these challenges slowed down growth of divas' businesses.

The turbulent economic environment made it difficult to set up training facilities, florists submitted that there were no technical colleges in Zimbabwe, hence, those needing training had to go to South Africa for training according to some respondents in that sector. The situation was exacerbated by the fall of the Zimbabwe RTGS dollar against the United States dollar, which would make the idea of going abroad for training prohibitive. The study established that the environment was fluid and nothing remained constant including the quality expectations of the customers, hence there was need to continuous upgrade knowledge through training and continuous learning including workshops and seminars to enable women to share knowledge.

Despite the fact that the Zimbabwean constitution provides legal frameworks for women to be treated with dignity, women were effectively still facing discrimination and biased treatment in the male centric Zimbabwean society which placed barriers in their progress. Some respondents were of the view that in order to shatter the 'glass box' of discrimination it was important that women succeed in business and outdo men so that they could earn respect. But the question still remained as to whether, the government had provided enough policy measures to deal with discrimination issues in business? Apparently, not, hence, this study sought to propound ways to address such impediments to divapreneurship. The results resonated well with findings from Nani (2011), Munyoro et al (2012) that divas needed constant training in order to develop and sustain their enterprises and ultimately join the mainstream economy. What is important, is to establish the nature of training that will result in enterprise growth for divas. Some of the comments made under this theme are unique contributions to challenges faces women, such as lack of integrity and drive to accomplish tasks.

According to Uriate (2008) knowledge sharing is the most critical of the four knowledge management elements. It was noted that knowledge sharing seemed to be a big challenge in women entrepreneurship. Theorist on KM, Polonyi (1966), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) and later, Addington, Mcgovern and Ferlie, (2006), accept that knowledge sharing improved performance, competitive advantage, innovation, and that the sharing of lessons learned and integration of continuous improvement of the enterprise could ensure enterprise development. The fact that divas have embraced technology is worth noting as 21st Century organisation live in the knowledge age and have to embrace technology. However, when it came to the use of big data analytics and predictable analytics, divas were not aware of the value of embracing these tools for enterprise growth.

In terms of personality traits, the findings were that women lacked aggression, entrepreneurial spirit and drive as well as the ability to manoeuvre and skills to navigate in the turbulent economic environment in Zimbabwe in the period 2015 to 2018. Lack of drive is an impediment which was observed by Bbenkele (2013) as resulting from an absence of the divatude or positive attitude in women. Lack of divatude was seen in the failure by women entrepreneurs to unite and share information and knowledge. Information was said to be available only to those who could afford it.

6.6 Conclusion

The results of the study were discussed in this chapter with the aim of reaching a conclusion on the problem under study which will culminate in recommendations being made on the antecedents to divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe. The results confirmed that women entrepreneurship is playing a vital role in the Zimbabwean economy through contributing to economic prosperity and unemployment reduction. The study was carried out to make a business value proposition to policy makers proposing a new paradigm to empowering women entrepreneurs rather than giving to support. The next chapter will present the conclusion, recommendations and make suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

7.0 Introduction

The main objective of the study was to make a business case for the adoption of a knowledge management strategy and government policy interventions as strong precursors for divapreneurship development. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a theoretical and empirical study was scientifically carried out as described in chapter four and subsequent results presented and analysed in five and in the preceding chapter the results were discussed. The problems that prompted the study were that developing countries are facing the challenge that they are still orienting their strategies of involving women entrepreneurs using methods of ‘give’ to support and not empowering them so that they are self- sustaining. Moreover, Yin (2012) was of the view that women entrepreneurs start business twice as often as men do but their businesses hardly survived up to three years. Furthermore, Vossenberg (2016), observed that for women’s businesses to prosper, policy makers and practitioners needed to ensure that enterprise development strategies are informed by a thorough identification of women entrepreneurs’ practical and strategic needs and aspirations and an analysis of formal and informal institutions that legitimise what women can do or have. Besides, even though women entrepreneurs are of growing importance and making significant contributions to GNPs of world economies, they were seriously understudied with only 10% of research attributed to this sector worldwide in general and in Zimbabwe in particular (Brush and Cooper, 2012). Lack of knowledge by government and other stakeholders on how divas could be assisted to grow and enter the main-stream economy was also one of the reasons why it was important to carry out this study in order to address all the knowledge gaps mentioned above.

7.1 Summary of findings

There is a compelling business case for the use of a knowledge management strategy to ensure divapreneurship development basing on the empirical evidence gathered in the study. A strategy is a means of making clear-cut choices about how to outperform competitors and achieving superior profitability. Thus, in training divas it is important to incorporate strategic thinking in

order for divas to make well-informed business decisions. Divas need to adopt well-executed competitive approaches based on the employment of knowledge management strategies, with government policy providing the enabling environment in which women businesses could flourish. The challenge for divas is to craft a strategy that produces good performance in particular with regard to earnings, return on investment, credit rating and brand image. Empirical evidence pointed to the fact that divas needed to adopt a paradigm shift to conducting business in order for them to attract and please customers due to the influx of cheaper options including on-line options which implies that divas must come up with quality products and services that sell. Remaining customer focussed and upholding high standards of operation through observing quality principles and exceeding customer satisfaction is a strategy that is unlikely to fail. The rationale being that when the enterprise maintains the confidence of customers and stakeholders that will create an opportunity to create more customer value, resulting in repeat business, goodwill, wider customer base and increased market share and divapreneurship development.

It was clear from empirical evidence that positioning the enterprise in the market place is not easy given the bottlenecks alluded to earlier, thus making a wrong strategic move could waste an enterprise's resources and put the survival of the entity at risk, hence most women enterprises failed to survive. It was therefore important to attend trade shows and other trade events to market products and services as well as to collaborate with other organisations. Capitalising on opportunities to grow the business is a strategy that requires planning and commitment of financial resources. Hence, without a strategic thinking, divas will remain small and insignificant and will not join the main stream economy. Efficiency requires performing value chain activities differently than rivals and building competencies and resource capabilities that are not matched.

7.2 Conclusions

The overarching conclusion reached by this study is that the independent variable of divapreneurship development is indeed dependent on the independent variables of Knowledge management strategy with government policy intervention, entrepreneurial learning and divatude embracement as intervening variables. There are various players that must collaborate to make divapreneurship development a reality and these are divas themselves, government through its policy interventions, the private sector through financial and technical support and the non-

governmental organisations as sponsors and donors. Although the study's findings showed that the relationship between government policy and enterprise development was not statistically significant, it was noted, however, that most of the economic challenges affecting divapreneurship development such as lack of access to financial resources, gender discrimination and other impediments to women's business success could only be solved through government policy intervention. Specific support required by divapreneurs from the government were: government support and protection against cheaper imports, bankable land leases in the few instances that women had land, reforms to enhance the ease of doing business.

It was clearly demonstrated in this study that divapreneurship development requires a systematic approach and commitment from various players and that the divas themselves needed to embrace the divatude, be determined to succeed (driven), outstanding (inspired), focussed on winning (inspired) and results driven (action-oriented). These personality traits had to be embraced by divas if divapreneurship is to become a reality in Zimbabwe.

Universities also have a big role to play in the nurturing of divapreneurship through the offering of entrepreneurship education that is tailor made to suit the Zimbabwean turbulent environment. The adoption of a knowledge management strategy was found to be critical in view of the nature of global competition which was now leveraging KM strategies and technological innovations such as big data analytical tools to attain a competitive advantage.

7.3 Contribution of the study

One of the objectives of the study was to come up with a model that would guide policy makers and other stakeholders in developing women entrepreneurs and the study succeeded in achieving its goal. The proposed new framework was designed through an empirical analysis of findings. Thus it is propounded that the dependent variable of sustainable divapreneurship development is dependent on the independent variables of knowledge strategy (KM and strategic management combined) implementation and government policy interventions with entrepreneurship learning and divatude embracement as moderating variables. Protracted engagement between women entrepreneurs and the government will ensure that inclusive SMEs policies are designed that will eliminate growth challenges faced by women entrepreneurs. The proposed model is shown below:

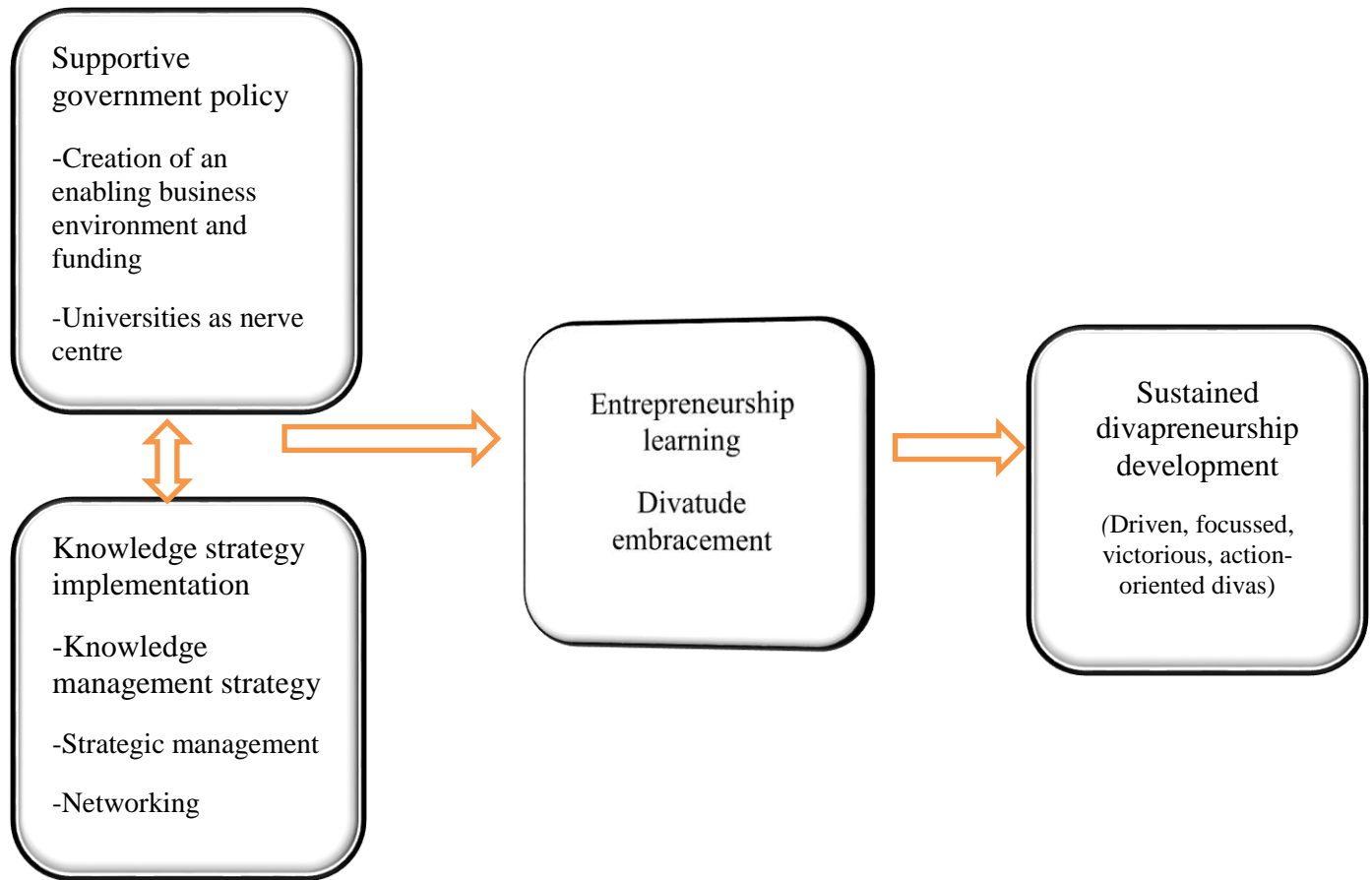


Figure 7.1 Model for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe (own compilation, 2019).

The model for divapreneurship development above shows the important variables in the development matrix, with a supportive government policy providing an enabling environment for business. The government of Zimbabwe has to adopt a deliberate strategic plan to foster the growth of women's enterprises, through creating linkages and training forums in conjunction with universities and other women training organisations. These forums would eliminate the barriers faced by women in business and take on board non-governmental organisations and other donor agencies as well as the private sector for funding. The government should also provide affordable funding. The initiative should be well communicated so that women are aware of the funding facility with government acting guarantor of the funds. A knowledge strategy which integrates a knowledge management strategy and strategic management should be implemented by divas as a source of competitive leverage in order to create new value by considering knowledge as a strategic resource in management decision making. A well- managed social communication

infrastructure should be in place to enable networking amongst divas so that information sharing is encouraged.

An intensive entrepreneurship learning programme should be implemented by government deliberately targeting women with universities being the nexus, to impart business knowledge and bring about participation of women in the main stream economy. This intensive training should be spearheaded by universities to ensure that:

1. *Divas are conscious of the importance of having permanent business premises where they operate from;*
2. *Divas have to adopt best business management practices through registering their operations and maintain up to date books of accounts;*
3. *Divas develop networks that they could leverage on such as participating in trade shows to showcase their products;*
4. *Divas comply with statues and local authority by-laws in conducting business instead of taking short cuts;*
5. *Divas adopt modern business practices such as knowledge management strategies, big data analytics and technological innovations. Thus, divas needed to keep track of contemporary trends and follow industry trends.*
6. *Divas conduct businesses in a clean environment through adherence to quality management principles.*
7. *Divas grow their businesses annually and attain return on investment.*
8. *Divas were continually creative and innovative so as to attain a distinct competitive advantage;*
9. *Divas to contribute towards national development through joining the main stream economy;*
10. *Divas' progress is closely monitored to ensure that the fund is secure and revolves to benefit more communities.*

7.4 Recommendations of the study

There is need for the government to adopt some business models that have been successfully implemented elsewhere in third world countries such as Kenya, Ghana and Uganda, where the

economy is driven by and supports women entrepreneurship. Encouraging communities to come together to pool their financial and knowledge resources together for mutual development is one lesson that can be learned from other developing countries. The study made the following recommendations:

1. There should be a system of reviewing the existing regulatory frameworks, and making necessary adjustments to promote the growth of women businesses. Licensing of businesses should be reviewed in order to cut down on the bottlenecks. Pro-women policies must be crafted and implemented to promote divapreneurship development.
2. Women business support in the form of business premises, infrastructural support as well as technological support is critical for divapreneurs growth.
3. Some Micro-finance credit schemes should be sponsored by government to disburse financial support for women owned enterprises.
4. Higher learning institutions should spearhead advanced training programmes for the development of managerial and technical skills among women, thereby enhancing their bargaining power. These women should be thoroughly equipped with adequate business skills especially on marketing related issues, since it is a major challenge in this sector.
5. Development agents such as women empowerment groups, Ministry of Women's Affairs, Gender and Community development and Small to Medium Enterprises as well as Universities should embark on a massive drive to assist women develop and nature their business ideas. Non- governmental agencies and the private sector should work with the government to sponsor training on idea generation and projects through incubation hubs for women. A vetting exercise should be put in place on the basis of production of a business proposal that will place women into various categories for training needs identification.
6. The private sector should be part of the consortium driving women entrepreneurial development, through providing various support services with regard to information dissemination and capacity building. Development agents should play a fruitful role in value chain addition, offering business consultancy services with the Universities carrying out applied cutting edge research on business management in volatile environments like Zimbabwe and providing feedback to the stakeholders.

7. There should be policy consistence, as the current scenario in Zimbabwe is that its risk profile is increasing because of policy inconsistencies. There is need for consultation of business before policies are crafted in particular those policies that affect divas.
8. There is need for local content protection, which will enable local women's enterprises to have a guaranteed market for its products.
9. Loans or seed financing from government should be availed to capacitate the financial sector to avail loans to women's businesses.
10. Universities should be engaged to come up with local solutions to business problems.
11. There is need to nip corruption in the bud as well as institute fiscal discipline by the government to promote business development.
12. Divapreneurs should embrace a positive attitude or divatude and adopt knowledge strategies prescribed in this study for their development.
13. It was noted that there was serious fiscal indiscipline in the economy which had negative impact on the performance of the business sector, hence, there was need to bring about a paradigm shift to enforce fiscal discipline.
14. Adequate, reliable, affordable and sustainable infrastructure should be availed to divas for their operational stability. The government through its policy should improve governance and tackle corruption, in particular at the border posts to arrest corruption, which had adversely affected the operations of divas as an extra cost on imports. ZIMRA also had too many tax heads which affected business efficiencies, and this was clear from the reported surpassing of their revenue targets.
15. Women business development was affected by lack of foreign currency due to the inability by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe to regulate currency. Hence the government needs to capitalise the financial sector to avail loans to women businesses.

7.5 Recommendations for future research

The recommendations for future research stems from the limitations of this current study. This study confined itself to those women enterprises that had survived for at least three years as opposed to those that were at start-up stage or still anticipating starting an entity. Hence, for future research it is recommended that a bigger sample be drawn.

Further research is recommended in line with the delimitations of the study, in particular with reference to the geographical areas that were covered which was wholly urban. It would be interesting to incorporate the women entrepreneurs who are in rural areas so that their challenges are magnified. Rural women are likely to face different growth challenges from those faced by their urban counterparts. It would also be interesting to investigate the extent to which these women have embraced technological innovations in their business operations. These technological innovations bring about ease of doing business and facilitate access to potential markets for products and services and women in business in rural areas compete for the same market for their products and services as their urban counterparts.

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A business case for the adoption of a knowledge management strategy and government policy as precursors for divapreneurship development in Zimbabwe.

My name is Sibongile Manzini a PhD candidate at the University of Lusaka carrying out research on the above topic in partial fulfilment of the requirement of my Doctoral studies.

This survey is being conducted to establish the information seeking and sharing habits of entrepreneurs and to establish the extent of their adoption of knowledge management practices and the business challenges they face. The information gathered will be used to inform policy makers and Higher Learning Institutions in designing cutting edge training programmes for this sector.

The collated information will be treated with strict confidentiality. Contributors to this survey are urged not to disclose their identities. Please answer the question as honestly as possible. This survey will take approximately 30minutes or less to complete. Space is provided at the end of the survey for you to add any additional comments you may have. Thank you for participating!

1. Section A

Gender

Male

Female

2. Age 18-28

29-38

39-48

49-58

59 and above

3.

Business sector	Tick
1. Products	
2. Service	
3. Other – elucidate	

4. Activities and products of the business

a) What is the main activity (describe in detail)

5.

	Knowledge creation	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
KC1	I have undergone business training and it increased my business knowledge					
KC2	There is a robust strategy for capturing, storing and disseminating information in my organization					
KC3	Creativity and innovative ideas are rewarded					
KC4	Managing knowledge results in profitability, efficiency and effectiveness					
KC5						

6.

Explain areas which were critical for your business development in the training.

7.

	Knowledge sharing	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
KS1	My organisation encourages sharing of experiences and ideas					
KS2	The information that I acquire through networking is highly beneficial to my business					
KS3	I consult media resources such as the internet for business information					
KS4	Knowledge sharing is encouraged in my organization					
KS5	There is a knowledge enabling environment in my organization					

	Knowledge management	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
KM1	My organisation recognizes the importance of managing knowledge resources					
KM2	I find it difficult to get information on sources of capital					
KM3	There is effective information flow in my organization					
KM4	Organisation culture influences knowledge sharing					
KM5	The prior training I had was empowering in terms of information					

CL1	Continuous learning	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree

CL2	The university education I am undergoing has sharpened my business acumen					
CL3	Continuous Learning is encouraged in my organisation through training					
CL4	My organisation invests in planned learning					
CL5	To gain business knowledge I attended formal training before university education					
CL6	Women face start up challenges due to lack of business information					

	Knowledge strategy	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
KSS1	There is a relationship between expert business knowledge and the attainment of competitive advantage					
KSS2	knowledge is strategically disseminated					
KSS3	The organization uses technology to store knowledge					
KSS4	Market information is made available to employees					
KSS5	Higher Learning Institutions should provide platforms for knowledge sharing					

	Knowledge Management practices	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	uncertain	Agree	Strongly agree
KM1	Knowledge management practices are empowering					
KM2	Knowledge management practices					
KM3	My organization has adopted KM practices					
KM4	KM practices leads to creativity and innovation					
KM5	KM practices lead to competitive advantage					

Higher Learning Institutions should provide platforms for knowledge sharing
Higher Learning Institutions should provide platforms for knowledge sharing

7.

From my opinion the following platforms should be made available to enable business information sharing.....

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8.

More contributions on entrepreneurship development initiatives

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Thank you for participating!



Introduction to participants in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province Hwange and Victoria Falls

The researcher is carrying on a study on topic knowledge management and government policy as interrelated precursors to divapreneurship Development the challenges Business knowledge challenges faced by women in Business or those with intentions to start up business ventures. The information will be used to tailor make training programmes to provide this disadvantaged sector with cutting edge knowledge for business success. To that end kindly assist by providing critical information as guided below:

- 1. What challenges are women in Business facing?

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- 2. To what extent is business information a challenge in this sector?

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3. What platform are available to entrepreneurs for sharing business knowledge?

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4. What is the role of your organisation in empowering entrepreneurs?

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5. What are the challenges that your organisation is facing in executing its role if any?

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6. Which training areas are critical for the empowerment of entrepreneurs?

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7. Which are your sources of business information?

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Thank you for your assistance

Manzini Sibongile



**UNIVERSITY
OF
LUSAKA**

University of Lusaka

Survey questions [Bulawayo, Hwange, and Victoria Falls]

Introduction to participants in Bulawayo Metropolitan Province Hwange and Victoria Falls

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Thank you for your assistance

Manzini Sibongile

APPENDIX 3

CORRELATION SUMMARIES

Correlations summaries

Correlations

		Knowl edge Crea tion	Busin ess Deve lopment	Knowl edge Mana gemen t	Forma l Train ing	Empo werin g	Media Resou rces	Netw orkin g	Sourc e of Capita l	Univer sity Educa tion	Shari ng Expe rienc e	Cre ativi ty	Enabli ng Enviro nment
Knowledg e Creation	Pearson Correlati on	1	. ^a	.179	-.046	.100	.060	-.012	-.093	.094	.512 [*]	.49 5 ^{**}	.047
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.	.224	.763	.505	.685	.936	.541	.526	.000	.00 0	.750
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Business Dev	Pearson Correlati on	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a	. ^a
	Sig. (2- tailed)
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Knowledg e Managem ent	Pearson Correlati on	.179	. ^a	1	.278	-.013	.047	.157	-.224	-.152	.067	-. 10 1	.299 [*]
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.224	.		.056	.929	.745	.277	.127	.293	.642	.48 5	.035
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Formal Training	Pearson Correlati on	-.046	. ^a	.278	1	.633 ^{**}	.151	.013	.101	.041	-.024	-. 12 1	-.035
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.763	.	.056		.000	.305	.929	.503	.782	.871	.41 3	.814
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510

Empoweri ng	Pearson Correlati on	.100	. ^a	-.013	.633**	1	.065	-.125	.331*	-.043	-.017	.20 4	-.073
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.505	.	.929	.000		.656	.391	.023	.768	.905	.15 9	.619
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Media Resource s	Pearson Correlati on	.060	. ^a	.047	.151	.065	1	.106	-.035	.282*	-.051	- .12 5	.071
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.685	.	.745	.305	.656		.465	.815	.047	.723	.38 8	.622
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Networki ng	Pearson Correlati on	-.012	. ^a	.157	.013	-.125	.106	1	-.153	.223	.262	- .19 5	.522**
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.936	.	.277	.929	.391	.465		.299	.120	.066	.17 5	.000
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Source Capital	Pearson Correlati on	-.093	. ^a	-.224	.101	.331*	-.035	-.153	1	-.139	-.003	.19 3	-.085
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.541	.	.127	.503	.023	.815	.299		.345	.981	.18 9	.566
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
University Education	Pearson Correlati on	.094	. ^a	-.152	.041	-.043	.282*	.223	-.139	1	.170	- .08 8	-.066
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.526	.	.293	.782	.768	.047	.120	.345		.238	.54 5	.650
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	500	500	510
Sharing Experienc e	Pearson Correlati on	.512**	. ^a	.067	-.024	-.017	-.051	.262	-.003	.170	1	.14 2	.317*
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.000	.	.642	.871	.905	.723	.066	.981	.238		.32 4	.025
	N	48	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Creativity	Pearson Correlati on	.495**	. ^a	-.101	-.121	.204	-.125	-.195	.193	-.088	.142	1	.152
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.										
	N												

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.485	.413	.159	.388	.175	.189	.545	.324		.292
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Enabling Environ	Pearson Correlation	.047	. ^a	.299 [*]	-.035	-.073	.071	.522 [*]	-.085	-.066	.317 [*]	.152	.1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.750	.	.035	.814	.619	.622	.000	.566	.650	.025	.292	
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Planned Learning	Pearson Correlation	.273	. ^a	-.034	-.088	.083	-.065	-.091	.261	-.222	.240	.235	.262
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.064	.	.814	.555	.576	.658	.532	.076	.124	.097	.104	.069
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Profitability Expectation	Pearson Correlation	.163	. ^a	.152	.093	.042	-.117	.257	-.108	.028	.160	.098	.282 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.267	.	.293	.529	.773	.419	.071	.464	.846	.267	.500	.047
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Strategy Capturing	Pearson Correlation	.281	. ^a	.010	-.068	-.160	-.055	-.094	-.050	.090	.262	.186	.151
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	.	.944	.652	.281	.710	.524	.740	.543	.072	.205	.304
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Encourage Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.211	. ^a	.000	.087	.227	.080	.065	.097	.128	.050	.320	.177
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.155	.	1.000	.561	.121	.586	.658	.516	.379	.732	.025	.223
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Information Flow	Pearson Correlation	.185	. ^a	.213	-.074	.120	-.147	-.138	.025	-.278	-.046	.422 ^{**}	.255
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.213	.	.141	.623	.416	.313	.346	.867	.053	.755	.003	.077
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510

Expertise Competitive	Pearson Correlation	-.137	. ^a	.073	-.121	-.215	-.162	.107	-.052	-.128	.169	-.012	.350*
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.357	.	.619	.420	.142	.267	.464	.727	.382	.245	.937	.014
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Culture	Pearson Correlation	.047	. ^a	-.053	-.042	.025	-.310*	-.076	-.041	.025	.363*	-.011	.001
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.755	.	.718	.782	.867	.030	.604	.783	.864	.010	.941	.995
	N	510	0	510	47	48	49	49	47	49	49	49	49
Continuous learning	Pearson Correlation	.368*	. ^a	.161	.197	.276	-.077	.102	-.010	-.034	.234	.440**	.327*
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.011	.	.270	.185	.058	.597	.487	.945	.819	.105	.002	.022
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Higher learning Institutions	Pearson Correlation	.056	. ^a	-.152	.007	.067	.092	.049	-.005	.149	.005	.160	.013
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.717	.	.307	.963	.659	.540	.745	.972	.318	.975	.282	.932
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510
Woman Challenges	Pearson Correlation	-.059	. ^a	-.084	.011	-.090	.038	-.015	.220	.258	.148	.053	-.133
	Sig. (2- tailed)	.693	.	.567	.940	.545	.798	.918	.138	.074	.310	.718	.362
	N	510	0	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510

Table 5.36

Correlations

		Planned learning	Profitability Expectation	Strategy capturing	Encourage Knowledge	Information flow	Expertise competitive	Culture	Continuous Learning	Higher Institutions	Women Challenges	platform	contributions
Knowledge Creation	Pearson Correlation	.273	.163	.281	.211	.185	-.137	.047	.368*	.056	-.059	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.064	.267	.056	.155	.213	.357	.755	.011	.717	.693	.	.
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	0	0
Business Development	Pearson Correlation	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Knowledge Management	Pearson Correlation	-.034	.152	.010	.000	.213	.073	-.053	.161	-.152	-.084	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.814	.293	.944	1.000	.141	.619	.718	.270	.307	.567	.	.
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	0	0
Formal Training	Pearson Correlation	-.088	.093	-.068	.087	-.074	-.121	.042	.197	.007	.011	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.555	.529	.652	.561	.623	.420	.782	.185	.963	.940	.	.
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	0	0
Empowering	Pearson Correlation	.083	.042	-.160	.227	.120	-.215	.025	.276	.067	-.090	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)												
	N												

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.576	.773	.281	.121	.416	.142	.867	.058	.659	.545	.	.
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	0	0
Media Resources	Pearson Correlation	-.065	-.117	-.055	.080	-.147	-.162	-.310*	-.077	.092	.038	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.658	.419	.710	.586	.313	.267	.030	.597	.540	.798	.	.
	N	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	510	0	0
Networking	Pearson Correlation	-.091	.257	-.094	.065	-.138	.107	-.076	.102	.049	-.015	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.532	.071	.524	.658	.346	.464	.604	.487	.745	.918	.	.
	N	510	510	48	509	509	509	509	509	509	509	0	0
Source Capital	Pearson Correlation	.261	-.108	-.050	.097	.025	-.052	-.041	-.010	-.005	.220	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.076	.464	.740	.516	.867	.727	.783	.945	.972	.138	.	.
	N	509	509	509	509	509	509	509	509	509	509	0	0
University Education	Pearson Correlation	-.222	.028	.090	.128	-.278	-.128	.025	-.034	.149	.258	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.124	.846	.543	.379	.053	.382	.864	.819	.318	.074	.	.
	N	510	510	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Sharing Experience	Pearson Correlation	.240	.160	.262	.050	-.046	.169	.363*	.234	.005	.148	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.097	.267	.072	.732	.755	.245	.010	.105	.975	.310	.	.
	N	509	510	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Creativity	Pearson Correlation	.235	-.098	.186	.320*	.422**	-.012	-.011	.440**	.160	.053	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.104	.500	.205	.025	.003	.937	.941	.002	.282	.718	.	.
	N	509	510	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0

Enabling Environment	Pearson Correlation	.262	.282*	.151	.177	.255	.350*	.001	.327*	.013	-.133	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.069	.047	.304	.223	.077	.014	.995	.022	.932	.362	.	.
	N	509	510	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Planned Learning	Pearson Correlation	1	.135	.203	.238	.312*	-.043	.218	.481**	.307*	.079	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.356	.171	.103	.031	.773	.138	.001	.038	.594	.	.
	N	509	509	507	508	508	508	508	508	506	508	0	0
Profitability Expectation	Pearson Correlation	.135	1	-.259	-.093	-.256	.116	.302*	.160	.308*	-.309*	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.356		.076	.526	.076	.427	.035	.271	.035	.031	.	.
	N	509	510	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Strategy Capturing	Pearson Correlation	.203	-.259	1	.452**	.410**	.191	.141	.191	-.066	.103	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.171	.076		.001	.004	.194	.340	.194	.663	.484	.	.
	N	510	508	508	508	508	508	508	508	506	508	0	0
Encourage Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.238	-.093	.452**	1	.464**	.057	.108	.486**	.250	.190	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.103	.526	.001		.001	.695	.458	.000	.090	.192	.	.
	N	508	509	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Information Flow	Pearson Correlation	.312*	-.256	.410**	.464**	1	.283*	.014	.490**	-.022	-.010	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031	.076	.004	.001		.049	.923	.000	.883	.947	.	.
	N	508	509	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Expertise	Pearson Correlation	-.043	.116	.191	.057	.283*	1	.234	-.075	-.169	-.022	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)												
	N												

Competitive	Sig. (2-tailed)	.773	.427	.194	.695	.049		.105	.610	.256	.880	.	.
	N	508	509	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Culture	Pearson Correlation	.218	.302*	.141	.108	-.014	.234	1	.170	.358*	.042	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.138	.035	.340	.458	.923	.105		.243	.013	.777	.	.
	N	508	509	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Continuous Learning	Pearson Correlation	.481**	.160	.191	.486**	.490**	-.075	.170	1	.328*	.051	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.271	.194	.000	.000	.610	.243		.025	.726	.	.
	N	508	509	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
Higher learning Institutions	Pearson Correlation	.307*	.308*	-.066	.250	-.022	-.169	.358*	.328*	1	.166	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.038	.035	.663	.090	.883	.256	.013	.025		.266	.	.
	N	506	507	506	507	507	507	507	507	507	507	0	0
Woman Challenges	Pearson Correlation	.079	-.309*	.103	.190	-.010	-.022	.042	.051	.166	1	.a	.a
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.594	.031	.484	.192	.947	.880	.777	.726	.266		.	.
	N	508	509	508	509	509	509	509	509	507	509	0	0
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0