



Financial Inclusion and the Promotion of Shared Responsibility Within the Household and The Family: A Case of Small Business Owners in Masaka District, Uganda

Olive Enid Nabiryo

Faculty of Business Management, Azteca University, Mexico

Charles Edaku

Senior Lecturer, School of Social Sciences Nkumba University, Entebbe, Uganda

ABSTRACT

The researcher sought to establish the relationship between financial inclusion and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family, a case of Small Business Owners in Masaka District, Uganda. The research adopted a mixed methods approach. A mixed methods approach advances the systematic integration of quantitative and qualitative data within a single investigation.

Study respondents included women 66.7% of whom belonged to a financial savings and/or lending group and 69.5% had personally saved or set aside some money for any reason. The findings established that 71.4% of the respondents indicated that there is sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household. Chi-square results show that there are significant relationships (p -value < 0.005), between financial inclusion and indicators of promoting of shared responsibility within the household and the family, these include; Joint decision making on important issues in the home ($p=0.001$), the type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband, specifically on the sale of crops ($p=0.002$), crops to grow or how to use land ($p=0.042$), and non-farm business($p=0.030$);

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 10 Aug 2022

Received in revised form

10 Sep 2022

Accepted 12 Oct 2022

Keywords: Uganda.

© 2022 Hosting by Research Parks. All rights reserved.

financial inclusion also has a significant relationship with the perception of respondents on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making ($p=0.010$). The R-squared value of 0.11 shows that 11% of the variations in financial inclusion can be explained by the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family.

These results further affirm that financial inclusion can promote sharing responsibility within the household and the family and therefore create pathways to gender equality. It is also very clear that financial inclusion also has a significant relationship on the perception of individuals on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making. All these can be improved with an increase in financial inclusion.

Introduction and background

In Uganda, and many other societies, more often than not, unpaid care work within households is shared primarily among female household members or between women and children, especially girls (Oxfam, 2018). In order to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls, it is important to promote shared responsibility within the household and the family. However, for women and men to be able to participate more equitably in unpaid care work, they need to both have access to paid work on terms that allow them to do so, and recognize and value the contribution of unpaid care work to their family's and community's well-being (OECD, 2022). Access to paid work means that women have some disposable income therefore develop the need to join financial institutions or groups aimed at managing or improving the finances.

Financial inclusion means that individuals and businesses have access to useful and affordable financial products and services that meet their needs, including; transactions, payments, savings, credit and insurance delivered in a responsible and sustainable way (World Bank, 2018).

Inclusive financial services mean that poor people can store and increase savings, cope with unexpected economic shocks, access social benefits more cheaply, and make investments in economic opportunities that can lead them out of poverty. Digital financial services provide low-income households with access to affordable and convenient tools that can help increase their economic opportunities. Digital financial services empower women to earn more and build assets. This greater financial power fuels gender equality and economic growth (UNSGSA, 2018).

Women or minority groups often face barriers to accessing financial services, an aspect of inequality that contributes to economic hardship. Financial inclusion with options like Mobile money can empower women economically by giving them more control over their finances, reducing the risk of their spouse confiscating their money and eliminating the insecurity associated with carrying cash (Mariana, 2019).

Major digital finance services accessed by women in Uganda include among others; payments, credit, savings, remittances, insurance. These services can be access through mobile money, agent banking. This is majorly done electronically (Kajumba, 2022).

We are witnessing critical momentum to achieve gender equality: 193 nations committed to ending gender inequality by 2030 through the Sustainable Development Goals, including SDG 5, which is focused on ending gender inequality. To capitalize on this momentum, we need evidence-based solutions that can catalyze women's mobility from poverty (Sarah, 2019). In a bid to create ways in which Uganda and other developing nations can achieve SDG 5, it is important to focus on strategies that advance more effective pathways to the achievement of the 2030 agenda. The study was conducted

in Masaka city, Uganda to seek evidence on how financial inclusion is linked to the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family.

Literature review

According to the Global Findex data, 47 percent of women and 55 percent of men worldwide have an account at a formal financial institution such as a bank, credit union, cooperative or microfinance institution. When it comes to the developing world, the gender gap grows larger 37 percent of women compared to 46 percent of men and it is larger still among adults living below the \$2-a-day poverty line, a group in which women are 28 percent less likely than men to have a formal account. This tends to affect their capacity to partake in the shared responsibility within the household and the family.

Globally, women have fewer economic opportunities compared to their male counterpart whereby less than half of all eligible women participate in the labour force, compared to 75 per cent of men. Women find themselves working in informal employment and in vulnerable, low-paid or undervalued jobs. The outbreak of COVID-19 crisis intensified the prevailing concerns as it caused unprecedented job losses, hitting women the hardest, further widening gender gaps. Women do not enjoy the same access to financial services as men. Even before the pandemic, fifty-six per cent of all those without a bank account were women meaning that nearly a billion women are unbanked. The tendency has been that Commercial banks often focus on men and formal businesses, neglecting the women who dominate the segment of the private sphere with less or no paid work (Organization, 2022).

It is reported that women's financial inclusion can upshot in better outcomes for their children, household nutrition, and the wider community. Thus, delivering cash transfers targeted to women digitally through mobile money improves dietary diversity compared to traditional cash delivery and girls living in poor households with female pension recipients demonstrated better nutrition than those with just male recipients (Duflo, 2003).

In Nepal, easily accessible, no-fee savings accounts are offered to female heads of households living in slums and resulted in an uptake of 84% of women opening an account, which boosted spending on education and nutritious foods. Compared to those without accounts, women also had increased health-related expenditures, enabling households to better respond to health emergencies (Prina, 2015). Mobile money has the potential to include last-mile populations, expand poor households' occupational choices and enable women to have greater mobility from poverty. In Kenya, the impact of the introduction of mobile money in moving households out of poverty was particularly pronounced for female headed households (Suri, 2016).

Inclusive finance can promote household wealth accumulation in different ways. For instance, it ensures household access to formal saving services can facilitate savings mobilization, which allows households to set aside present consumption for future rewards (Ashraf, 2010). Thus, promoting income transferring into savings enables households to earn compound interest and enhance their ability to make investments and accumulate assets that are liquid and durable in nature. Whether women work in the home or outside of it, whether they are employed or self-employed, financial inclusion provides them the tools for accumulating assets, generating income, managing financial risks, and fully participating in the economy (Organization, 2022).

Financial inclusion can heighten the ease of accessing credit, thereby fostering credit penetration, which allows hitherto excluded households to participate in the credit market, smooth their consumption, investing in durable assets and income generating activities (Iddrisu & Danquah, 2021). Therefore, providing individuals with insurance services can facilitate households' resilience to absorb peculiar

shocks. This can be met by purchasing health, life and property insurance.

It is hard for some individuals to distance themselves from borrowing money from time to time. This can be informed or influenced depending on the levels of demand that is to say one may want to invest in an education or business, or buy land or a home. People as well borrow to cover the cost of unexpected emergency expenses. Globally in 2014, less than half (42 percent) of all adults reported borrowing money in the past 12 months (excluding through the use of credit cards). In high-income OECD economies a financial institution is the most frequently reported source of new loans. In all other regions family and friends was the most common source of new loans (Demirguc-Kunt, 2013).

Overall in developing economies, three times as many adults borrowed from family or friends than borrowed from a financial institution. In several regions more people reported borrowing from a store (using installment credit or buying on credit) than reported borrowing from a financial institution. This practice is particularly common in the Middle East. The difference in outcome might be in part attributable to that fact that men and women worked in different sectors. Whereas credit cards are a payment instrument, they as well serve as a source of short-term credit, especially when credit card holders do not pay off their balance in full each statement cycle. Since credit cards might be used as a substitute for short-term loans used to meet unexpected or end of month expenses, their use might explain the seemingly low reported use of new credit in high-income countries. In 2014, 53 percent of adults in high-income OECD economies reported owning a credit card, as compared to only 10 percent in developing economies. Indeed, if adults who reported having used a credit card in the past 12 months are included with those who originated a new loan from a financial institution, the percentage of adults with a new formal loan in high-income OECD economies would increase by 35 percentage points. In developing economies, the percentage of adults with a new formal loan would increase by 6 percentage points (Demirguc-Kunt, 2013).

For us to ensure that there is financial inclusion of all genders and that there are reduced incidents of violence against women there is need of taking initiatives such as undertaking financial education that provides basic skills related to earning, spending, budgeting, borrowing, saving, and using other financial services such as insurance and money transfers. It is essential for increasing financial literacy and helps women to achieve better business results, better equality, and more empowerment (Organization, 2022).

Methodology

The research adopted a mixed methods approach. Wisdom and Creswell (2013), explain that a mixed methods approach advances the systematic integration of quantitative and qualitative data within a single investigation. The basic premise of the mixed methods methodology is that such integration permits a more complete and synergistic utilization of data compared to separate quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. The researcher used quantitative methods supplemented with qualitative aspects. This is because all the research objectives have quantitative and qualitative elements.

To come up with the sample size, the researcher used the Morgan and Krejcie (1970) table to select the number of respondents reached. According to Masaka city records (Production Office, 2022) there are about 450 women engaged in small business around the city. Therefore, using the Morgan and Krejcie (1970) table, a sample of 205 respondents was selected. Other key informants included staff of financial institutions to obtain more information about access to finance and other community leaders. The study used simple random sampling to select women engaged in small business who formed the respondents

included in the study. When selecting key informants who included women leaders in the areas, the researcher used purposive sampling.

The study was a survey conducted in Masaka city. To collect primary data, interviewing and administering of questionnaires were applied as tools used during interviews with respondents. These methods were chosen because they are anticipated to help the researcher achieve a higher degree of validity, reliability and reduce bias (Amin, 2005).

Through interviews and questionnaires the researcher was immensely assisted to collect first hand data from respondents. Documentary review and analysis helped to back up data from primary sources in order for the researcher to draw valid conclusions and recommendations regarding the problem under study. The researcher applied two instruments to collect the data as hereunder explained.

Content analysis was the main method of analyzing the qualitative data collected. Data collected was categorized according to emerging variables from each question in the interview guide. Content analysis was done based on the study objectives.

Data generated by questionnaires was cleaned, edited and coded before analysis was done; then analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program. Summary statistics in form of quantitative measures, frequencies and percentages were run and interpretations made. The Chi-Square statistic was used to assess whether a significant association exists between two variables by comparing the observed pattern of responses in the cells to the pattern that would be expected if the variables were truly independent of each other. The Nagelkerke R-squared in Logistic Regression Analysis measures the proportion of the total variation of the dependent variable can be explained by independent variables in the current model.

Demographic characteristics of respondents

All study respondents interviewed were women. The study purposed to include women engaged in small businesses. Their demographic characteristics are presented in the table below;

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Indicators	Categories	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)
Age groups	18-20 years	8	3.8
	21 - 30 years	83	39.5
	31 - 40 years	75	35.7
	41 - 50 years	32	15.2
	Over 50 years	12	5.7
	Total	210	100.0
Marital status	Divorced/separated	38	18.1
	Married	112	53.3
	Single	42	20.0
	Widowed	18	8.6
	Total	210	100.0
Education attainment	Ever attended school	8	3.8
	Have never attended school	202	96.2
	Total	210	100.0
	FAL (Functional Adult	26	12.4

	Literacy)		
	Primary	80	38.1
	Secondary	62	29.5
	Tertiary	42	20.0
	Total	210	100.0

The above table shows demographic characteristics of respondents basing on the indicators:

Stating with age groups, of the respondents; 8 (3.8%) were aged between 18 to 20 years, while 83(39.5%) of the respondents were aged between 21 to 30 years, 75 (35.7%) of the respondents were 31 to 40 years, 32 (15.2%) of the women respondents were aged between 41 to 50 years and lastly 12 (5.7%) of the respondents were aged over 50 years respectively. This implies that women respondents who provided data were old enough for the data to be trusted.

Looking at marital status, 38 (18.1%) of the respondents were divorced/ separated, 112 (53.3%) of the respondents were married, 42 (20%) of the respondents were single, 18 (8.6%) of the respondents were widowed.

Relating to education attainment, the study revealed that majority of the women respondents 202 (96.2%) have ever attended school, 8 (3.8%) of the women respondents have never attended school; Others 26 12.4% of the respondents attained FAL, 80 38.1% of the respondents attained education up to primary, 62 29.5% of the respondents attained education up to secondary and 42 20% of the respondents attained education up to tertiary level

Economic status of women included in the study

The table below shows economic status of women included in the study.

Table 2: Economic status of women included in the study

Indicators	Categories	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)
Employment status	In gainful employment	24	11.4
	Not in gainful employment	186	88.6
	Total	210	100.0
Main occupation	Crop farming	26	12.4
	Animal farming	8	3.8
	Fishing	2	1.0
	Retail business	72	34.3
	Petty business (e.g. Agric. produce stall)	82	39.0
	Other (specify)	20	9.5
	Total	210	100.0
Main source of income for sustenance	None	4	1.9
	Remittances (Pension, Gratuity, Donations)	2	1.0
	Causal Laborer	4	1.9
	Informal Job/ Employment	4	1.9
	Peasantry Farming	16	7.6

	Petty Business	156	74.3
	Formal Business	14	6.7
	Commercial Farming	8	3.8
	Formal Job/ Employment	2	1.0
	Total	210	100.0
Average monthly income (estimate)	1. Less than 100,000	90	42.9
	2. Between 100,000 and 200,000	96	45.7
	3. Between 200,000 and 500,000	22	10.5
	4. Between 500,000 and 1,000,000	2	1.0
	Total	210	100.0
Average monthly expenditure (estimate)	Less than 100,000	56	26.6
	Between 100,000 and 200,000	124	59.0
	Between 200,000 and 500,000	28	13.3
	Between 500,000 and 1,000,000	2	1.0
	Total	210	100.0

Starting with employment status, from findings 11.4% of the respondents were in gainful employment while 88.6% of the respondents reported not to be in gainful employment.

Looking at main occupation, 12.4% of the respondents do crop farming, 3.8% of the respondents' practice animal farming, 1% of the respondents is engaged in fishing, 34.3% of the respondents do retail business, 39% of the respondents do petty business and 9.5% of the respondents engage themselves in other occupations.

Talking about the main source of income for sustenance, 1.9% of the respondents stated none as their main source of income for sustenance, 1% of the respondents indicated that Remittance (pensions, Gratuity and Donations) as their main source of income for sustenance, Casual laborer and Informal job/ Employment stated their main source of income for sustenance as with a percentage of (1.9%), 7.6% of the respondents indicated that their main source of income for sustenance is from peasantry farming, 74.3% of respondents stated that they do petty business as their main source of income for sustenance, 6.7% of the respondents do formal business in order to gain main source of income for sustenance, 3.8% of the respondents engage in commercial farming in order to get income for sustenance and 1% of the respondents do formal job/ employment

Relating to the average monthly income (estimate); 42.9% of the respondents earn less than 100,000, 45.7% of the respondents earn between 100,000 and 200,000, 10.5% of the respondents earn between 200,000 and 500,000 and 1% of respondents earn between 500,000 and 1,000,000

The average monthly expenditure (estimate) under this; 26.6% of the respondents spend less than 100,000, 59% of the respondents spend between 100,000 and 200,000, 13.3% of the respondents spend between 200,000 and 500,000 and 1% of the respondents spend between 500,000 and 1,000,000.

Access to Financial services for women

Indicators relating to access to financial services for women are shown in the table below;

Table 3: Access to Financial services for women

Indicators	Categories	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)
Belong to a financial savings and/or lending group	Belong to any financial savings and/or lending group	140	66.7
	Do not belong to any financial savings and/or lending group	70	33.3
	Total	210	100.0
Possession of an account at a bank, or another type of formal financial institution	Have an account at a bank, or another type of formal financial institution	130	61.9
	Do not have an account at a bank, or another type of formal financial institution	80	38.1
	Total	210	100.0
Activity status of the bank account	Have had money deposited into their personal account(s) in the past 12 months	124	95.4
	Have not had any money deposited into their personal account(s) in the past 12 months	6	4.6
	Total	130	100.0
Savings	Have personally, saved or set aside some money for any reason	146	69.5
	Have not personally, saved or set aside some money for any reason	64	30.5
	Total	210	100.0
Loans	Have a loan they took from a bank or another type of formal financial institution	130	61.9
	Do not have any loans they took from a bank or another type of formal financial institution	80	38.1
	Total	210	100.0

The table above shows indicators related to access to financial services for women, results show that 66.7% of the respondents belong to a financial savings and/or lending group and 33.3% of the respondents do not belong to any financial savings and /or lending group.

Relating to the possession of an account at a bank, or another type of formal financial institution, in this indicator, 61.9% of the respondents have an account at a bank, or another type of formal financial institution and 38.1% of the respondents do not have an account at a bank, or another type of formal institution.

Activity status of the bank account categorized into two indicates that 95.4% of the respondents have had money deposited into their personal account(s) in the past 12 months and 4.6% of the respondents

have not had any money deposited into their personal account(s) in the past 12 months.

Stating the savings indicator; results indicated, 69.5% of the respondents have personally, saved or set aside some money for any reason and 30.5% of the respondents have not personally, saved or set aside some money for any reason.

Lastly loans as an indicator categorized into two; 61.9% of the respondents have a loan they took from a bank or another type of formal financial institution and 38.1% of the respondents do not have any loans they took from a bank or another type of formal financial institution.

Promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family

Indicators relating to promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family are shown in the table below;

Table 4: Shared responsibility within the household and the family

Indicators	Categories	Number of respondents	Percentage (%)
Sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household	No sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household	60	28.6
	There is sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household	150	71.4
	Total	210	100.0
Joint decision making on important issues in the home	The woman and man do not jointly make decisions on important issues in the home	76	36.2
	The woman and man jointly make decisions on important issues in the home	134	63.8
	Total	210	100.0
Type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband	Rising of livestock	52	24.8
	Selling of crops	70	33.3
	Purchase of agro-inputs	8	3.8
	Crops to grow or how to use land	12	5.7
	Non-farm business	26	12.4
	Major and minor expenditures	34	16.2
	Family planning and childcare	38	18.1
	Others	4	1.9
Total number of respondents	210	100.0	
Perception of respondents on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making	Agree that women should participate in making and influencing community decision making	194	92.4
	Do not agree that women should participate in making and influencing community decision making	16	7.6
	Total	210	100.0

The table above shows shared responsibility within the household and the family. The findings established that 71.4% of the respondents indicated that there is sharing of roles between the man and

woman in the household and 6% of the respondents indicated that there is no sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household.

Relating to the findings on joint decision making on important issues in the home, 63.8% of the respondents indicated that the woman and man jointly make decisions on important issues in the household and 2% of respondents indicated that the woman and man do not jointly make decisions on important issues in the household,.

Furthermore, respondents were asked about the type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband; 24.8% of the respondents indicated rising of the livestock, 33.3% of the respondents indicated selling of crops, 3.8% of the respondents indicated purchase of agro-inputs, 5.7% of the respondents indicated crops to grow or how to use land, 12.4% of the respondents indicated to do non-farm business, 16.2% of the respondents indicated major and minor expenditures they spend, 18.1% of respondents indicated family planning and childcare and 1.9% of the respondents indicated others factors.

The findings also established that 92.4% of respondents agree that women should participate in making and influencing community decision making and 7.6% of the respondents indicated that they do not agree.

Examining the contribution of financial inclusion in the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family

Table 5: Correlations: Indicators for promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family

Indicators for promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family		Correlations and Chi-square	Financial inclusion
Sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household		Pearson Correlation	.045
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.519
		N	210
Joint decision making on important issues in the home		Pearson Correlation	.224**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
		N	210
Type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband	Rising of livestock	Pearson Correlation	-.090
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.316
		N	126
	Sell of crops	Pearson Correlation	.275**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
		N	126
	Purchase of agro-inputs	Pearson Correlation	.160
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.073
		N	126
	Crops to grow or how to use land	Pearson Correlation	-.181*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.042
		N	126
Non-farm business	Pearson Correlation	-.193*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	

		N	126
	Major and minor expenditures	Pearson Correlation	.080
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.373
		N	126
	Family planning and childcare	Pearson Correlation	-.124
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.167
		N	126
	Others	Pearson Correlation	.111
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.215
		N	126
Perception of respondents on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making		Pearson Correlation	.178**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.010
		N	210

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results indicate that there is a significant relationship (p -value < 0.005), between financial inclusion and some indicators of promoting of shared responsibility within the household and the family, these include; Joint decision making on important issues in the home ($p=0.001$), the type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband, specifically on the sale of crops ($p=0.002$), crops to grow or how to use land ($p=0.042$), and non-farm business($p=0.030$); financial inclusion also has a significant relationship with the perception of respondents on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making ($p=0.010$). Other indicators of promoting of shared responsibility within the household and the family did not display any significant relationships (p -value > 0.005), these include; sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household ($p=0.519$) and some of the type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband, specifically on purchase of agro-inputs ($p=0.073$), major and minor expenditures ($p=0.373$), Family planning and childcare ($p=0.167$), and Others ($p=0.215$).

Table 6: Binary logistic regression: Financial inclusion and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family

Variables in the Equation		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1 ^a	Sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household (1)	-.538	.405	1.764	1	.184	.584
	Joint decision making on important issues in the home (1)	1.215	.374	10.531	1	.001	3.371
	Perception of respondents on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making (1)	-1.254	.551	5.173	1	.023	.285
	Constant	.131	.547	.058	1	.810	1.141

Findings from analyses using binary logistic regression on financial inclusion and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family show that there are significant relationships (p-value <0.005), between financial inclusion and these indicators; Joint decision making on important issues in the home (p=0.001) and the perception of respondents on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making (p=0.023). Sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household did not show any significant relationships (p-value <0.005).

Table 7: Model Summary: Financial inclusion and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	249.927 ^a	.080	.110

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

The Nagelkerke R-squared = 0.11, this implies that 11% of the variations in financial inclusion can be explained by the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family.

Summary

There is a significant relationship (p-value <0.005), between financial inclusion and some indicators of promoting of shared responsibility within the household and the family, these include; Joint decision making on important issues in the home (p=0.001), the type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband, specifically on the sale of crops (p=0.002), crops to grow or how to use land (p=0.042), and non-farm business(p=0.030); financial inclusion also has a significant relationship with the perception of respondents on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making (p=0.010). Other indicators of promoting of shared responsibility within the household and the family did not display any significant relationships (p-value >0.005), these include; sharing of roles between the man and woman in the household (p=0.519) and some of the type of decisions they jointly make between the wife and husband, specifically on purchase of agro-inputs (p=0.073), major and minor expenditures (p=0.373), Family planning and childcare (p=0.167), and Others (p=0.215).

Conclusions

A significant proportion of women are still left out of the financial system; the study has shown that 33.3 percent of the respondents do not belong to any financial savings and /or lending group. This means that 1/3 of women are not part of any financial set up yet many of them participate in business.

With the study results, it is clear that financial inclusion can promote sharing responsibility within the household and the family. It is important for partners to make joint decision making on important issues in the home, decisions such as the sale of crops, crops to grow or how to use land, and non-farm business. It is also very clear that financial inclusion also has a significant relationship on the perception of individuals on whether women should participate in making and influencing community decision making. All these can be improved with an increase in financial inclusion.

Recommendations

Recommendations include the following;

- Policy makers should encourage financial inclusion for women as a way to promote, protect and fulfill the human rights of women and girls. Therefore, there should be efforts to develop policies

and programmes to promote financial inclusion for women and girls as a means of empowering and protecting them and achieving gender equality in society.

- There is need to foster a diversity of financial institutions. There is need for policies that promote a healthy, competitive environment and level playing field across all service providers to ensure that women of all types are supported.
- Through support for women in savings and/or lending groups, programmes to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger can also be designed specifically to promote women's economic participation, independence and incorporate linkages to other programmes.
- It is important to involve men and boys so as to avoid the backlash that can come with a single-sided empowered programme for women and girls.
- There is need Facilitate the use of innovative technologies and entry of technology-driven, non-traditional institutions that can enable all women in rural areas such as Masaka. There is need to improve the operating environment which includes a regulatory framework to allow for new technologies and players, while also addressing the risks that arise from the innovations through monitoring, evaluation and learning.
- Legislators should amend old or adopt new legislation to address impediments towards access to financial resources in line with international best practice standards and national commitments.
- For women engaged in small businesses, there is need to expand agent-based banking and other cost-effective delivery channels that enable the low-income earners to be financially included. Such approaches can cost-effectively expand the physical presence of financial service providers while providing meaningful benefits to those reached, especially women.

References:

1. Ashraf, N. . (2010). Female empowerment: further evidence from a commitment savings product in the Philippines.
2. Asli Demirguc-Kunt, L. K. (2013). Financial Inclusion and Legal Discrimination Against Women.
3. Duflo, E. (2003). Grandmothers and Granddaughters: Old-age pensions and Intra-household allocation in South Africa.
4. Kajumba Mary 2022. Will Digital financing improve inclusivity and livelihoods for women in Uganda? Mary Kajumba, EPRC Uganda, 29th June 2022
5. Mariana Lopez, 2019. Harnessing the Power of Mobile Money to Achieve the Sustainable Development Goal; GSMA, 2019
6. OECD Library 2022. How can promoting shared responsibility within the household address women's unpaid care work? Accessed on 17/10/2022 from: <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/fe9b8510-en/index.html?itemId=/content/component/fe9b8510-en>
7. Organization, I. L. (2022). Gender and financial inclusion. Retrieved 09 29, 2022, from International Labour Organization: https://www.ilo.org/empent/areas/social-finance/WCMS_737729/lang--en/index.htm
8. Oxfam (2018), Infrastructure and equipment for unpaid care work: Household survey findings from the Philippines, Uganda and Zimbabwe, Oxfam GB, <https://policy->

practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/infrastructure-and-equipment-for-unpaid-care-work-household-survey-findings-fro-620431.

9. Prina, S. (2015). Banking the poor via savings accounts: evidence from a field experiment. *Journal of Development Economics*.
10. Sarah Hendriks 2019. The role of financial inclusion in driving women's economic empowerment. Accessed on 12/02/2022 from: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/09614524.2019.1660308> Published online: 05 Nov 2019
11. Suri, T. a. (2016). The long-run poverty and gender impacts of mobile money.
12. UNSGSA, 2018: Igniting SDG progress through digital financial inclusion. UN Secretary-General's Special Advocate for Inclusive Finance for Development.. September 2018
13. World Bank 2018: Financial Inclusion; Financial inclusion is a key enabler to reducing poverty and boosting prosperity. Accessed on 23/01/2022 from: <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/financialinclusion/overview#1>. Last Updated: Oct 02, 2018