CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A review of previous studies arms the researcher with a comprehensive knowledge of the concepts used in the earlier studies and enables him to adopt, modify, formulate an improvise the conceptual framework for the present study and draw meaningful conclusions. In this chapter, a review of the literature regarding the past research study is given.

2.2 REVIEW OF RESEARCH ABROAD

Alexander, A.P., (1960) in his study entitled, ‘Industrial Entrepreneurship in Turkey: Origin and Growth’ noted that the reforms introduced by Kernal Atatturk withdrew prestige and status of some groups of people in Greek society. These groups were attracted to new opportunities. The causes of the low success status of Greek entrepreneurs were high cost of production, excisable concern
about maximization of immediate profit, reluctance to share ownership with others, control of enterprise attitude of open hostility towards organized labour, unwillingness to deal effectively with problems and insufficiency of education for their role as manager.

Higgins Benjamin (1961) in his study on, ‘Introduction to a Symposium on Entrepreneurship and Labour Skills in Indonesian Economic Development’ pointed out that Balians had a group-focused image of change, while the Japanese had an ego-focused image of change. Entrepreneurship developed on the islands where the impact of Dutch destruction of entrepreneurial motives was not deep or longstanding.

Robert Kennedy, J.R., (1962) in his study entitled, ‘The Protest and Ethnic and the Parsis’ found that Parsis’ entrepreneurship could be explained by their zorostrasin teaching.

Sayigh Yusif, A., (1962) in his study on, ‘Entrepreneurs in Lebanon’ pointed out that 207 innovative entrepreneurs in Lebanon, found that religious
and social structures factors were not significant in inhibiting the supply of entrepreneurs.

Hirsschmeier J., and Zaganonoda (1964)\textsuperscript{vii} in their study entitled, ‘The Origin of Entrepreneurship in Maiji’ described Japanese entrepreneur as community centred.

Papanek Gustav, F., (1967)\textsuperscript{viii} made a study on ‘Pakistan’s Development – Social Goals Private Incentives’. He found that strong economic incentives created by Korean boom, contraction of foreign trade, conditions of scarcity in Pakistan, import of machinery subsidized by an undervalued rate of exchange were sufficient to develop a number of industrial entrepreneurs. A social and political environment conducive to growth and some group or individuals in touch with market made these economic incentives effective.

Kilby Peter (1969)\textsuperscript{ix} in his study on ‘Industrialization in an Open Economy’ observed that socio–cultural factors impeded the development of entrepreneurial characteristics in Lagos.

Harris John R., (1970)\textsuperscript{x} conducted a study on ‘Nigerian Entrepreneurship in Industry’. He enumerated the factors causing impediments to entrepreneurial development in Africa. There are differences between social world in which an African entrepreneur lived and economic world in which he had to operate undeveloped, uninstitutionalized ways of gaining of knowledge recruiting skills and borrowing money; absence of commercial experience; lack of inter-regional mobility; oligopolistic market conditions, shortage of viable projects, absence of business environment, management deficiency resulting in too low level of capacity utilization; poor standard of financial management and little propensity to innovate.
Grayson Leslie, E., (1972)\textsuperscript{xi} in his study on ‘The Promotion of Indigenous Private Enterprise in China’ concluded that entrepreneurial class can be ‘forcibly’ created by exogenous circumstances. Development of contracts breaking the vicious circle of isolation and widening the horizon of experience can foster entrepreneurship in African countries.

Stickley J. and Hayek, M., (1973)\textsuperscript{xii} made a study on ‘Small Farmer Credit in Jordon’. The Agricultural Credit Corporation of Jordon U.S.A.I.D’ found that loans had been used in improving agricultural and digging wells and extending canals, other irrigation works, buying agricultural machines and other inputs, all of which helped in increasing agricultural production. The study also found that most of the respondents’ income and net worth had increased.

Miller, L.F., (1975)\textsuperscript{xiii} conducted a study on ‘Present and Potential Use of Credit by the Maize and Rice Farmers in Western and Kwara States, Nigeria’. He found that the relative poor performance of the agricultural sector had been attributed to a number of factors such as disincentives created by the prevailing macro-economic environment, crude implements and inappropriate agricultural technology, inadequate agricultural extension services, poor transport facilities, pest and disease and lack of capital and credit facilities. Of all these problems, credit has been identified as the most critical.

Barry, P.J., Hopkin, J.A. and Baker, C.B., (1979)\textsuperscript{xiv} made a study on ‘Financial Management in Agriculture’. They argued that too much emphasis and time had been spent on trying to measure the impact of loans at the farm level. They maintained that loans readily mix with other liquid assets, and it is costly to accurately measure the impact of the additional liquidity provided to a loan farm household. They argued that it is very difficult to attribute changes in household expenditures or investments to a specific loan and to isolate how many of these activities would have occurred without this loan. Because, the farm – household impact of loans is difficult to measure, the new views hold that the performance and vitality of the lender and of overall rural financial position may be the most useful measures of the success or failure of a credit project.
A study conducted by Osotimein, K.O., (1983)\textsuperscript{xv} on ‘An Economic Analysis of the Impact of Credit on Rice Production’ found that credit had positive and significant impact on the farm size, output and farm income of rice farmers. He emphasized that credit alone would not achieve the desired objectives in rice production, unless it becomes part of a closely integrated production and marketing programme within the different production areas.

Altaf Zafar (1984)\textsuperscript{xvi} in his study entitled, ‘Pakistani Entrepreneurs – Their Development Characteristics and Attitudes’ related the relationship of the size of the enterprise and access to government benefits, capital and technology. He found that the industrial entrepreneurs induced horizontal multiplication of units’ rather than vertical growth. In his study, he also found that the desire for independence and financial gains were the most important motives. He also found education a modernizing factor of Pakistani entrepreneurs. He noted that the occupational representation in entrepreneurship is growing.

Gray, B. and Ariss, S., (1985)\textsuperscript{xvii} in their study on, ‘Politics and Change Across Organizational Life Cycles’ found that the entrepreneurs strongly desire to control the activities of their organization.

Befus, D.R., Mescon, T.S., and Vozikis, G.S., (1985)\textsuperscript{xviii} in their study entitled, ‘International Investment of Expatriate: The Case of Honduras’ examined the nature of small expatriate companies operating in developing countries by interviewing 43 business persons in Honduras. Evaluation of the motivation for investment, type of enterprises and traits of the entrepreneurs revealed that expatriate small business is a unique phenomenon.
Erwee, R. (1986)\textsuperscript{xix} in his study on, ‘South African Women Changing Career Pattern’ cited archived data to assert that entrepreneurship amongst black South African Women is on the rise.

Walters P.G.P and Samlee (1990)\textsuperscript{xx} made a study on, ‘A Model of Assessing Performance in Small U.S Exporting Firms’. They compared the large and small exporters and found that differences between the two groups were not as great as expected. Small firms were just as committed to exporting as large firms; however, managerial support of export activities was more prominent in the larger firms.

Mcgrath, R.G., Macmillan I.C. and Scheinberg, S. (1992)\textsuperscript{xxi} in their study entitled, ‘Elitist Risk Takers and Rugged Individualists An Exploratory Analysis of Cultural Differences between Entrepreneurs and Non-Entrepreneurs’ analyzed entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in eight countries. Their findings indicated that there is an underlying pattern of values shared by entrepreneurs despite the cultural diversity of their origins.
A study conducted by Birley, S. and Westhead, P. (1993) on ‘A Comparison of New Business Established by “Novice” and “Habitual” Founders in Great Britain’ looked at the difference between “novice” and “habitual” business founders in Great Britain and found that the latter are younger at founding more likely to use personnel finances and have divergent reasons for starting ventures than the former.

Kolvereid L. and Obloj K. (1994) in their study on, ‘Entrepreneurship in Emerging Versus Matured Economics: An Exploratory Survey’ compared the attitudes of entrepreneurs from the United Kingdom, Norway and Poland and discovered that Polish entrepreneurs functioning in a post-communist context do not perceive their environment to be any more hostile than do British entrepreneurs, but receive support services only from the private sector.

Wright, R.W. and Ricks, D.A., (1994) in their study entitled, ‘Trends in International Business Research Twenty – Five Years Later’ asserted that international entrepreneurship is a new and somewhat surprising thrust of international business research activity. They noted that given the emerging global environment, entrepreneurs and small businesses are no longer limited to
domestic markets and even locally oriented entrepreneurs must be attentive to competition from international players.

Mcdougall, P.P., Shane, S. and Oviatt, B.A., (1994) in their study on ‘Explaining the Formation of International New Ventures: The Limits of Theories from International Business Research’ revealed that (a) founders possess special competencies for combining resources across national boundaries (b) early internationalization is necessary to avoid path dependency and (c) founders prefer hybrid organizational structures such as strategic alliances and networks.

Cecicia Falbe and Laure Larwood (1995) made a study on ‘Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research’. They stated that there were significant differences between entrepreneurs on personnel qualities and firm and environmental contest. A few significant differences were found between founders and owners rather the differences were between founders/owners and other executives.

Robert Witerwulgh and Frunk Janssen (1997) in their study entitled, ‘The Role of the Bankers in Financing Medium Sized Firms in Belgium; Lendor or
Advisor?’ found out that the capital structure of Belgian medium sized firms was dominated by self-financing. There is high level of satisfaction in entrepreneur-banker relationship. The entrepreneur would consult the banker for advice on routine and strategic decisions.

Isijola, O.C. and Osotimehin, K.O. (1999) in their study on ‘Impact of Rural Banking Scheme on Farmers Income Evidence from on do State, Nigeria’ found out that the amount of loans borrowed from the bank, cropped farm size, labour input and amount expended on capital inputs have positive and significant influence on the current farm income realized by the small holder farmers.

William, M., Gentry and Glenn Hubbard (2000) conducted a study on ‘Entrepreneurship and Household Saving’. They found out the entrepreneurial saving decisions and their role in household wealth accumulation. First entrepreneurial households, own a substantial share of household wealth and income and this share increases throughout the wealth distribution and the income distribution. Second, the portfolios of entrepreneurial households, even wealthy ones, are much undiversified with the bulk of assets held within active business. Third, wealth –income ratio and saving rates are higher for
entrepreneurial households even after controlling for age and other demographic variables.

Thomas Man, W.Y., Theresa Lan and Chan, K.F., (2002) in their study entitled, ‘The Competitiveness of Small and Medium Enterprises: A Conceptualization with Focus on Entrepreneurial Competencies’ analyzed the opportunity for organizing the strategic and commitment competencies. Competitive scope and organizational capabilities will positively influence the performance of small and medium enterprise through their interactive effect. Apart from the effect of the entrepreneurs’ age on entrepreneurial competencies, it is also necessary to consider the firms’ age and size.

2.3 REVIEW OF RESEARCH IN INDIA

Brimmer, A.F., (1955) in his study entitled, ‘The Setting of Entrepreneurship in India’ intensively studied the impact of managing agency system in the setting of entrepreneurship in India. The system provided much
scarce factors of finance and management but created problems of concentration of wealth and wide ranging malpractice.

Gadgil, D.R., (1959) in his study on ‘The Industrial Evolution of India in Recent Times’ stated that the economic development was impeded by colonial rule. Otherwise, the craft-based industries were flourishing well at the beginning of the eighteenth century. He also analyzed the communities involved in the trade, finance and handicraft industries in different geographical regions during seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Berna James, J., (1960) made a study on ‘Industrial Entrepreneurship in Madras State’. He studied fifty manufacturing firms engaged in various kinds of light engineering production in and around Madras city and Coimbatore. Most of the firms at the time of starting were of medium size. His basic finding goes against the popular belief that caste and tradition play an important role in the emergence of entrepreneurs. The medium size-manufacturing firm has mostly grown from small-scale unit. The performance of the entrepreneurs could be improved, if their contribution to industrial progress could be increased and if
certain help in techniques of production and management could be provided to them.

Gaikwad V.R., and Tripathi, R.N. (1970) conducted a study on ‘Socio – Psychological Factors Influencing Industrial Entrepreneurship – A Case Study in Tanuka Region of West Godavari, Andhra Pradesh’. They studied the small entrepreneurs of Tanuka Region of West Godavari district in Andhra. It is an attempt to bring out the prerequisites for successful entrepreneurship. The study observed that all the entrepreneurs were persons with initiative, drive and hard work, though a majority of the entrepreneurs had no technical knowledge or strong economic base or strong political connections. Moreover, very few had any idea of the work involved or a definite idea about the government policy.

A study made by Wayne, N.E., (1971) on ‘Indian Entrepreneurship: A Survey in Entrepreneurship and Economic Development’ concluded that there was disproportionate representation of high castes and families with higher socio – economic status. These castes tried to maintain or to defend their privileged position of the family implying that pre-industrial caste and class groups survived
the process of capitalist industrialization and maintained their relative positions in relation to the dominant groups in India as well as in other countries.

Javillonar, G.U., and Peter G.R., (1973)\textsuperscript{xxxvi} made a study on ‘Sociological and Social Psychological Aspects of Indian Entrepreneurship’. The study found that the entrepreneurs are more concerned with the utility of viewing entrepreneurship in India as a family rather than as an individual phenomenon. The data strongly supported the hypotheses that entrepreneurship among the Indian small–scale manufacturers may be more meaningfully viewed as a situational phenomenon tied to the type of ownership of the business enterprise than as an individual phenomenon. Secondly, the extended family system also facilitates an individual’s entry into entrepreneurial role.

Tandon B.C.(1975)\textsuperscript{xxxvii} in his study entitled, ‘Environment and Entrepreneurship’ argued that the rate of entrepreneurial change is a function of human factor and one can bring about a change in the effectiveness of an enterprise by improving the human factor.
Sharma, K.L., (1975) conducted a study on ‘Entrepreneurial Performance in Role Perspective’. He studied the entrepreneurs in Uttar Pradesh with respect to their entrepreneurial orientation, commitment and achievement. He found that the entrepreneurs in Uttar Pradesh had higher entrepreneurial orientation than entrepreneurial commitment and achievement. The low entrepreneurial achievement is attributed to non-conductive socio–economic milieu, non–commitment of workers and officials and shortages of raw material and capital.

Sharma, K.L., (1976) made a study on ‘Entrepreneurship Growth and Industrial Development Programmes in Punjab and U.P - A Comparative Study of Small Entrepreneurs’. He studied the inter-state patterns of entrepreneurial performance by selecting samples from Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. The study revealed that inter-state variations in the industrial climate give rise to variations in entrepreneurial performance. Better the climate, better would be the performance.

A study made by Timberg, T.A., (1978) on ‘The Marwaris: from Traders to Industrialists’ analysed the Marwari entrepreneurial community and felt that as
entrepreneurs, the Marwaris performed a crucial role in the development of the industrial and commercial economy in India. This role was facilitated by the strong community support to migrant Marwaris by providing accommodation, finance and supportive values. Their austerity and hard work helped them build strong capitalist base.

Nandy Ashish and Raymond Lee Owens (1978)\textsuperscript{xli} conducted a study on ‘The New Vaisyas’. They found that achievement was not higher in the successful entrepreneurs belonging to Mahisya in Howrah as compared to those from higher castes; this could be explained by the supportive community and positive self-image in case of Mahisyas as compared to those from higher castes, in which case the entrepreneurs were considered deviants.

Pathak, H.N., (1980)\textsuperscript{xlii} in his study entitled, ‘Small Industry and Entrepreneurship in Backward Districts of Gujarat’ felt that the interplay of factors like favourable, timely and appropriate government policies and quick adaptability by the enterprises were responsible for all-round growth of entrepreneurial talent.
Sharma, R.A., (1980) in his study on ‘Entrepreneurial Changes in Indian Industry’ noticed two streams in entrepreneurial growth. In the familiar spheres, the entrepreneurship was dispersed among various communities and in other spheres, it was thinly spread among socially well-known communities. The strong desire to do something independent in life, technical knowledge and/or manufacturing experience financial assistance from institutional sources, business experience in the same or related lines, accommodation in industrial estates and heavy demand are the factors that induced the new and small entrepreneurial class.

Deshpande, M.U., (1984) in his study entitled, ‘Entrepreneurship of Small Scale Industries’ observed that political system was responsible for dormancy of entrepreneurship. Financial help from the family and father’s occupational status were significantly related to the entry. Industrial entrepreneurship was a result of collective ambitions and aspirations of the family.

A study conducted by Amalendu Guha (1984) on ‘More about Parsi Seths – Their Roots, Entrepreneurship and Comprador Role 1650 – 1918’ found that the
success of Seths was attributable to their interest in European forms of business organization, development of ship building, exploration of new markets, acquisition of working knowledge of English language and adaptation of political milieu.

A study made by Dinesh Awasthi, N., (1992) on ‘Entrepreneurship and the Growth of Firms. An Exploratory Study of the Dyestuffs Industry in Ahmedabad’ found that the levels of investment and employment were not initially significantly different across the two (High growth firms and low growth firms) categories of firms. However, the levels became significantly different by the terminal year of the study. Caste may facilitate initial entry into business; it does not ensure subsequent growth. There is a weak relationship between family occupation and growth performance.

Harsha Kirve and Ajit Kanitkar (1993) made a study on ‘Entrepreneurship at the Grass Root Developing the Income Generating Capabilities of Rural Women’. They analyzed the promotion of women – owned businesses, skill training for women on formation of women’s groups for easier access to credit and other inputs are some of the efforts which need to be understood and
appreciated in the wider perspective of women catching up with men in various walks of life.

Mall, C.P., (1993) XLVIII conducted a study on ‘Impact of Financial Incentives of Entrepreneurial Development in Backward Regions. A case study of Deoria District of Uttar Pradesh’. He found that the financial incentives would perhaps have been of still greater help, had there been complementary facilities to aid entrepreneur. Unfortunately, however, there is a total absence in Deoria of other promotional activities like training in technical and financial aspects budgeting, costing, resource allocation, cost benefit analysis, marketing projections, etc., which are vital for entrepreneurial success.

Krishna K.V.S.M., and Dinesh Awasthi N., (1994) XLIx in their study entitled, ‘Responsiveness of Small and Tiny Enterprises to Policy Reforms in India’ felt that work experience had been a strong factor in influencing the establishment of owner – managed enterprises.
Anand Singh and Krishna (1994) in their study on ‘Agricultural Entrepreneurship: The Concept and Evidence’ found out that there was a high level of innovativeness, decision-making and level of knowledge of farm enterprise.

Saini J.S., and Bhatia B.S., (1996) in their study entitled, ‘Impact of Entrepreneurship Development Programmes’ revealed that there was no significant change in the performance of trained and untrained entrepreneur in terms of the average investment. Trained entrepreneurs exhibit significantly high rates of growth in employment generation and sales turnover.

2.4 REVIEW OF MICRO FINANCE AND SHG

Cheston and Kuhn (2004) in their study concluded that micro finance programmes had been very successful in reaching women. This gives micro-finance institutions an extraordinary opportunity to act intentionally to empower poor women and to minimize the potentially negative impact some women experiences.
Tripathy K.K. (2004) found that contiguity with human nature enhanced the relevance and utility of the human development initiatives. The cure of SHG bank linage in India has been built around an important aspect of human nature, the feeling of self worth over the last 10 years. It has came to symbolize an enduring relationship between the financially deprived and the frond financial systems, reformed through a socially reluctant tool known as Self Help Group (SHG). An amazingly large number of formal and non-formal bodies have partnered with NABARD in this unique process of socio economic engineering. What had started off in 1992 as a modest pilot testing of linking around 500 SHGs with branches of half a dozen banks across the country with the help of NGOs, today involves about 20,000 rural outlets of more than 440 banks with an advanced portfolio of more than Rs.1200 crore ($240m). In micro finance lending to SHGs, financial source have reached the door steps of over 8 million very poor people, through 5,00,000 SHGs.

Das Gupta, (2005) in his article commented that paradigm shift is reacquired from financial sector reform to “Micro finance reform”. While the priority sector needs to be made lean, mandatory micro credit must be monitored
rigorously. Simultaneously space and scope have to be properly desired for providing competitive environment to micro-finance services. Extensive database needs to be created by the RBI for understanding micro-finance.

Osman, Khail (2005) in their article remarked that micro-finance schemes alone cannot alleviate poverty. The battle for total eradication of poverty requires combining micro-finance schemes with prattle, complementary programmes addressing the social and cultural dimensions of need, privation, impoverishment and dispossession.

Jayadevappa (2007) as opined in his article, “The Progress of SHG: Banking linkage in Karnataka” that the SHG –Bank linkage programme registered its progress in the state of Karnataka during the year 2003-04. About 1,88,477 SHG were promoted by different self help promoting institutions in the state on 31st March, 2004. There are three models in SHG – bank linkage in Karnataka.

Tushir et.al., (2007) made an attempt to highlight the role of microfinance in uplifting the economic conditions of women households in Haryana
district through SHGs upto March 2006. They concluded that micro credit is a powerful instrument and has improved access to rural poor, especially woman.

Goety Ann Marie and Rina Sen Gupta (2007) in “Who talks the Credit? Gender Power and Control over Loan use in Rural Credit Programmes in Bangladesh” reveal that the amount of credit disbursement to the SHG, is increasing. Repayment of loans taken by them is reportedly very good, according to the banks. SHGs have thus become a workable tool to channelize credit through banks to the rural poor. This is because in programmes using SHGs the requirements of all stakeholders, namely the beneficiaries, the government and the banks, are being satisfied. However, it is seen that the number of SHGs that take up economic activities are relatively few, and even fewer among them are successful. One problem is that of identifying economic activities that are viable at the rate of interest that SHGs can avail of loans. The women belonging to the SHGs can now influence decision making in their homes and communities. These are crucial decisions like what type of food the family will consume, regarding schooling of children, decision pertaining to health, maintenance of the house and similar other things.
Ranjaraja C. and Rais Ahamed 2008\textsuperscript{li}x in their study on “Micro Finance and Women Employment” explained that the SHG activities with bank linkage had an impact on rural women's self sustainability, with respect to increase in income, consumption, stabilization of income and general economic empowerment of beneficiaries. This increases the confidence levels of the women, as also their involvement in community activities. They address community problem by working in tandem to the government machinery to implement the different welfare schemes available like construction of roads, sanitation programmes, schemes for education and health etc. given this the following study is aimed at looking at this non-economic contribution of the SHG to a community in general.

Senthil Vadivoo, K. and Sekar V., (2008)\textsuperscript{lx} in their work on “SHG Government Movement for Women Services: How the Poor in India could be Better Served” observed that among the real and potential clients of micro finance, women are seen as the most reliable in terms of repayment and utilization of loans. It is argued that the entire household benefits when loans are given to women, and that micro finance can empower women, since it instills, a perception of strength and confidence through augmentations of incomes and their participation within
group activities. Hence most of the groups formed are women only SHGs. Since women are supposed to be good credit risks, and women-run enterprises benefit their families, microfinance is seen as a tool to empower women. The submissions and pliability of women in relation to repayment schedules are started as both valid and suspect reasons. The capacity of women to start enterprise, to sustain them, and to sum SHG groups independently without the help of men, is also a matter of discussion. There is no doubt of the fact that given the current systems of microfinance, women have access to credit.

Lakshmy Devi K.R.,(2010)\textsuperscript{lxii} in her article, “Micro Credit Programems, Income Generation and Empowerment of Women – Some Empirical Evidence from Kerala”, provided some thoughts and views of Kerala women regarding empowerment of women by micro-credit based income generation activities.

Vasantha Kumari (2010)\textsuperscript{lxii} attempted to examine the role of micro enterprises in the empowerment of women in Kerala. The author took a sample of 328 micro entrepreneurs. The study revealed that these enterprises helped in the empowerment of rural women economically, socially and individually. The study suggested priority to commercial viability of enterprises.
2.5 REVIEW OF STUDIES RELATING TO WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Vijayanthi, K.N.(1984)\textsuperscript{lxiii} studied the process of women’s empowerment and identified the levels of awareness creation, decision making, self and group empowerment among women for the Self Help Group formed under the Comprehensive Community Development Programme (CCDP) implemented in the five slum areas of Pulianthope in Chennai during the period 1984.

Selvaraju. R. and Vasanthi. G. (1985)\textsuperscript{lxiv} discussed “The role of the Self Help Groups (SHGs) in Entrepreneurial Development”. The authors had clearly explained the need for entrepreneurial development through the SGHs in developing countries like U.S.A., and Japan. These countries could transform their small agro based industries into big industrial giants with the support of their entrepreneurial abilities. The government through various agencies and institutions should undertake the entrepreneurial development programmes in India. According to the authors only SGHS could develop entrepreneurial development in the rural areas.
Charyulu and G.N.Reddy G.N.(1987)\textsuperscript{lv} made a study on “Rural Women, Decision Making Public Participation and Other Basic Needs; A Study of Two South Indian Villages”. The study had analyzed the women’s opinion on decision making, social participation and availability of other basic needs. It was found that there was an increasing awareness of the need for better education, health and hygiene and to overcome the exploitative and suppressive nature of the system. Women preferred to depend upon men for several aspects of home and social life, though they had strong desire to participate in public activities and gain equal status also. The authors had concluded that efforts to emancipate women should be through building awareness and through collective action for achieving real changes in the status and role of women.

Ajit Kumar Shinha (1988)\textsuperscript{lxvi} conducted a study on “Rural Women and Development Process : A Micro Level Study”, and pointed out that 37.9 per cent of the sample population (that is 319) were working members and 62.1 per cent (that is 522) of them were nonworking members. Out of 319 working members, 233 were male that is 51 per cent of the male working population; whereas 96 were females that is 23.7 per cent of the female working population. Out of the
223 working males, 46.2 per cent of them numbering 103 were skilled, whereas out of the 96 working females only 10.4 per cent, were found to be unskilled labourers.

Margretire Berger (1989) in her paper entitled “Giving Women Credit; The Strengths and Limitations of Credit as a Tool for Alleviation Poverty” examined the programmes and institutions involved in lending money to women micro-entrepreneurs, and had assessed the poverty alleviation potential of the different credit models and had reviewed the effects of policy interventions on the financial markets on women’s access to and use of credit. The programmes which had aimed to accomplish poverty alleviation and income and employment generation were the bank schemes, intermediary programmes and parallel programmes or poverty focused development bank schemes.

Katherine Mckee (1989) in her paper on “Micro Level Strategies for Supporting Livelihood, Employment and Income Generation of Poor Women in the World’ dealt with organizations and programmes that seek to increase women’s opportunities and women’s status through economic intervention and
the strengths and weaknesses of the strategies (area, sector and function based) for solving the problems of the self-employed individuals and the micro enterprises in the developing world. The author was of the opinion that the sectoral strategies offer relatively greater promises than the area–focused strategies for attaining significant improvements in poor women’s economic prospects.

Premanchander, C. (1993) made a study on “Micro Enterprises for Rural Women”. The study revealed that the economic enterprises were the means through which women empower themselves. The women entrepreneurs had started enterprises such as handlooms, weaving units, batik units and file making units and had effectively managed them. The women entrepreneurs had expressed the fact that the increase in their empowerment was directly related to the improvement in their status and their standard of living.

Puhazhendhi. V. and Satayasai K.J.S. (1993) attempted to evaluate the performance of the SHGs with special reference to their social and economic empowerment. They used the primary data with the help of structured questionnaires from 560 sample households in 223 SGHs functioning in four
different regions. According to them, the involvement of the rural poor in the SGHs had significantly contributed to their social empowerment, as measured by the improvement in their confidence, their treatment within the family, their communication skills and their other behavioural changes. Thus their findings had revealed that the SHG as an institutional arrangement could positively contribute to the economic and social empowerment of the rural poor and the impact on social empowerment was more pronounced than that of the economic empowerment.

In their working paper on “Defining and Studying Empowerment of Women; A Research Note from Bangladesh”, Sydney Ruth Schuler and Hashem. S.M. (1993) suggested an approach for exploring women’s empowerment and had provided individual levels of indicators of empowerment. According to them, women’s subordination was part of the cultural system, and as such, the process of empowerment should ultimately weaken the systematic basis of women’s subordination. They had recognized six components were a sense of self and vision of a future, mobility and visibility economic security, status and decision making power within the household, ability to interact effectively in the public sphere, and participation in non-family groups. The order of the domain had
suggested a linear process of empowerment, mobility, better livelihood by indulging in wage employment, more decision making power in the household and eventually higher levels of community participation.

Manimekalai. M, and Rajeshwari. G. (1995)\textsuperscript{\textit{bxi}} attempted to study the socio economic background of the SHG women in rural micro enterprises and examined the factors which had motivated the women to become SHG members and eventually to become entrepreneurs, and they had analyzed, the nature of their economic activities and their performance in terms of growth indicators such as investment turnovers, employment, capacity utilization, sources of finance and supplementary finances, marketing and other related aspects. The study had used primary data for the period 1999-2000. A sample of 150 selected women members were stratified from the district of Thirucherappali. According to them, the provision of micro finance by the NGO’s to women’s Self-Help Groups had helped the groups and their members to achieve to a certain extent an improvement in their economic and social empowerment.

Namboodiri N.V. and Shiyani R.L., (1996)\textsuperscript{\textit{bxiii}} examined the potential role of the SHGs in terms of their reach, and their linkage with banks for savings and for
credit for the weaker sections of the rural households. For the study, they had made use of both macro and micro data, and had examined the basic characteristics the coverage and the financial dependence of the SHGs formed by the Panchmahal Vadodara Gramin Bank (PVGB) in Gujarat as a Self-Help Promoting Institution (SHPI) as well as those promoted by the Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) in their area of operations. The operational area of the PVGB was confined to three districts in Gujarat, namely, Panchmahals, Dahod and Vadodara, having 62 branches mainly spread over the former two districts. The rural population mainly depended on agriculture and other allied activities. The prospects of the SHGs in their rural financial deepening could be broadly based on their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. First they constitute a self sustainable system of community organizations free from governmental interference. Secondly, these groups had been promoted by the NGOs or Banks.

Usha Jumani (1997) studied the role of women in small business. She described the main features of poor women’s economic activities in the overall context of women in an economy, as well as in the context of the small business. In her view, poor women working in the in primal sector of the economy were engaged in business of a small size using traditional labour intensive skills
generating small incomes, in a highly decentralized manner depending upon oral transactions with a lesser number of few people and based on mutual trust. The credit needs of the poor women were small in their size but the number of women who work in need of such a credit facility was very large. A detailed system might be considered as important to record all the banking transactions. According to her, to ensure a high rate of repayment a band of dedicated officials and workers, who were able to involve themselves in the progress of the poor women’s life should be created.

Sashi S. Narayanan (1999) made a study on “Empowerment of Women Through Social Mobilization” and stressed that empowerment meant choice and women’s ability to make a choice with the activity and the exercise of informed choice within expanding framework of information, knowledge and an analysis of the options available,

Puhazhendhi. V. and Jayaraman B. (1999) undertook a study on women’s participation and employment generation among the rural poor through informal groups on MYRADA (Mysore Resettlement and Area Development Agency). Primary data were collected from 25 randomly selected credit
management groups promoted by the MYRADA. The project areas were Chitradurga District in Karnataka and Periyar District in Tamil Nadu. The analysis of the groups in the different stages of development had shown that the share of loan for ‘non-productive’ purposes got reduced from 76 percent in the groups to 43 per cent in the stabilized groups. But the share of the loan for ‘productive’ proposes had increased from 24 per cent in the new groups to 57 per cent in the stabilized groups. The additional employment generated through informal groups lending had worked out to 172 days per member. The negative factors which had deterred the performance of the groups were found to be lack of effective leadership, lesser involvement of the non-governmental organizations and the consumption-oriented loans.

Gurumoorthy T.R.(2000) in his study on: “Self Help Group Empowerment of Rural Women” observed that the self help group disburses micro credit to the rural women for the purpose of making them enterprising women and for encouraging them to enter into entrepreneurial activities, self help groups enhance the equality; status of women as participants as decision makers and as beneficiaries in the economic social and cultural spheres of life Self
Help Groups encourage women to take an active part in the socio-economic progress of the nation.

Murugan K.R. and Dharmalingam. B. (2000) made a case study about SHGs and stated that, “Self Help Group” was an economically homogeneous and affinity group of rural poor which had a voluntarily access to contribute to a common fund which could be used to lend money to its members as per their group decision and which works for group solidarity self help and for group awareness, and for social and economic empowerment in the way of democratic functioning.

Rajaraman (2000) in his study on “SHGs Have Improved Status of Women” pointed out that they cover departments like health, education, nutrition and the public distribution system. They ensure peoples' participation in both the developmental as well as welfare activities of the State government. Moreover necessary steps would be taken by them from women’s federations in
all the districts to enable them to handle higher issues by the group members themselves.

Sharma. S.L. (2000)\textsuperscript{lxxx} conducted a study on “Empowerment without Antagonism: A Case for Reformulation of Women’s Empowerment Approach”. The study stated that women should not be treated as a homogeneous category, with regard to their development programmes and policies. Women’s empowerment, should categories women according to their age, caste, class, region, (rural or urban) and during the last fifty years of development in India, a very small proportion of the upper middle-class women, who were already dominant and were enjoying privileges had been benefited most. The rural uneducated, lower class housewives had remained by and large unaffected by it.

Iyyampillai. S., Kulanthai.S. and Thresa S., (2001)\textsuperscript{lxxxi} made a study on “Status Inside and Outside the Home Co-related in Pudukottai Town”. This study observed that the highly empowered one among the sample respondents had scored about 80 per cent of the total scores and there were women who had formed very badly too. The average which was slightly less than 50 per cent of the total score, had indicated the general backwardness of the study area. However about 35 per cent of the respondents had scored more than 50 per cent of the total empowerment
scores. A majority of the young educated employed Christian women had obtained a higher, empowerment (ES) compared to the aged and illiterate, domestically employed Muslim women. Since Christian women compared to others had been given better education and had been provided with employment opportunities by their religious bodies, a greater percentage of them had fared well (in the sample, the highest score of 91 had been obtained by Christian women while the lowest score of 17 had gone to Muslim women).

Lakshmi Kulsbrestha. R. and Archana Gupta (2001) \textsuperscript{lxxxii} made a study on “Self Help Groups Innovations in Financing the Poor”. The study revealed that in India, about 36 per cent of the population were poor and extending banking services to them were an important issue for their upliftment. Many measures including extending the formal banking sector for serving the poor and being tried by all these measures had not been very successful. To overcome this, the micro financing system was adopted to serve the poor with small amounts of loans which were easily recoverable within a limited period. The formation of groups of members cultivating the habit of thrift and savings and the recycling of the savings among the members at minimum rates of interest were introduced among village people. Micro Finance Operates on the principle of “Borrowers Knows the Best” where the default rate was very low and the amount of savings increased considerably. The SHGs had played a very important role in this way to help the poor and to
alleviate themselves from their poverty and to bring the country also into the growth path. Since the poor had become too humorous, self help promotion had emerged as the new innovative approach.

Veluraj(2001) lxxxiii in his study on “Self Help Groups An Alternative Approach to Empowerment of Rural Women” studied the status of women, the promotion of the self-help groups, the involvement of the voluntary agencies, the diversification of women workers, women micro enterprises, rural marketing, the rural distribution system and the linkage programme of the NABARD. Voluntary agencies had played a vital role in encouraging women entrepreneurs though their income generating programmes. He was of the opinion that, importance had to be given to empower the women in the rural areas with a view to conferring rights on women equal to those enjoyed by men and to achieve the objectives of the self-help groups in the rural areas. The voluntary agencies should also be educated and the self-help group members trained to practice a reputed system of accounting in order to regulate the management of funds.

Vijay D.Kulkarni (2001) lxxxiv explored the issue of changing the status of women in the households through the empowerment that had been taking place through the Self-Help Group activity, in his article on ‘Empowerment of Women through Self-Help Groups’. He also attempted to understand the differences
between members and the non-members of the Self-Help Groups from his study village. The study had found that the empowerment had taken among different classes and castes and had brought them together as women. These women had learned to make decisions for themselves and had developed the capacity to exercise a certain amount of control of the socio-economic and political conditions that determine their immediate living conditions.

Suguna, B., (2001) in her paper on “Planning for Economic Empowerment of Women” observed that certain crucial contours like the concept of economic empowerment in general and the issues and concerns in particular planning for economic empowerment and its increased non-governmental programmes, offered some specific strategies and interventions to ensure women’s economic and social discrimination. The economic empowerment of women had necessitated transfer of skills of management and controls over economic activities very necessary to enable women to feel confident and empowered. She thought that when women gained control and participated in decision making processes at all levels, real empowerment would take place, and as a result, there would be an improvement in the status of women.

Chander Bhan Raj Singh (2001) in his study on “Women Empowerment for Gender Equality” stated that the women sarpanches, generally
did not attend the Panchayat meetings. Likewise the women representative did not attend public meetings and hardly contacted the higher authorities to take up the problems related to their villages and generally the husbands of women sarpanches interacted with government officials and other officers. Despite dynamic constitutions and legal provision and various other measures adopted by the government from time to time to strengthen the Indian society to make it a gender just society and to encourage the empowerment of women the facts and figures disclosed and altogether different scenario.

Suriakanthi (2002) in her study on “Literacy Essential for SHGs” analyzed the need for literacy among the members of the self help groups. A random survey of about 120 groups had shown that nearly 95 per cent of the office bearers were found to be illiterates. The office bearers had managed to carry on the activities of the groups with the help of their husbands and the educated wards. They used to narrate the things that had happened in the meetings to their husbands and wards and the reports were prepared by them. Similarly, the accounts were maintained by the non members. Fifty per cent of the groups surveyed had revealed that he literate members wrote the minutes and the accounts of the office bearers who were illiterates. It was found that ten per cent of the illiterate members did not know the amount of money that had been saved by them as a group. Basic education to all member of the self-help groups is an urgent and compelling need.
Pant, J.C., (2002) made a study on "Economic Participation of Rural Women in India; Women’s Status to Women’s Autonomy". The study had revealed that about 30 per cent of the women in India had been in the labour force. Since, 80 per cent of the women labour force had belonged to the rural areas the rural women’s work participation rate had increased from 15.9 per cent in 1971 to 27 per cent in 1991. The census data of 1991 had provided that out of total women workers 87.41 per cent were agricultural workers and 12.59 per cent belonged to the category of other workers. It had also revealed that there were about 30 per cent of the rural households which were headed by women who had shouldered all the burden of earning and caring for the families and had suffered on account of their lack of access to means of production and to ownership of land and other properties. The study had also revealed that in the rural areas, the growth rate of male workers was 17.57 per cent and that of the female workers 41.78 per cent, whereas in the urban areas it was 34.74 for the males and 62.41 for the female workers. Among the rural women workers, cultivators had increased by 48.08 per cent.

Sebastian Titus, A.P., (2002) in his study on “Promotion of Women Entrepreneurs through Self Help Groups” examined the promotion of women entrepreneurs through SHGs. According to him, the women entrepreneurs who had
started small enterprises had expanded them into large scale units. Self Help Groups had made readymade garments and had exported them. A Self Help group of women in the Dindigul District of Tamil Nadu had been running a unit providing agro-services with a total turnover of Rs.12 lakhs and more per annum. But many were not able to reach unto this level. The reasons cited by him were the non-availability of funds for investment, dearth of technical and managerial skills, inability to manage the labour force, dual role burden of women and lack of professionalism and gender bias.

Hilaria Soundari. M., and Sudhir, M.A. (2003) made a study on “Status of Women and Disparity in Tamil Nadu” and pointed out that the gender disparities in giving nutritional food were evident from their infancy to adulthood. In fact, gender had been the most statistically significant determinant of malnutrition among young children and malnutrition was a frequent direct or underlying cause for mortality of girls below the age of five. Girls were breastfed less frequently and for shorter durations of time in infancy. In childhood and adulthood, males were fed first and were better fed. A parents often neglected to the girl children who were sick. Sick, girls were not taken to the doctor as frequently as their male counterparts.
Usha, K, (2003) made a study on, “Gender Equality and Development”. The study revealed that female literacy rates had increased at a faster rate than male literacy rates during 1991 to 2001. The gap in the male and the female literacy rates stood at the level of 21.69 percentage points for the population of above five years of age.

The female literacy rate of our country had increased from 12.95 per cent in 1961 to 54.16 per cent in 2001. It meant that the female literacy had increased at twice the rate compared to that of male literacy during the same period.

Prabhakar Varma P. (2003) made a study on "Women Empowerment: A Critical Input for Sustainable Development”. He graded the responses on a three point scale under each item and the share of each family member had been placed in one of the three grades. The main participants considered were herself, her husband, her father-in-law and her mother-in-law. The important matters on which information was sought were their daughter’s marriage, dowry, children’s education, asset purchases, major items of loans, and health care. On each of these items the way each of the members of the family had played their role had disclosed interesting results.

The data had revealed higher levels of participation by women leaders in the process of decision making on important matters related to their households. This
was possible only because of their exposure to the events happening in and around the society.

Arul Kamaraj J.M., (2005) in his article, on “Self Help Groups New Mantra for Women Empowerment” concluded that SHGs had undertaken entrepreneurial activities at a smaller level with minimum capital requirements. In future, the inbuilt strength of the SHGs would pave the way for undertaking mega projects, like projects performed by the joint stock companies, public sector enterprises and the like. SHGs had power to create a socio-economic revolution in the rural areas of our country. SHGs have proved that they could indeed bring about a change in the mind set of very conservative and the tradition bound illiterate women in the rural areas. The SHGs have made the rural women contribute to the socio-economic progress of the country.

2.6 CONCLUSION

Most of the studies under review have concentrated on the general aspect of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial development. In the previous studies, the researchers has not attempted to picture entrepreneurship skills in terms of personality traits incorporating psychological variables and enterprise