

THE EFFECT OF FAMILY SUPPORT AND SELF-EFFICACY ON HOUSEWIVES' ENTREPRENEURIAL INTEREST THROUGH TRAINING ACCESS IN DEPOK CITY

Andreas Satya Pratama Kurniawan¹, Osly Usman²

¹⁻²*Faculty Economic and Business, Universitas Negeri Jakarta.*

Email: Kurn.atje@gmail.com¹, Oslyusman@unj.ac.id²

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Abstract

This research examines how family support and self-efficacy influence the entrepreneurial aspirations of housewives in Depok City, where access to training is a mediating variable. Employing quantitative explanatory survey methodology with Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) through SmartPLS, stratified random sampling within five sub-districts was employed with 100 respondents. Results indicate that family support significantly influences training access ($\beta = 0.339$, $p < 0.01$), while self-efficacy significantly affects both training access ($\beta = 0.510$, $p < 0.01$) and entrepreneurial interest ($\beta = 0.390$, $p < 0.01$). The strongest predictor of entrepreneurial interest was training access ($\beta = 0.486$, $p < 0.01$). Family support has no direct impact on entrepreneurial interest, but it is fully mediated through training access ($\beta = 0.164$, $p < 0.05$). Self-efficacy partially mediates through training access ($\beta = 0.248$, $p < 0.01$). This model accounts for 34.4% and 55.9% of variance in entrepreneurial interest and training access respectively. The following findings emphasize that self-efficacy and training access are significant determinants of entrepreneurial interest, whereas family support works through some indirect mechanism. Policy considerations highlight the demand for flexible and accessible training and self-efficacy development programs aimed at housewives in the urban Indonesian context.

1. INTRODUCTION

The interest of entrepreneurial among housewives has increased prominently in recent years. From the total population of 2.2 million, it is estimated that about 547,000 housewives are capable of becoming Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSME) entrepreneurs (Depok City Statistical Agency [BPS], 2025), representing a tremendous economic potential, which has not been fully developed. Women contribute to the family economy and the wider welfare of the community and are a significant driver of regional economic progress, indicating the significance of the need to find out and develop women's entrepreneurial motivation (Anggadwita & Dhewanto, 2016). As one of Jakarta's various satellite cities, Depok City has unique features that give it an edge: strong population mobility, decent infrastructure access, and proximity to the national economic center. With its strategic positioning, there are abundant opportunities for housewives to open businesses both in the household and online. But entrepreneurial motivation does not happen at will, and it depends on a strong set of catalysts, especially psychological and social enablers. A number of psychological and social variables, especially family support and self-efficacy, have been recognized as critical factors for encouraging entrepreneurial interest (Bandura, 1997). A supportive family structure is emotionally and practically motivating for housewives to take up more entrepreneurial initiatives. These support functions can consist of help with household chores, start-up funds, or even just encouragement and stimulation to begin entrepreneurship (House, 1981). Self-efficacy (or a person's capacity to effectively engage in business

activities) is the internal determinant that impacts risk-taking attitude, perseverance to overcome problems, and optimism about the possibility of a successful outcome of the entrepreneurial efforts (Bandura, 1997). There is, however, an empirical divide between what theory predicts and what housewives actually experience on the ground. Literature indicates that women's "double burden," to support their family responsibilities and to pursue entrepreneurial ambitions, can cause increased feelings of isolation and reduced engagement in entrepreneurial endeavors, such as training programs (Brush et al., 2019; Knowlton et al., 2015). A systematic examination of constraints that women experience in developing countries indicates these barriers include gender discrimination, work/home conflict, lack of resource access, lack of suitability of training, and personality differences (Panda, 2018). Content analysis of the entrepreneurial training platforms and participant reviews related to this task show a perception gap between the suggested support in the training programs and practice: up to 32% of this research's participants stated they found the content to be either only partially relevant to their experiences on the job, in this case, in that they had the double workload of caring for the family and wanting to get into business. This is also in line with the Indonesian context, where women often face a lack of access to training programs and are exposed to constraining aspects such as family life, religious ideology, and culture based on discrimination (Anggadwita & Dhewanto, 2016; Oktari, 2021). Existing programs typically neglect to take into consideration different family dynamics, time constraints, and role conflicts that are specific to women entrepreneurs, including the persisting structural and societal barriers brought by the dual responsibility of balancing the business with managing family life (Elam et al., 2021; Somià, 2023). Redressing these gender blind spots in entrepreneurship training is, therefore, a prerequisite to creating meaningful programs that are responsive to women entrepreneurs (Knowlton et al., 2015). This is where entrepreneurial coaching comes in. Training not only serves as a tool for the transfer of useful knowledge but also as a platform for establishing networks, acquiring real abilities, and enhancing self-belief (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008). Online learning has greatly broadened access to training in the digital age and that has allowed housewives to take a flexible approach to learning in a way that ensures the fulfillment of domestic roles. Three key factors help make this research important. First, although many studies have focused on general aspects of entrepreneurial interest, research specifically about family support, self-efficacy, and training access in the context of urban Indonesian housewives is limited. Second, Depok City is special in that it is a unique context and many of its housewives are not much studied. Third, this model of mediation used in this study also offers theoretical contribution to the development of models of entrepreneurship. This study provides seven research questions based on the above findings: (1) Does family support impact access to training? (2) Does family support influence entrepreneurial interest? (3) Does self-efficacy affect access to training? (4) Does self-efficacy affect entrepreneurial interest? (5) Does training access influence entrepreneurial interest? (6) Does training access mediate the connection between family support and entrepreneurial interest? (7) Does training access mediate the connection between self-efficacy and entrepreneurial interest? Accordingly, seven hypotheses are proposed: H_1 – H_5 test the direct effects of family support, self-efficacy, and training access; H_6 – H_7 test the mediating role of training access.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical and Conceptual Background

2.1.1 Entrepreneurial Interest

Entrepreneurial interest is a cognitive process that underlies an individual's decision to initiate and develop a new business (Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior describes entrepreneurial interest as a manifestation of intention a direct predictor of actual entrepreneurial behavior. Krueger (2000) further nuanced this perspective, explaining how individual traits (knowledge, personality, and self-belief) interact with the social environment (family support, social norms, available opportunities) of the individual. In the context of Indonesian housewives, entrepreneurial interest is uniquely motivated not only by economic factors, but also by desires for self-development, financial independence, and contribution to family welfare (Poerwandari & Welianti, 2018).

2.1.2 Family Support

Family support is one of the basic kinds of social support in a single person's life. House (1981) describes it as interpersonal exchanges of emotional concern, instrumental assistance, information, and appraisal from their family members. In entrepreneurship research, family support includes emotional support (encouragement, empathy), instrumental support (financial capital, household assistance), informational support (business advice, market knowledge), and appraisal support (constructive feedback, recognition). In Indonesia's collectivist culture, family support is especially important since entrepreneurship choices made by housewives are bound to rely on family, in particular, the acceptance and support of spouses and children (Poerwandari & Welianti, 2018). Research by Hsu et al. (2021) found that supportive family influences entrepreneurial interest positively in terms of lower risks, higher self-confidence, provision of resources, support in reducing conflict of roles.

2.1.3 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy, developed by Albert Bandura within the context of the Social Cognitive Theory, is the belief that is based on the ability of an individual to organize and execute the actions that result in a specific outcome (Bandura, 1997). In entrepreneurship, this develops into entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) belief in one's ability to succeed in entrepreneurial tasks and roles. Bandura (1997) identifies four primary sources of influence: mastery

experiences (successes from the past), vicarious experiences (observing others who are similar), social persuasion (encouragement through verbal means), and physiological states (both physical and emotional conditions). For housewives, ESE encompasses unique dimensions including time management, dual-role management, marketing efficacy, financial efficacy, innovation efficacy, and managerial efficacy (Ghozali et al., 2023).

2.1.4 Training Access

Training access refers to the ease with which individuals can obtain the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to start and develop businesses through structured training programs (Welianti, 2020). Fayolle & Gailly (2008) define entrepreneurial training as learning activities designed to develop entrepreneurial competencies, including business knowledge, practical skills, and supportive mental attitudes. Access to training is assessed in this study on three levels: availability (existence and variety of training programs), accessibility (affordability, geographic reach, schedule flexibility) and quality (instructor competence, content relevance, practical applicability). In the digital era, online platforms have increased accessibility to housewives experiencing limited time and mobility (Widiyanto et al., 2024).

2.1.5 Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Justification

Thus, this study synthesizes the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997), and Social Support Theory (House, 1981) into a cohesive theoretical framework. The model posits that: (1) Family Support (X_1) → Training Access (Z) and Entrepreneurial Interest (Y); (2) Self-Efficacy (X_2) → Training Access (Z) and Entrepreneurial Interest (Y); (3) Training Access (Z) → Entrepreneurial Interest (Y); and (4) Training Access mediates both $X_1 \rightarrow Y$ and $X_2 \rightarrow Y$ relationships. Jaelani & Raharjo (2023) who discovered that training access can serve as a mediating variable by either amplifying (enhancing effect) or compensating (compensatory effect) for psychosocial factors influencing entrepreneurial interest suggests that training access may indeed mediate effect.

2.2 Empirical Review and Hypotheses

Table 2.1 Summary of Prior Studies and Measurement Justification

No.	Researcher & Year	Key Variables	Measurement Items/Indicators
1	Bandura (1997)	Self-efficacy, sources, behavioral impact	Mastery experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, physiological state → adopted as four sources of self-efficacy (X_2) measurement in this study
2	Hsu et al. (2021)	Family support, women's entrepreneurial intention	Emotional support, instrumental support, informational support, appraisal support (House, 1981) → four dimensions adopted as family support (X_1) measurement indicators
3	Jaelani & Raharjo (2023)	Training access, family environment, entrepreneurial intention	Availability, accessibility, and quality of training → three dimensions adopted as training access (Z) measurement indicators
4	Ghozali et al. (2023)	Self-efficacy, entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial intention	ESE dimensions: marketing, innovation, management, finance, risk-taking, and dual-role management → inform entrepreneurial interest (Y) measurement items
5	This Study (2026)	Family support (X_1), self-efficacy (X_2), training access (Z, mediator), entrepreneurial interest (Y)	17 indicators across 4 constructs on a 5-point Likert scale; PLS-SEM analysis via SmartPLS 3; integrates House (1981), Bandura (1997), Ajzen (1991), and Fayolle & Gailly (2008)

Source: Compiled from cited sources

From the literature, seven hypotheses are created:

- H1: Family support has optimistic thinking and significant impact on training access.
- H2: Family support has optimistic thinking and significant impact on entrepreneurial interest.
- H3: Self-efficacy has optimistic thinking and significant impact on training access.
- H4: Self-efficacy has optimistic thinking and significant impact on entrepreneurial interest.
- H5: Training access has optimistic thinking and significant impact on entrepreneurial interest.

- H₆: Training access mediates the impact of family support on entrepreneurial interest.
- H₇: Training access mediates the impact of self-efficacy on entrepreneurial interest.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research used a quantitative explanatory survey design, chosen for its ability to establish systematic and objective causal relationships among pre-defined variables (Creswell, 2014). A cross-sectional design was employed, with data collected in April 2026. The population consists of all housewives in Depok City, West Java, Indonesia. The estimated population is 547,000 (BPS Depok City, 2025). The samples of 100 subjects calculated by Slovin's method ($n = N/(1+Ne^2)$, $e = 10\%$), verified against Hair et al.'s (2017) PLS-SEM minimum constraint of $10 \times$ maximum number of structural paths to a certain construct. Method Stratified random sampling was applied on five sub-districts, corresponding to Depok's geographic diversity (north, south, east, west, and center; 20 respondents per sub-district). There were four variables research operationalized using 5 points likert scale: Family Support (X₁ - 5 items measuring emotional, instrumental and informational support), Self-Efficacy (X₂ - 5 items measuring business capability confidence, obstacle management belief and dual-role management), Training Access (Z - 4 items measuring availability and quality of training) and Entrepreneurial Interest (Y - 3 items measuring conative intent and affective commitment). The tool validity and reliability were verified by outer model testing on the 100 respondents' primary dataset, using outer loading > 0.7 , AVE > 0.5 , Cronbach's Alpha > 0.6 , and Composite Reliability > 0.7 (Hair et al., 2017). Analysis of data was performed by use Partial Least Square - Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) the name application use is SmartPLS version 3, owing its suitability with complex mediation models, robustness to non-normal distributions, and its robustness when working with moderate sample sizes. Analysis took place there are two steps: (1) An Outer Loading evaluation assessing convergent of validity (AVE, outer loading), divergent validity (Fornell-Larcker Criterion), reliability (CR, Cronbach's Alpha), and collinearity (VIF). (2) Inner Model evaluation testing path coefficients, coefficient of determination (R²), and hypothesis significance via bootstrapping (5,000 sub-samples, $\alpha = 5\%$, $t > 1.96$).

The conceptual model of the study is presented in Figure 1.

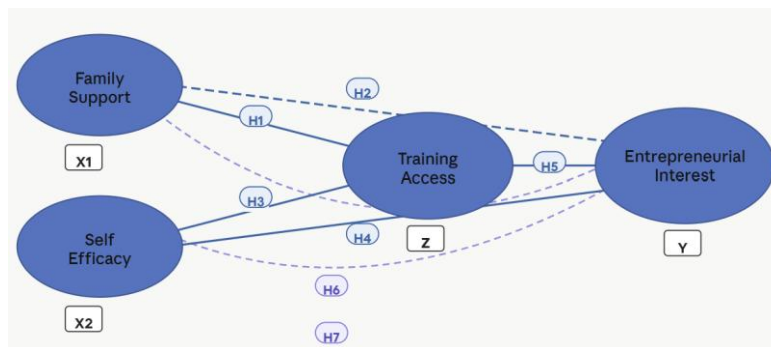


Figure 1. Conceptual Model of the Study

Legend: —→ Direct Effect - - - -> Mediation Path (via Z)

Source: Author (2026). Solid arrows (→) represent direct effects; dashed notation indicates mediation paths through Training Access (Z). H₂ was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

4. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Outcome

4.1.1 Characteristics of The Respondent

The primary data were obtained by using structured questionnaires to 100 housewife participants in Depok City, with a 100% response rate. Tables 4.1 through 4.3 present the respondent profile by age, education level, and prior entrepreneurial experience.

Table 4.1 Respondent Distribution by the Age Group

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
22–30 years	9	9%
31–40 years	33	33%
41–50 years	23	23%
> 50 years	35	35%
Total	100	100%

Source: Primary Data (2026)

Table 4.1 shows that the majority of respondents (91%) are aged 31 and above, reflecting mature adults with substantial domestic responsibilities.

Table 4.2 Respondent Distribution by Education Level

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
Elementary (SD)	2	2%
Junior High (SMP)	3	3%
Senior High (SMA)	30	30%
Diploma-3	14	14%
Bachelor's (S1)	51	51%
Total	100	100%

Source: Primary Data (2026)

As shown in Table 4.2, over half respondents (51%) hold a bachelor's degree, indicating strong educational capital that may facilitate training absorption and self-efficacy development.

Table 4.3 Respondent Distribution by Prior Entrepreneurial Experience

Prior Entrepreneurial Experience	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	74	74%
No	26	26%
Total	100	100%

Source: Primary Data (2026)

Table 4.3 indicates that 74% of respondents have prior entrepreneurial experience, suggesting that their entrepreneurial interest is grounded in practical context rather than purely aspirational.

4.1.2 Measurement Outer Loading Evaluation (Outer Loading)

The convergent validity was considered through outer loadings and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). All indicators achieved outer loading have values above 0.70, with lowest being X1.1 (0.754) and the highest Y1.2 (0.950). Table 4.4 presents the AVE, Cronbach's Alpha, **Composite Reliability for all construction**

Table 4.4 Convergent Validity and Reliability Results

Variable	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
X ₁ – Family Support	0.721	0.902	0.928
X ₂ – Self-Efficacy	0.745	0.914	0.936
Z – Training Access	0.801	0.917	0.941
Y – Entrepreneurial Interest	0.859	0.917	0.948

Source: Primary Data Processed with SmartPLS 3 (2026)

As seen in table 4.4, all AVE exceeded values the 0.50 threshold, and all Cronbach's Alpha and CR values surpassed 0.90 well above minimum thresholds (Hair et al., 2017). Discriminant validity was confirmed using the Fornell-Larcker criterion (e.g., $\sqrt{AVE}$ for X₁ = 0.849 > maximum cross correlation = 0.577). VIF values ranged from 1.00 to 4.475, all below 5.00. Model fit yielded SRMR = 0.068 (< 0.08) and NFI = 0.805 (> 0.80), both indicating acceptable model fit.

4.1.3 Structural Evaluation Model and Hypothesis Testing

The determination of coefficient (R²) for Training Access was 0.559, indicating that Family Support and Self-Efficacy together explain 55.9% of variance in training access. For Entrepreneurial Interest, R² = 0.344, indicating moderate explanatory power (Chin, 1998). Table 4.5 presents the complete hypothesis testing results derived from bootstrapping with 5,000 sub-samples.

Table 4.5 Hypothesis Testing Results (PLS-SEM Bootstrapping)

Hyp.	Path	β Coeff.	t-Stat	p-Value	Decision
H ₁	X ₁ → Z (Training Access)	0.339	3.45	< 0.01	Accepted
H ₂	X ₁ → Y (Entrepreneurial Interest)	0.154	1.52	> 0.05	Rejected
H ₃	X ₂ → Z (Training Access)	0.510	5.18	< 0.01	Accepted
H ₄	X ₂ → Y (Entrepreneurial Interest)	0.390	3.92	< 0.01	Accepted
H ₅	Z → Y (Entrepreneurial Interest)	0.486	4.95	< 0.01	Accepted
H ₆	X ₁ → Z → Y (Indirect/Mediation)	0.164	2.32	< 0.05	Accepted
H ₇	X ₂ → Z → Y (Indirect/Mediation)	0.248	2.69	< 0.01	Accepted

Source: Primary Data Processed with SmartPLS 3 (2026). Highlighted row (H₂) indicates rejected hypothesis.

4.2 Discussion

H₁ Accepted – Family Support → Training Access ($\beta = 0.339$, $p < 0.01$).

Training access is largely facilitated by support from family. In line with House's (1981) social support theory, family support for example, instrumentation supporters in the form of time allocation, support of financial, and domestic management removes the key obstacles that keep housewives from participating in training programs. This finding is in the direction as put forward by Jaelani & Raharjo (2023) who reported similar results among vocational student cohorts. The moderate coefficient (0.339) suggests that, while important, family support is one of several determinants of training access, structural factors such as program availability and affordability also play critical function.

H₂ Rejected – Family Support $\nrightarrow$ Entrepreneurial Interest ($\beta = 0.154$, $p > 0.05$).

Contrary to Hsu et al. (2021), family support was not directly related to entrepreneurial interest in this sample. For educated, experienced urban housewives, internal factors like self-efficacy and accessible training appear to be more salient determinants of entrepreneurial interest than external family encouragement alone. The rejection of H₂ further aligned with Ajzen's (1991) about Theory of Planned Behavior that describes how entrepreneurial intention is influenced not only by subjective norms (i.e. family support), but also by attitudes regard as behavioral control (i.e. self-efficacy). The full mediation finding (H₆) also further highlights that family support only interacts with entrepreneurial interest by the training access pathway, suggesting that family support's effect acts as a 'gateway' to action only when matched with specific opportunities for learning.

H₃ Accepted – Self-Efficacy → Training Access ($\beta = 0.510$, $p < 0.01$).

Self-efficacy was the best predictor of access through training with the maximum path coefficient in the model. This is consistent with Bandura's (1997) Social Cognitive Theory: individuals with high self-efficacy tend to take advantage of learning opportunities. Housewives that perceive themselves as capable of running an entrepreneurial business see training as a great investment rather than a burden, they are more willing to navigate practical barriers, such as cost, scheduling conflicts, or fear of inadequacy.

H₄ Accepted – Self-Efficacy → Entrepreneurial Interest ($\beta = 0.390$, $p < 0.01$).

Self-efficacy significantly and positively influences entrepreneurial interest, corroborating Bandura (1997) and Ghazali et al. (2023). For urban housewives holding dual roles, self-efficacy includes confidence not only in business competencies (marketing, finance, management) but also in balancing domestic and entrepreneurial responsibilities. With a coefficient of 0.390, self-efficacy stands as the second strongest direct predictor of entrepreneurial interest, reinforcing the role of internal conviction as a catalyst for entrepreneurial motivation.

H₅ Accepted – Training Access → Entrepreneurial Interest ($\beta = 0.486$, $p < 0.01$).

Training access was the strongest direct predictor of entrepreneurial interest. When housewives have easy access to programmes that are available, affordable, and qualitatively relevant, they acquire the knowledge, practical skills, and networks necessary to move aspirations into concrete intentions. This supports Fayolle & Gailly (2008), who found that quality relevant training conveys not only technical competence but also reduces the uncertainty and fear of failure that tends to weigh down housewives' enthusiasm for entrepreneurial action. This is especially true

for Indonesian housewives who, as Anggadwita & Dhewanto (2016) observe, often lack access to structured business guidance.

H₆ Accepted – Full Mediation: Family Support → Training Access → Interest in entrepreneurship ($\beta = 0.164$, $p < 0.05$).

Training access fully mediates the relationship between family support and Interest in entrepreneurship, meaning support from family influences entrepreneurial interest exclusively through its facilitation of training access. In the urban Indonesian context, family support functions primarily as a structural enabler unlocking time, resources, and permission for housewives to attend training rather than as a direct psychological stimulus for entrepreneurial aspiration. This finding extends Hsu et al. (2021) and is consistent with Panda's (2018) observation that overcoming structural barriers requires more than social encouragement alone; concrete access to learning resources is the critical bridge.

H₇ Accepted – Partial Mediation: Self-Efficacy → Training Access → Interest in entrepreneurship ($\beta = 0.248$, $p < 0.01$).

The mediating of role training access in the self-efficacy entrepreneurial interest relationship contributes to the significant direct effect (H₄). The dual pathway corroborates that self-efficacy both influences entrepreneurial interest inherently (through belief and motivation) and instrumentally (through proactive training seeking behavior). The mediating role ($\beta = 0.248$) affirms training access as a transmission channel that converts high self-belief into concrete entrepreneurial motivation through mastery experiences, vicarious learning, and social persuasion within training contexts (Bandura, 1997) also supported by Ghozali et al.'s (2023) mediation findings in the Indonesian educational context.

5. CONCLUSION

This study is investigated about the entrepreneurial interest predictors of the housewives in Depok City using an integrated model with family support, self-efficacy and training access. The hypotheses were: positive, six out of seven, and four important findings are presented. For one, self-efficacy is the dominant independent variable responsible for training access ($\beta = 0.510$) and second the most direct predictor of entrepreneurial interest ($\beta = 0.390$), emphasizing that internal psychological capital is a significant factor for women's entrepreneurship development. Second, training access demonstrates the best direct predictor of entrepreneurial interest ($\beta = 0.486$), indicating that structured, relevant and accessible learning programs are core catalysts for stimulating entrepreneurial motivation among housewives. Third, family support, to be sure, facilitates training access ($\beta = 0.339$), but does not directly lead to entrepreneurial interest, since the effect is fully mediated via training access, suggesting that family support operates as a structural enabler, rather than an immediate psychological motivator. Fourth, training access is a partial mediator between self-efficacy and entrepreneurial interest and full mediator between family support and entrepreneurial interest. In a theoretical sense, this study presents an integrated multi-theory framework and puts the Planned Behavior Theory, Social Cognitive Theory and Social Support Theory within the context of Indonesia's collectivist culture (Anggadwita & Dhewanto, 2016; Panda, 2018) a lacuna in the literature about women entrepreneurship for urban Indonesian settings. In practice, three involved groups play a unique role. Policymakers especially Depok City government and Dinas Koperasi dan UMKM need to focus more on providing subsidies to flexible, digital resources for learning and training programs and awareness campaigns that help inform families of their influence over training involvement. Programmes for training providers should design content that specifically combines modules on building self-efficacy (mastery experiences through simulated projects, role modeling through housewife entrepreneurs who excel in their chosen job, mentoring through their peers) and technical business content designed for the realities of dual role life. As for housewives themselves, the findings highlight the importance of communicating entrepreneurial aspirations to family members and actively pursuing opportunities for training whether via formal education or through digital channels as the crucial route to transforming self-belief into entrepreneurial behaviour. In terms of limitations, the cross-sectional design limited a causal inference, and samples are limited of the Depok City that limits the generalizability. Future studies can: (1) use longitudinal designs in order to follow evolution of self-efficacy and access to training over time and the dynamic effects on entrepreneurial behaviour; (2) extend the study to the modeling of personality traits (risk tolerance, internal locus of control); economic variables (household income and access to microfinance and technology adoption); (3) compare urban and rural patterns as well as compare studies for cross national comparison (for instance, one of collectivist society, Malaysia, Philippines) should be used to test cultural boundary conditions of the model; (4) use mixed methods with mixed data collection (i.e., questionnaires and in depth interviews) (to get a detailed understanding of life experiences of housewife dealing with dual role problems); and (5) assess the effectiveness of interventions in the context of self-efficacy-focused training curriculum in comparison with traditional skill-based programmes, with an experimental or quasi experimental design.

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