CHAPTER - III
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Tourism industry is growing at a fast pace. Several studies have been conducted in the problems and prospects of tourism industry in India and Kerala. But there are no comprehensive and detailed studies, conducted on the tourism potentialities of Kerala. No data base is available on either on the local destinations and centres. In fact, there are no available data on the number of entrepreneurs existent in tourism venture either at the planning department or at the department of tourism.

Tourism has marked a notable increase in the last decade in both the international and domestic sectors, and these increases have brought new requirements in terms of accommodation, catering and other leisure services.\(^1\)

Regardless of the fact that the field of entrepreneurship is regarded as a relatively young area of research,\(^2\) it has become one of the fastest growing areas in management literature over the past

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decades$^3$. Women in business especially in tourism is of a recent phenomenon in India. The fact that almost half the population of India belong to the female sex while business owned and operated by them constitutes less than five percent is a reflection of the neglect suffered by them in the social cultural as well as economic fields in all these years of development$^4$. Indeed, women’s participation in economic activity is far greater than what the formal statistics might reveal, since much of it takes place in the informal sector including in the households.

A detailed review of available research studies, research projects and research articles have been attempted as part of this study. With a particular emphasis on familiarizing with earlier studies the focus of each. Articles published in research journals, doctoral theses submitted to different Indian and foreign universities and papers presented in national international seminars have been thoroughly reviewed. It is hoped that the review will be helpful in identifying the gaps in the works already done in this area and choosing the method that should be most suited to the present study.

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3.1 STUDIES ON TOURISM

Zaid Suri Madhu⁵ (1991) opined that the potentiality of tourism remains untapped. There is an urgent need for exploring the potentiality of the tourism resource. A drastic rethinking is necessary for making the tourism industry capable of achieving enough momentum. If action plan in net medium is drawn up, the vision of tourism can become the widest paper-bound exchange earner but it is bound to be a mere pipe dream-he warns.

The tourism policy needs to be reviewed with greater emphasis on developing region-wise tourism, based on the ethics of each area as stated by Ganzer Collen and High Points⁶(1991), International tourism will take a lay time to be re-established.

Tourism is one of the world’s fastest growing industry today and its role in accelerating the economic development of a country is now widely recognized. According to S D Naik⁷ (1991): There is considerable forward linkage between tourism and the generation of employment opportunities as a result of the demand for various

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⁵ Zaid Suri Madhu, (March 10, 1991) A wealth of potential sadly unrealized, “economic time P 10
⁶ Ganzer Colleen and High (April 12, 1991) Poor Planning Cause of Travel Travails” Economic Times P 20
products. As an activity which can earn the much-needed foreign exchange for the country and provide employment to a large number of people, tourism production has now assumed an added significance for India.

K. Sasikumar and R Binu\(^8\) analyzed that tourism is the only industry in Kerala which is in the growth path (2004) even though Kerala possesses high potentiality in industrial attractiveness parameters. The study initially analyzes the growth of tourism now in Kerala and compares it with that in other states. The study also analyses the developmental activities of tourism industry in Kerala, the role of different agencies involved in Tourism Development. The development of the infrastructure, the tourism vision of the state and a comparison is made with those in other states. The study identified a number of promising tourism products in Kerala. The study also reveals that the local community in that area is much help in the upliftment of the standard of living of rural people and of the development of the nation as a whole.

Tourism is the only economic area where developing countries consistently mark a trade surplus- Lisa Mathly⁹ (2005). The industry’s rapid growth has placed a heavy burden on the local economy, culture and environments. The author opines that many tourism businesses are beginning to take positive steps to become more socially responsible, but a long term strategy calls for a substantial change in the way the industry operates.

Dennis¹⁰ (1994) states that the most visible economic benefit of tourism is employment generation as tourism provides jobs for such workers as hotel employees, taxi drivers, tour guides, construction workers, entertainment providers, restaurant employees and transportation personnel. He further mentions that such jobs would not have blessed tourism had it not been purposefully developed. Matheson and Wall mention that tourism is the largest earner of foreign exchange and leading instrument of income and employment generation in countries such as Jamaica, Spain and Mexico. Dennis further states that the tourism development have had positive as well as negative impact on many developing countries.

¹⁰Dennis Foster, L Introduction Travel and Tourism, MC Graw to 7 & 7 mc grow hill publishing company 2nd edu. NYC. 1994.P22.
Gossley, John C and Lynn M, Jamieson\textsuperscript{11} (1988) regards that tourism, a service-oriented industry has emerged to be a revolutionizing phenomenon, especially in the second half of the 20\textsuperscript{th} century, outpacing the manufacturing and extractive industries as a catalyst of development process at the national and the global level. In certain economies, it is the foundation of the environ(economic, socio-cultural and even human) pyramid, while in most others it is contributing to a significant extent in the general development process as well as in the finding of answer to their basic problems. Thus, presently, tourism has come to be one of the world’s largest growth mechanism with immense latent potential.

Michael Peters\textsuperscript{12} presented a comprehensive book on International tourism (1969). He has the opinion that through the tourism development, the developing countries could fill the economic gap between the rich and the poor countries. He has pointed out the scope of natural tourism assets and their potential value to the economy. The multiple effects of tourism and its impact on the economy are explained in detail.

\textsuperscript{12}Peter Micheal,(1969), International Tourism, Constable, London, PP 45.
Robinson H.M., in his book A Geography of Tourism (1976) attempts to provide a general descriptive aspect of tourism. Manuel Based Bovy and Fred Lowson give a detailed methodological approach to tourism and recreational planning in their work- Tourism and Recreational Development- A Handbook of Physical Planning (1977), explaining the main concepts, the basic requirement for the development of tourism complexes. Charles Kaiser Jr. and Larry E. Helber in their work tourism planning and development (1978) emphasise that a long range planning is necessary for tourism development.

Alister Mathcison and Geoffry Wall in their work Tourism Economic Physical and Social Impacts (1984) focus on economic, physical and social impacts of tourism. They have pointed out that tourism not only bring economic benefits to the society but also some unwanted social influx.

Peter E, Murphery in his book Tourism for Community Approach (1985) argues for community-oriented approach in tourism planning. The success of tourism development depends on fulfilling the

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expectations of the lowly and attracting them to a destination, the emphasis being on the fact that tourism has to be integrated to general community goals and planning strategies.

The Department of Tourism, Government of India published two studies on (1) a study on Employment Potential of Tourism in India\textsuperscript{18} (1983) (2) and a Pilot Study On Domestic Tourism\textsuperscript{19} (1984). Both studies have revealed that tourism would create more employment. The studies have also revealed that while foreign tourism created more employment in the accommodation and food sector, domestic tourism promoted employment in the transport sectors.

National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER)\textsuperscript{20} published a Cost- Benefit Analysis and Socio-Economic input of the Gulmarg Winter Sports Project and Kovalam Beach Resort, (1982) NCAER which analysed all to the tourism development projects and discussed the reasons for the lack of adequate tourism development of India. It asserted that the most important reason was the inadequacy of investment for the development of infrastructure facilities.

\textsuperscript{18} Department Of Tourism; Government of India(1983); Study on Employment Potential of Tourism in India.
\textsuperscript{19} Department Of Tourism; Government of India(1984) Pilot Study on Documents Tourism.
\textsuperscript{20} NCAER(1982); Cost Benefit Analysis and Socio-Economic Input of the Gulmarg Winter Sports Project and Kovalam Beach Resorts.

Tourism comprises numerous activities of immense global importance having impact on difficult sectors of the economy and helps to earn the local people their livelihood. Most of the research works (1970) deals with the peculiar impact of tourism the system of communication and changes in the attitudes of the people of the tourists (guests) and through them, of the people whom they represent as also of the people host countries, enlarging their cultural horizons and emotional ties.

Another international study by Frederico Neto\textsuperscript{22}, point out that tourism is a strong supportive factor of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world. It is an increasingly important source of income, employment and wealth in many countries.

\textsuperscript{21} Desh Bandhu Gupta;(1983), Income and Employment effect on tourism – a case study of Jammu and Kashmir State; New delhi, Sterling Publisher,pp89
\textsuperscript{22} Frederico Neto (2005), A New Approach to Sustainable Tourism. Development : Money Beyond Environmental Protection, DESA Discussion paper No29. St/ESA/2005/DP/29, UN
Royer Haries and Dang Vogel\textsuperscript{23} conducted a study on “E-commerce for Community – Based Tourism in Developing Countries.” This study examined the importance of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the motion tourism especially Rural Tourism. Their finding are based on an action research they conducted in three Asian countries, namely China, Malaysia and Vietnam. Based on facts they unearthed point out that community based tourism provides alternative economic opportunities in rural areas. It has potential to create jobs and entrepreneurship as well as opportunities for people from a variety backgrounds, skills and experience and especially for women and rural communities.

Tourism researchers and planners agree about the potential of tourism in revitalising the rural economy. Similarly the studies have also proved that tourism cannot bring desired results in rural areas unless the residents have control and share in the decision- making and benefits distribution processes. A study was conducted in Hamilton county in the state of Florida, USA. It was one of the economically least developed areas in the USA and was slowly emerging as a rural tourism destination. The study was conducted through in depth interviews. The

\textsuperscript{23} Roger Harris and Dong Vogel (2004),” E-commerce for Community- Based Tourism in Developing Countries”, Department of International System.
study found that there was a the need for increased participation and involvement of the residents.

B. Vijayakumar and Pillai K R\textsuperscript{24} conducted a comprehensive study on the problems and challenges faced by the tourism labour market in Kerala. The title of their study was Tourism Employment and Labour Market Issues (2008) The research comprised complete survey of raw facts about the labour market from the 1850s to the present. In many countries including India and especially state of Kerala, tourism was found fast emerging as a catalyst in the development process.

Though Kerala boasts of all tourism comprehensive and gapless the fact is otherwise as the research found that the tourism labour market is here highly seasonal and unemployment is acute in certain seasons. Again it is inferred that the wages paid in the sector are comparatively low in many cases. The annual wages especially for the cooks and waiters often fall below the poverty line. There is also lack of facilities for in service training, which would be highly helpful in creating qualified and skilled human capital. The sub-sectors of the industry offer considerable employment opportunities in the state. The major sub-

sectors are conveyance and transportation, tour operators, souvenir shops, performing arts and health rejuvenating medical treatment.

Sreekumar T. T and Parayil Govindan\textsuperscript{25} in their study on congestion and contradiction of Tourism as a Development Option: The case of Kerala, India (2002, Third world quarterly, 23 (3) p. 529-548) made the following observation from: 1990’s the government of Kerala started looking at tourism as an alternative source of income to the state. This was further confirmed by the state tourism department.

In Rural Tourism Planning and Promoting- Rural Tourism Promote Entrepreneurship; Jagmohan Negi (2011) According to him very few young people consciously chooses to become entrepreneurs. A few may decide that they want to work for themselves and run their even show; others are forced into the field to make a living or for a sheer survival.

3.2 RURAL TOURISM

Rural tourism gained a reputation in the last decade as an economic revitalisation tool, as well as a way to preserve and celebrate local culture and resources. Sharpley and Roberts \textsuperscript{26}(2004) note that


rural tourism offers a convergence of supply and demand and takes differing forms, develops within a vast range of physical, social and political environments, and results in a wide diversity of outcomes. Rural tourism is a dynamic phenomenon, both creating and reflecting change within its reach. This view provides a broad definition of rural tourism and is a view which has evolved since Lane’s\textsuperscript{27} (1994) much cited paper, which asked “what is rural tourism?”. His view was that rural tourism in its purest form should be:

1. Located in rural areas 2. Functionally rural – built upon the rural world’s special features of small- scale enterprise, open space, contact with nature and the natural world, heritage, ‘traditional’ societies and ‘traditional practices’. 3. Rural in scale – both in terms of buildings and settlements – and, therefore, usually small scale. 4. Traditional in character, growing slowly and organically, and connected with local families. It will often be very largely controlled locally and developed for the long term good of the area 5. Of many different kinds, representing the complex pattern of rural environment, economy, history and location.

Briedenhann\textsuperscript{28} (2004) along with others follows a common theme of rural tourism being adopted as a vehicle for the regeneration of rural areas, suffering economic decline or deprivation. This concept of rural tourism’s potential as a development tool is common, but so too is discussion about constraints affecting rural and peripheral area tourism development. Similarly, lack of experience and training amongst providers is a common constraint identified. It has been suggested that tourism continues to suffer from perceptions of it being low-skilled, low-income, and low value and being consequently regarded as low on innovation as well Mitchell and Hall\textsuperscript{29}, 2005 in their study it has been recognised that an intrinsic feature of rural tourism is small-scale business. Often, this feature means also that these businesses may be fragmented and diversified in nature. This fragmentation and diversification then leads a number of ‘weaknesses’, including limited market knowledge, low quality products/services, lack of finance, low levels of knowledge of tourism and tourists, and inadequate supporting infrastructures.


\textsuperscript{29} Mitchell, M., and Hall, D. (2005). Rural tourism as sustainable business: Key themes and issues. In D. Hall, I. Kirkpatrick, and M. Mitchell (Eds.), Rural tourism and sustainable business (pp. 3-16). Clevedon: Channel View
Small business owners start or enter businesses for a variety of reasons and it has been suggested that many small tourism businesses are initially stimulated by motivations, linked to preferred lifestyles, involving a different balance between income, way of life and the family Ateljevic and Doorne\textsuperscript{30}, 2000. This is probably epitomised by two individuals who decide to stop pursuing high pressure careers as employees, and seek an alternative lifestyle based around the family and shared activity in a small tourism enterprise (Hall and Williams, 2008; Morrison et al., 1999). This study seeks to investigate the experiences of business owners who have made these choices, and have established a rural tourism accommodation business. Women’s motivations in particular are investigated in this study and the reality of women’s entrepreneurship within rural tourism has also been widely examined.

3.3 MOTIVATIONS AND WOMEN’S EXPERIENCES

Levenburg\textsuperscript{31} (2002) notes that there is good reason to believe that the motives and goals of family firms in the rural and tourism sector are somewhat different from other sectors and from non-family business in


general, and it may be that female business owners in the rural and tourism sector are somewhat different also. Within the small business and entrepreneurship literature, “…there is some doubt as to whether current research approaches and methodologies adequately incorporate the “reality” of women’s entrepreneurship”. Similarly, Bird and Brush\(^{32}\) (2002) draw attention to gender perspectives on entrepreneurial processes, illustrating that a different viewpoint will add to our knowledge on how individuals perceive and operationalise entrepreneurship. The authors argue that venture creation is gendered in and of itself, and historically, the focus is on masculine processes and behaviours. They suggest that there is also an underexplored and unarticulated feminine set of processes and behaviours that influence new venture creation. “In particular, women’s entrepreneurship research would benefit from a multi-level design, taking into account the relationship between individuals and the environment”.

Gordon\(^{33}\)(1986). According to him women do have different experiences of business ownership, and the male should not be used to stand for the universal, as women have a different voice, a different


muse, a different psychology, a different experience of love, work, family and hope.

3.4 MOTIVATIONS

There is a body of literature surrounding motivations of those on the supply side of tourism; those specifically operating small businesses in the sector, and there is some literature specifically about family businesses in rural tourism, and women’s motivations within this. Motivation has been a recurrent theme in the farm tourism literature with suggestions that interest in starting/operating these businesses often relates as much or more to lifestyle, location, and leisure preferences as it does to a desire for profit or security (Getz and Carlsen\(^{34}\), (2005)). The tourist industry offers opportunities for relatively easy entry into business types that appeal because of small size (resulting in lower capital and operating costs, or greater manageability by fewer people), desirable location, or connection with leisure and lifestyle preferences. Shaw and Williams\(^{35}\) (1997) observed that non-economic reasons existed for many tourism/hospitality owners entering business in UK coastal resorts. For example, they wanted to be self-employed, hated their previous occupation, sought a better lifestyle, had personal reasons


for making a change, or preferred the location. The diversification theme has been reported by various authors, with Komppula\(^{36}\) (2004) reporting the situation in Finland and suggesting that diversification is one way for a small rural firm to reduce a firm’s risk of being too dependent upon one product, to gain growth and confirm the income of the owner-manager. However, it is often the case that entrepreneurs in the tourist industry are “…not motivated by a desire to maximise economic gain, who operate business often with very low levels of employment and in which managerial decisions are often based on highly personalised criteria”. Dewhurst and Horobin\(^{37}\) propose a model of a continuum for small business owners as being between commercial and lifestyle goals and strategies. They suggest a model with a broad two-point typology where owner-manager tendencies can be located between commercially oriented goals and lifestyle-oriented goals and between commercially oriented strategies for success and lifestyle-oriented strategies for success. For those business owners who are lifestyle-oriented, ‘their business success might best be measured in terms of a continuing ability to perpetuate their chosen lifestyle.


Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) in making a conceptualisation of the terms ‘constrained’ and ‘non-entrepreneurship’ they argue, that the quality of life, the pursuit of individualistic approaches and constrained business growth are characteristic of an emerging cohort of small tourism firms, which, lead to a further conceptualisation in the form of ‘lifestyle entrepreneurship’. These authors also go on to assert that non-economic, lifestyle motivations are an important stimuli to business formation, a theme echoed throughout the tourism entrepreneurship literature. Morrison et al. (1999) expand on this lifestyle element of motivations and provide a range of typologies and contexts surrounding tourism entrepreneurship. They identify ‘lifestyle’ as a significant element in the small tourism firms studied and note that these businesses are often initiated by the need to create a chosen lifestyle in which the needs of family, income and a way-of-life are balanced.

Nickerson, Black and McCool (2001) reported multiple motives for farm/ranch diversification into tourism: a need for supplemental income or to employ family members, tax incentives, social benefits such as companionship, developing a hobby, making better use of

resources, the example of similar successful businesses, and a commitment to educating the consumer about farm or ranch life. In a similar study amongst farm families with different characteristics, McGehee and Kim\(^{41}\) (2004) revealed the motivations for agri-tourism entrepreneurship among their Virginia (USA) farm families to be related to a desire for additional income, utilising resources and educating consumers. McGehee and Kim, however, noted that it was important to be aware of the economic dependence on farming operation, and perceived that popularity of agri-tourism activities were influential factors to motivate entrepreneurs.

Challenge and stimulation are also reported as motivations for tourism for small business operators. For example, Bransgrove and King\(^{42}\) (1996) reported from an Australian study that the top goals of owners/managers were evenly spread among challenge/stimulus, business opportunity, lifestyle, and long term financial gain. They also noted that lifestyle goals were twice as frequent in rural areas. Hall and

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Rusher\textsuperscript{43} (2004) confirm this lifestyle goal, with “to enjoy a good lifestyle” being reported as the second highest ranked goal; the first ranked goal was “to permit me to become financially independent” when getting started in the business from their study of Bed and Breakfast operators in New Zealand.

3.5 WOMEN’S PERSPECTIVE – RURAL TOURISM

Small business operators are, of course, not homogeneous. However, this fact seems to have escaped the notice of many writers on the subject, on motivations for starting a business in the rural tourism sector. They seem to assume that owners are a homogeneous group and that motivations will be shared across the sector and between genders. The majority of studies also tend to neglect to recognise as significant, the predominant female operatorship of rural tourism accommodation operation and carry little empirical work focussing on the motivations of women. O’Connor\textsuperscript{44}(1995) however, reported that agri-tourism efforts in island communities off the coast of the UK were commonly spearheaded by the female head of the household. He also reported that

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it would “make sense for gender to play a role in agri-tourism entrepreneurship” and some existing research supports this view.

Chalmers and Joseph⁴⁵ (2006) strike a chord when they comment that: To observers in the early 1990s it appeared that rural research generally paid only limited attention to the geographies of rural people, often choosing to ‘privilege particular conceptions of reality over others’ by focusing on the narratives of the majority, or those who shape social constructions of ‘reality’”.

The reality of the experience of women starting Rural Tourism businesses is not a reality which has been widely explored in the rural literature. As noted by de Bruin et al⁴⁶; 2007, within the small business and entrepreneurship literature, there is some doubt as to whether current research approaches and methodologies adequately incorporate the “reality” of women’s entrepreneurship Bird and Brush⁴⁷ (2002) drew attention to gender perspectives on entrepreneurial processes, illustrating that different viewpoints could add to knowledge on how individuals perceive and operationalise entrepreneurship. As has been

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also noted previously, venture creation is gendered in and of itself, and historically, the focus is or has been on masculine processes and behaviours. Therefore, there exists an underexplored and inarticulated feminine set of processes and behaviours that influence new venture creation.

Rural women have been firmly connected to the domestic realm and family life and they are idyllic constructions that have endured along with the associated gender roles prioritising wifehood and motherhood. The longstanding traditional connection between women and their domestic location is not confined to the rural. However, for rural women, it has been an association that “has endured with little questioning or change”.

Midgley\textsuperscript{48} (2006) observes that as rural restructuring continues, accompanied by changing socioeconomic relations and available opportunities, an increasing number of women are participating within the formal economy, both in the labour market and as entrepreneurs. “Women’s lives and their actions are becoming more economically visible through work conducted into rural women’s economic roles, based primarily on levels of formal and informal employment, and the

negotiation of this within household strategies and community life. He goes on to note that the increased presence of women within the rural economy is deemed “economic” by mirroring or performing “masculine” economic attributes and actions. Consequently, women’s economic presence within the rural is portrayed as “different” in comparison to men, as associations with feminine characteristics and domestic responsibilities remain.

This is further illustrated by a UK report noting that the role of women in the rural economy frequently connects rural women to the home and traditional gender roles.

Midgley’s comments, which have been highly proceed in the conduct of this research, says that due to traditional associations of women with the domestic economy and the prioritisation of research and policy interests surrounding publicly traded waged labour, the inner workings and the economic practices of women within rural households have often been hidden from view. Shortall, similarly, observes that “the approach to rural development may have changed but a particular gendered ideology persists”. Moreover, the policy process sustains traditional patriarchal power relations by upholding and ultimately incorporating, masculine working practices and values, including
competitive bidding processes, the importance of private sector networking and partnerships, and the large scale nature of projects.

Lynch\textsuperscript{49} (1998) made an effort to make sense of motivations of female owners of small hospitality businesses by applying findings from literature on female entrepreneurship as a conceptual lens. Lynch formed four dimensions of motivations. These dimensions are: economic, educational, social/psychological and female entrepreneurship. According to him Female Entrepreneurship included business and resource efficiency motivations, with specific components being having business venture experience; using the business as a training ground; growth; efficient use of vacant accommodation; a lack of suitable business alternatives; lack of childcare facilities and lack of alternative employment. It was found that women were not homogeneous as a group, and that financial motivations ranked highest in relation to labour market and life cycle events and were the most frequently mentioned. However, wanting to fill time, in response to lifestyle changes and retirement were also key motivations, and “an interest in other people” was the most commonly volunteered reason for hosting.

Lynch also suggests that examination of this end of the accommodation sector would appear to benefit from consideration of the host in relation to the labour market and gender and that further research in this area may benefit from a deeper understanding of the host’s relationship with their family and their involvement in the guest experience. In addition, a deeper understanding of the significance of the home may be beneficial. Women also start rural tourism businesses to supplement income.

3.6 MOTIVATIONS

There is a body of literature surrounding motivations of those on the supply side of tourism; those specifically operating small businesses in the sector, and there is some literature specifically about businesses in rural tourism, and women’s motivations within this. Motivation has been a recurrent theme in the farm tourism literature with suggestions that interest in starting/operating these businesses often relates as much or more to lifestyle, location, and leisure preferences as it does to a desire for profit or security. The tourist industry offers opportunities for relatively easy entry into business types that appeal because of small size, desirable location, or connection with leisure and lifestyle preferences.
Shaw and Williams\textsuperscript{50} (1997) observed that non-economic reasons prompted many tourism/hospitality owners, entering business in UK coastal resorts. To cite a few reasons some wanted to be self-employed, some hated their previous occupations, some sought a better lifestyle, some had personal reasons for making a change and some preferred the location. Semi retirement was also a motive, and in some cases owners had been made redundant and forced to seek a new source of income. It is often the case that entrepreneurs in the tourist industry are “…not motivated by a desire to maximise economic gain, who operate business often with very low levels of employment and in which managerial decisions are often based on highly personalised criteria”. Dewhurst and Horobin\textsuperscript{51} propose a model of a continuum for small business owners as being between commercial and lifestyle goals and strategies. They suggest a model with a broad two-point typology where owner-manager tendencies can be located between commercially oriented goals and lifestyle-oriented goals and between commercially oriented strategies for success and lifestyle-oriented strategies for success. For those business owners who are lifestyle-oriented, ‘their business success might best be


measured in terms of a continuing ability to perpetuate their chosen lifestyle.

Black and McCool\textsuperscript{52} (2001) reported multiple motives for farm/ranch diversification into tourism: A need for supplementary by income or to employ family members, tax incentives, social benefits such as companionship, developing a hobby, making better use of resources, the example of similar successful businesses, and a commitment to educating the consumer about farm or ranch life any of these can work as an incentive to enter the arena. In a similar study amongst farm families with different characteristics, by McGehee and Kim\textsuperscript{53} (2004) revealed the motivations for agri-tourism entrepreneurship among their Virginia (USA) farm families to be related to a desire for additional income, utilising resources and educating consumers. McGehee and Kim, however, noted that it was important to be aware that acres owned, economic dependence on farming operation, and perceived popularity of agri-tourism activities were influential factors to motivate entrepreneurs.


Page and Getx 54 (1997) who documented “special challenges facing rural tourism businesses in general”, focused on small family business located in small towns or rural areas and within the tourism and hospitality sectors and found from a sample survey of nine owners that starting up a family business in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors involved a number of generic entrepreneurial motives and goals, but that location, lifestyle, and legacy goals were revealed to be predominant in tourism and hospitality business. Anderson, carlsen and getz went further, to suggest some start up motives and goals for family businesses in tourism but these authors extended the preview a derive to continue also included to continue or create a family legacy, to improve their economic position, to live in the right environment, or to pursue a desired lifestyle, with the business providing the means.

Hall and Williams55 (20080, conducted that “Entrepreneurs, however are not driven solely by profit since the desire for prestige and the constraints and obligations of membership of a particular group may also influence behaviour”.

3.7 WOMEN’S PERSPECTIVE

Rural Tourism in small business operators are, of course, not homogeneous. However, this fact seems to have escaped the notice of many writers on the subject, with the literature on motivations for starting a business in the rural tourism sector tending to assume that owners are a homogeneous group and that motivations will be shared across the sector and between genders; says Getz and Carlsen, 2005. The majority of studies also fail to recognise as significant, the predominantly female operatorship of rural tourism accommodation operations with little empirical work focussing on the motivations of women in McGehee et al., 2007. He reports that it would “make sense for gender to play a role in agri-tourism entrepreneurship” (p. 281) and some existing research supports this view (e.g. Jennings and Stehlik, 2000; Neate, 1987; O’Conner, 1995). Neate (1987) however, reported that agri-tourism efforts in island communities off the coast of the UK were commonly spearheaded by the female head of the household.

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The reality of the experience of women starting rural tourism businesses (for various and different reasons) has not been widely explored in the rural literature. Bird and Brush\textsuperscript{59} (2002) drew attention to gender perspectives on entrepreneurial processes, illustrating that different viewpoints can add to knowledge on how individuals perceive and operationalise entrepreneurship.

Little\textsuperscript{60} (2002) opines that rural women have been firmly connected to the domestic realm and family life; idyllic constructions that have endured along with the associated gender roles prioritising wifehood and motherhood. Midgley\textsuperscript{61} (2006) observes that as rural restructuring continues, accompanied by changing socioeconomic relations and available opportunities, an increasing number of women are participating within the formal economy, both in the labour market and as entrepreneurs. “Women’s lives and their actions are becoming more economically visible through work conducted into rural women’s economic roles, based primarily on levels of formal and informal employment, and the negotiation of this within household strategies and

\textsuperscript{60} Little, J. (2002). Gender and rural geography: Identity, sexuality and power in the countryside. Harlow: Pearson Education.
community life”. He goes on to note that the increased presence of women within the rural economy is deemed “economic” by mirroring or performing “masculine” economic attributes and actions. Consequently, women’s economic presence within the rural is portrayed as “different” in comparison to men’s, as associations with feminine characteristics and domestic responsibilities remain. This is further illustrated by a UK report noting that the role of women in the rural economy frequently connects rural women to the home and traditional gender roles.

Midgley comments, priced very high for this research, indicate that owing to traditional associations of women with the domestic economy and the prioritisation of research and policy interests surrounding publicly traded waged labour, the inner workings and the economic practices of women within rural households have often been hidden from view. Moreover, the policy process sustains traditional patriarchal power relations through favouring, and ultimately incorporating, masculine working practices and values, including competitive bidding processes, the importance of private sector networking and partnerships, and the large scale nature of projects.
The literature provided by Shortall\(^6\) (2002) offers valuable insights into gender relations and their functioning within rural society; for example, the often subordinate positioning of women and that behaviour is deemed conventionally appropriate to enable the role of a “good” rural woman to be performed.

### 3.8 WOMEN AS BUSINESS OWNERS

Early studies concentrated on descriptive accounts of the characteristics and motivations of women in business and their experiences of business ownership particularly at start-up (Schwartz\(^6\), 1976). Watkins and Watkins\(^6\), (1983) succeeded in drawing up a demographic profile of women entrepreneurs. Criticism was levelled in particular at the small size and therefore, lack of representativeness and reliability, of these early studies of female entrepreneurship. Research has continued since this time, but often still with the preoccupations, previously held out regarding the characteristics and motivations of

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women entrepreneurs. Carter et al\textsuperscript{65}. (2001), however, effected a greater specialisation by developing, it into many sub-themes. He published well over 400 academic articles directly on the topic of female entrepreneurship. The issue of women as business owners is important as a context to identify the gendered dimensions of copreneurship. The importance of gender in tourism and in entrepreneurship and small business management, though understudied, cannot be overlooked. The fact that and gender plays a role in rural tourism entrepreneurship is confirmed by Jennings and Stehlik\textsuperscript{66}, 2000.

Still\textsuperscript{67} (2003) surmises that as more has become known about women small business operators and their businesses, the motivations of why women enter small business or self employment are now being categorised into ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors with the evidence suggesting that ‘pull’ factors have more impact than ‘push’ factors. Push factors include restructuring and downsizing that has eroded the availability of once secure jobs, lack of job opportunities, whereas pull factors include the promise of independence, flexibility, and the opportunity to escape


barriers in paid employment. The development of the ‘push-pull’
scenario raises the issue that women attracted to small business and self-
employment are not a homogeneous group either in terms of their
motivations or the nature of their businesses. Dupuis and de Bruin\textsuperscript{68}
(2004) note the advancement beyond the push/pull dichotomy, with the
theorisation of the often ‘complex system of interacting motivations’,
such as those identified by Orhan and Scott\textsuperscript{69} (2001), under the terms
‘dynastic compliance’ ‘natural succession’, ‘forced entrepreneurship’
and ‘no other choice’.

3.9 FINANCE AND RELATED ISSUES

Finance remains a dominant theme in the literature on gender and
enterprise. Carter, Anderson and Shaw\textsuperscript{70} (2001) stress four areas of the
financing process that have been consistently noted as posing particular
problems for women. These are: Women may be disadvantaged in their
ability to raise start up finance; Guarantees required for external
financing may be beyond the scope of most women’s personal assets
and credit track record; Finance for the ongoing business may be less


available for female owned firms than it is for male enterprises; Female entrepreneurs’ relationships with bankers may suffer because of sexual stereotyping and discrimination.

There is conflicting evidence about whether finance poses problems for women starting and running businesses. McGregor and Tweed\(^\text{71}\) (2002) in their studies of the networking, mentoring and growth of female business owners and their enterprises found only 24.7 percent of women listed finance as a difficulty for their small scale business.

Robb\(^\text{72}\) (2002) found in her study focusing on survival between men and women-owned business start-ups, found and the difference between minority and non-minority owned business start-ups found that some groups faced greater obstacles than others in starting successful business ventures. Even after giving allowance for firm characteristics such as industry, employment, legal form, organisational structure, location and business age, she found women owned businesses were still less likely to survive than businesses owned by men.

More recent studies of resource acquisition at start-up have increasingly focused on gender differences in access to human and social capital, as there is now a growing body of evidence that suggests


that a woman’s pre-venture labour market experience has a profound
effect on her ability to mobilise appropriate start-up resources.

3.10 MANAGEMENT OF FEMALE OWNED FIRMS

While a preoccupation with start-up permeates the female
entrepreneurship literature, a key debate, however, as to whether the
barriers encountered by women at start-up have a long-term effect on
business performance or whether these constraints dissipate after start up
has not been successfully negotiated. In relation to the more dominant
themes such as motivation, and financing, comparatively little in-depth
research has been undertaken on the issue of gender and business
performance. It is often argued that women enter business to pursue
intrinsic rather than financial goals. Caution should be given to studies
demonstrating marked differences in business performance, as Carter,
Anderson and Shaw\textsuperscript{73} (2001) stress, not only are the conclusions
potentially premature, given the scarcity of previous research, there are a
number of complicating factors such as industrial sector, prior
experience, founding strategy, business age and presence of co-owners.

the academic, popular and internet literature. Report to the Small Business Service.
Glasgow: Department of Marketing, University of Strathclyde.
Watson\textsuperscript{74} 2003 reveals that there is a difference, however in the business sectors in which female entrepreneurs tend to operate. Women seem to be concentrated in the labour intensive retail and services industries. As these industries have above average failure rates, when compared with those such as manufacturing, it is vital to control the effects of industry. When studying failure rates of small and medium sized industries, he found there was no significant difference in the failure rates of male and female-owned (controlled) businesses.

Buttner\textsuperscript{75} (2001) reported that the management styles of female entrepreneurs were best described, using relational dimensions such as mutual empowering, collaboration, sharing of information, empathy and nurturing. McGregor and Tweed\textsuperscript{76} (2002) found that networked women, who were better educated and more affiliative by nature, were more expansionist than both other female small business owners and men. They argue that their findings confound earlier research, suggesting women are less growth-oriented and wish only to satisfy intrinsic needs from their businesses.

Engagement with sociological approaches, in particular, has enabled a more insightful, qualitative analysis of the entrepreneurial processes, used by both men and women. Gender and entrepreneurship are enacted as situated practices and codes of a gendered identity are kept, changed and transgressed by constantly sliding between different symbolic spaces.

An increasing theoretical sophistication, particularly noticeable in the engagement within sociological and feminist approaches which have opened up the field to include insights into race, class and family issues, is starting to produce a more complete picture of women’s participation in the small firms sector. Brush\(^77\) (1992) suggests that women entrepreneurs integrate their business with their family, societal and personal relationships. Walker and Webster\(^78\) (2004) found in their study on home-based business that there are some clear gender differences in initial motivation and rationale for operating from home, with many women choosing to do so because of the convenience it afforded them while having to balance work and family. Kirkwood and Mackie\(^79\)

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stress while flexibility is often seen to be an advantage of entrepreneurship, for many women entrepreneurs flexibility in terms of work and family is somewhat of a myth, balancing and managing the work-family divide being a continual struggle.

While some researchers have described the area of female entrepreneurship as neglected, the area is more accurately defined as being under-developed. While there is no real shortage of academic research in the area, there is a clear lack of cumulative knowledge and a failure to adequately conceptualise and build explanatory theories.

3.11 GENDER AND TOURISM PRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship ventures provide a dynamic environment which gives an opportunity to examine gender and power relations as the dynamic interaction of systems of love and work. (Marshack, 1994). Gender relations in tourism reflect wider social relations, so research integrating tourism and gender makes an important contribution to both tourism research and wider social sciences. Recognition of the centrality of gender as an organising framework of conceptual analysis in tourism studies is a relatively recent phenomenon. And, until the 1970s, the study of tourism emerged only as a sideline to other more

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"serious" research topics. The tenets of gender analysis within tourism study are even younger. Whilst the situation is clearly different now, until recently the integration of tourism and gender research was fairly rare. Aitchison and Reeves\(^81\) (1998) suggest that the establishment of an area of tourism and hospitality research, defined as feminist tourism studies cannot be compared with the strides made in establishing feminist leisure studies, during the 1990s. As Richter\(^82\) (2001) states

"Given the fact that tourism is the world's largest industry and women make up more than half the globe's people, it is striking that scholarly studies of tourism in general are largely drawn from the last quarter century. Academic research on the linkages between gender and tourism are of even more recent vintages, largely from the last decade".

It is important to stipulate what is meant by the term gender. Henderson\(^83\) (1994) and Small\(^84\) (1999) frame gender as a construction based on biological essentialism. Swain\(^85\) (1995) defines gender as:


A system of culturally constructed identities, expressed in ideologies of masculinity and femininity, interacting with socially structured relationships in divisions of labour and leisure, sexuality and power between women and men.

As gender is a social construct, its meaning will vary between societies and over time. Kinnaird and Hall\textsuperscript{86} (1996) advocate that gender as a principle organising social arrangements, behaviour, and even cognition, addresses systemic change over time and therefore needs to be positioned with analyses. Understanding the structure and dynamics of gender is central to the analysis of social organisation, gender relations and social progress.

The concept of power has also been raised as being central to the study of gendered relationships between men and women. Several early authors frame tourism processes as involving notions of power and control. These processes are constructed out of complex and varied social realities and relations, often hierarchical and unequal. Power relations exist in many of the relationships to emerge within tourism, yet

they are focused much more acutely at the local level where issues of race, class and gender can be analysed as significant political power relations. They explain that tourism activity and development is a two-way process, dependent upon the social relations present in both the host and the guest societies is as stated by Cooper\textsuperscript{87}(1994).

Enloe\textsuperscript{88}(1990) draws attention to assumptions about power and tourism. The first one is an assumption that power relations are invariably weighted on the side of foreign or 'first world' tourists, given that developed countries of the West represent overtly dominant tourism consumers. Another one is that tourism is primarily a manifestation of patriarchy, which involves exploitation of local women. Power relations, like gender relations, are not set in concrete, and can change. The dynamics of these relationships demonstrate that dominance and power are not static. Instead, they are situational, constantly negotiated and contested, and therefore shift. As has already been mentioned increased employment and other societal changes have led to substantial change in the role of many women. Social change shapes and challenges global and local power relations and gender roles.

\textsuperscript{87} Cooper C P (1994). Gender and Tourism : Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management, 57-78.
Pritchard\textsuperscript{89} (2004) argues that tourism processes are gendered in their construction, presentation and consumption in different and diverse ways, which are temporally and spatially specific. To date, the objects of tourism gender research have almost exclusively been women (as opposed to women and men) and research has largely focussed on employment patterns and sex tourism. Two collections of work in the mid-1990s made empirical and conceptual contributions to tourism research and this has been continued by authors such as Kerfoot and Korczynski\textsuperscript{90} (2005). Lucas and Deery’s\textsuperscript{91} (2004) review of hospitality journal articles found that the research agendas mirrored those seen in mainstream human resource research and theory, focussing on general human resource management, employee resourcing, employee development and employee relations. However, they noted only one article in major hospitality management journals that listed gender as a key word. Kerfoot and Korczynski (2005) wrote on the topic of gender and service work and listed those jobs involving direct contact with service-recipients and reported that “…gender stereotypes about women’s ‘proper’ place in relation to paid work and their presumed


attachment to so-called ‘softer’ skills in service work act to reinforce and reproduce gender division in the workplace.

Hakim\(^\text{92}\) (1979) observes that within tourism employment, men and women tend to be segregated horizontally into different occupations, although the degree of segregation depends on the nature of the work, with the greatest degree of segregation found among the semi-skilled, domestic and service-type occupations, “many mirroring functions carried out in the home”.

### 3.12 FRAMEWORKS FOR GENDER ANALYSIS IN TOURISM RESEARCH

It is argued that production and supply of tourism is gendered, reflecting relationships dictated by tradition and societal norms in which significant power, overt and covert, is held by men. The majority of tourism research analysing women in a work capacity is the production/supply-oriented research on gender and employment. A feature of this body of knowledge is the predominant focus on characteristics that constrain women's employment in tourism industries. It is evident from the literature that in tourism sectors women stand confined into particular jobs and areas of operation.

Kinnaird and Hall\textsuperscript{93}, (1994) feel that it is evident that the western perceptions of women's roles have also permeated transnational tourism organisations and diverse cultures. Nonetheless, the significance of new work opportunities and changing gender relations appears to be relatively unexplored in the context of tourism. Knutson and Schmidgall\textsuperscript{94} (1999) stress that career advancement in any environment is a joint endeavour between employee and the organisation. So further research, beyond descriptive, aggregated and anecdotal studies is required to uncover the positions, and more importantly, the experiences of women in the hospitality and tourism industries. Traditional roles for men and women persist in the expanding tourism labour market. The notion of women's work in tourism tends to reinforce gender stereotypes and promote inequities that support the control of the industry and power relations by men. Societal norms that dictate the behaviour of women do not always sit well with the social skills required by a producer of tourism activity. Sinclair\textsuperscript{95} (1997) found in Northern Cyprus, Bali, and Mexico that prevailing norms of social sexuality limit

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\textsuperscript{94} Knutson, B. J., and Schmidgall, R. S. (1999). Dimensions of the glass ceiling in the hospitality industry. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 40(6), 64-75.
local women's contact with tourists, access to paid employment and social interaction. Norms are powerful as they are often intangible and difficult to rationalise. Work in tourism, as in other industries, is organised along gender lines and generally conforms to dominant gender norms. In rural tourism, particularly farm stay operations, this may be an advantage, with the “norm” of women providing a welcoming host role, fitting well with the necessary functions and operations of such an enterprise. The concept of emotional labour may also be of relevance here as interacting with guests in a rural tourism environment involves demonstrating a willingness to be of service. The management of such emotional display has become known as emotional labour. Studies of emotional labour, in tourism, however, have largely focussed on jobs with clearly designated tasks, relatively transitory interactions with guests and a clear divide between work and leisure. Guerrier and Adib\textsuperscript{96} (2003) studied tour reps and their engagement with guests, where the boundaries between work and leisure blurred, but there does not appear to be any significant published research on the concept of emotional labour in regard to self-employed individuals in tourism.

Women may benefit from tourism development, particularly rural tourism development as it provides many with employment. Tourism employment is more desirable, or simply more accessible to women than other forms of employment. A more recent development, away from the traditional focus, is the increasing body of research on women undertaking entrepreneurial activity in tourism. Hull and Milne\(^{97}\) (1998) argue that entrepreneurship in tourism has the potential to transform traditional gender roles, bringing about a broader social change. They argue that "gender divisions of labour are being challenged through employment opportunities for women that are resulting in greater independence through the application and adaptation of domestic skills in the public domain". The extent of women's endeavours in tourism employment and enterprise is influenced at the macro level by societal norms and at the micro level by domestic roles in relation to family and household.

The benefits for women of engaging in tourism activity are said to include gaining greater economic independence, and thereby greater control of their lives. Within the tourism and hospitality industries, home-based and craft businesses are reported to represent a highly

specialised segment and women may participate in tourism because it often can be fairly easily accommodated with other roles, thus gaining permission from household and society. Family and household status largely determine employment opportunities in tourism for women who often combine reproductive and productive duties in order to access the market.

3.13 STUDIES CONDUCTED IN INDIA ON WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Vinze\textsuperscript{98} (1987) in her work titled, “Women Entrepreneurs in India”, states that since women entrepreneurs need constant guidance in matters pertaining to financial discipline, it would be mutually beneficial if the bankers and women entrepreneurs learn to appreciate each other’s view points. More attention should be paid to matters like a stream-lining of the assistance required, co-ordination of procedure and a better code for assistance agencies. She further feels that management skills are indispensible and women entrepreneurs need to be trained in this area. She also studied the socio-economic background and the factors that contributed to entry into business of women entrepreneurs in Delhi. Corroborating with

the above mentioned findings, she highlighted the cultural aspects. It is harder for women to take 'calculated risks' that are essential to entrepreneurship, as they are the custodians of the society in the maintenance of cherished values, habits, and accepted norms of conduct.

Cronie (1987) has studied the motivating factors in aspiring male and female entrepreneurs and found that compared to men, women are less concerned with money making and often choose entrepreneurship as a result of career dissatisfaction. They also see entrepreneurship on account of as a means of simultaneously meeting their career needs and child care roles The primary motives for engaging a women in entrepreneurial activities are;

**Pull Factors**

1. Absence of family support, limited family support.
2. Limited access to finance, lack of information and awareness, procedures and delays, scepticism of lending agencies
3. Lack of technical, business and financial information and experience
4. Limited education and training.

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5. Desire for gainful time structuring -preferring the flexibility of time afforded by an entrepreneur versus an employee.

**Push Factors**

1. Responsibility due to death of a near relative
2. Special qualifications attained
3. Joining the family business
4. Financial difficulties

Further, in developing countries women entrepreneurs face considerable percussions within their families and social relationships because of the role transformation from that of the traditional homemaker to a business person. To cope with these psychological stresses women require great confidence and mental resolve. Researchers do believe that these psychological traits like need for achievement, power, and affiliation are those that can be developed.

G.S. Pranjyyothi and T.M. Sujatha\(^{100}\) (1990) in an article 'Entrepreneurship Development among Rural Women', point out the various activities done by women and about various rural development programmes, initiated by the government and many other agencies of Karnataka. In recent past, considerable success has

been achieved in developing the human capital resource and one such organization is The TESCOK Technical Consultancy Services Organization Karnataka. It organized stimulatory, supportive activities to bring women outside home and to motivate them to be entrepreneurs. The training course content was designed to cover the various activities which included different stages from the purchase of raw materials to the sale of finished silk at silk exchange. All the sessions were dealt with practically. During practical training, groups were formed with team leaders to see that the participants get equal experience rotation wise. After training, the regular follow up extended by the TECSOK, helped in obtaining financial assistance for new projects. There are opposing theories even those that claim that there are no major gender-related differences in the approach of entrepreneurs to setting up and running their business.

Shanta Kohli Chandra\textsuperscript{101} (1991) in her ‘Development of Women Entrepreneurship in India - A Study of Publication and programmes’ reveals that several socio-economic factors 'are influencing the women entrepreneurs. The main findings about the socio economic factors, affecting the women entrepreneurs are: (1)

the majority of the entrepreneurs are young and have all the vigour and time to pursue their venture to see them fully grown. (2) Majority of women did not belong to the business families. They were young entrepreneurs who took the challenge on their own initiative and motivation. (3) Marital status or family bindings in the majority of the cases did interfere significantly in continuing with the enterprise. (4) About 60 per cent of the entrepreneurs had undergone some training before starting the enterprises (5) Religion wise distribution showed that the majority belonged to Hindu religion (6) Majority of entrepreneurs did not have any experience in any business ventures before starting their own business.

Kirve and Kanitker\textsuperscript{102} (1993) in their work, pertaining to rural women, discuss the experience of a Pune-based Non Government Organisation (NGO) – Jana Prabodhini (JP) in developing income generating activities for rural women through skill training in technical and business areas. The study revealed that the awareness building, which was incorporated as a part of the training input, proved extremely useful in building confidence in the trainees. Subsequent interaction with trainees during evaluation showed a

\textsuperscript{102} Kirve, Harish and Kanitkar, Ajit; (1993) “Entrepreneurships at the Grass Roots; Developing the Income generating capabilities of Rural Women” The Journal of Entrepreneurship, Vol 2, No2
definite change in the mental makeup of most of the trainees. It was also found that certain issues, apparently trivial, assume significance in the dynamics, operating in the villages. For example, the refusal of the family members to encourage the purchase of an asset or unmarried women in the house, points to a subtle but visible gender related discrimination. The authors recommended that Entrepreneurship Development Agencies (and not only NGOs) need to get involved in income generating activities. Nothing else would serve the cause of entrepreneurship development in the rural sector in a positive direction.

Kaur and Prashar (1993) in their work on entrepreneurship amongst rural women dwell upon the problems being faced by rural women entrepreneurs arising for the conservative attitude of the society, the religious and social taboos, lack of confidence, male dominance, health problems, lack of proper infrastructural facilities, marketing problems, lack of adequate finance and lack of awareness about government schemes/incentives. The bitter experience of


certain rural women entrepreneurs also had a discouraging effect on budding rural women entrepreneurs.

Jyothi and Prasad\textsuperscript{104} (1993) in their study ‘A Profile of Potential Rural Women Entrepreneurs’ state that factors such as caste, community and religious do strongly influence the growth of entrepreneurship among rural women. The authors strongly advocate that women entrepreneurship must be given priority if we really want to uplift one of the most disadvantaged sections of the society, ie., women. The study underscores in real terms the necessity of an altogether different approach towards rural women entrepreneurs who are still in a helpless condition. The present approach of inviting women to participate in general EDP training is not of much help to rural women in view of their low educational qualification and poor economic condition. According to them the main reason which forces the rural women to take up business activities is the growing unemployment and their own low educational status.

Tulsi\textsuperscript{105} and some others (1995) in their study titled “Enterprising Women: A Case Study” state that so far women who have entered the field of entrepreneurship have been choosing

conventional fields such as dress making, embroidery, knitting and pickle making. But now with a shift or change in trend, women are venturing into non-conventional fields including computers, electronics, industrial security and stock exchange. And in these non-conventional fields they are doing well and in some cases doing better than their male counterparts. An independent investigation of sample respondents (all belonging to non-conventional fields) was undertaken by the researchers to identify the factors that motivated them to enter the field of entrepreneurship and helped them in sustaining and developing enterprises as well as tiding over the problems faced by them during the setting up and the development of their enterprises. Factors such as family background, family support and encouragement, independent decision-making, acquisition of relevant knowledge, skill and tricks of the trade, credibility in the chosen field, inter-personal skills, disciplined approach customer satisfaction and self-confidence helped these women in successfully launching and managing their business. Non-acceptance of a lady, running a non-conventional business was cited as the main problem at the initial stages of business which these women entrepreneurs successfully overcame through persistent efforts, consistency and commitment.
None of the entrepreneurs in the sample had availed of any financial assistance or loan.

Tara S. Nair \(^{106}\) (1996) in her work, titled “Entrepreneurship Training for Women in the Indian Rural Sector; A Review of Approaches and Strategies”, found that initiatives in terms of increasing both intellectual and physical resources directed to the cause of research and action in the field of women’s development were largely policy induced and devoid of any clear focus or strategy. The author suggests that any intervention strategy with the professed objective of reaching out to women, be it in the realm of creation of awareness, skill training or accessing financial resources has to recognize the strategic needs of rural women such as availability of drinking water in the vicinity, child care facilities, and easy access to health and education centres. The training programmes should take into account the opportunity structure existing in the society (corporative equal sharing of household work and development benefits by men and women conflicts) and its effect on women’s skill acquisition and specialization. It has been observed that the formal system, with its highly standardized approach and bureaucratic

machinery has not been able to appreciate the extra-economic dimensions of women’s development. Another suggestion is to follow the group approach both for income generation and awareness creation. The author advocates the integration of gender as a critical parameter in the policies and programmes, devised in the government as well as nongovernmental sectors.

Mallika Das\textsuperscript{107} (1999) made an exploratory study of women entrepreneurs in Tamilnadu and Kerala. The study examined the problems faced by women in initiating, running and succeeding in business and the differences between the experience of women in the developing and the developed worlds. The study also underscored the difficulties faced by women in getting funds for setting up business and meeting the working capital requirements. The women in the study differed from their western counterparts in family background, marital status incubator organisations issues and environmental factors (support service).

R. Ganesan, Dilbagh Kaur and R.C Maheshwari\textsuperscript{108} (2002) in their article “Women Entrepreneurs; Problems and Prospects” says that entrepreneurship as a strategy to promote enterprise can be

successful only if the same is duly imparted and conscientiously induced. The article establishes the key role entrepreneurial training can play in making the ventures, initiated by these self-motivated women self-sustaining. The article deals with the problems which the self-motivated women entrepreneurs confront and then highlights the prospects and the future challenges, identifies the factors which are influencing women to become entrepreneurs, and the constraints that a woman or her enterprise would normally face in the course of her conducting business and the gendered root of such problems. The suggestions are that these problems could be overcome by making investment in building network and alliances. The study highlights the fact that entrepreneurial training helps women entrepreneurs to become successful. Training programmes need to be reoriented towards empowering women entrepreneurs with traits and skill to meet challenging market situations. The authors feel that when more women initiate business without such formal training, one should probably then start investing resources into making them stand on their own.
Rajashree Saxena, Prof. R.K. Tripathi, and Rashmi Saxena\textsuperscript{109} (2008); their book is a discourse on selected issues with special focus on women’s search for self identity and their struggle for survival with dignity, development and empowerment. It deals with the changing identity of women in social and economic arena and the problems confronting them in the business world. It subsumes a comprehensive discussion and study of seminal issues related to women entrepreneurship, upholds women’s interests and rights and further seeks to defend the process of their socialization, entrepreneurial development and empowerment. Women entrepreneurs can overcome the obstacles in their way and appropriate to the economic opportunities open to them. Their survey brings out the need to create awareness among women entrepreneurs regarding a positive and creative attitude towards employees as a crucial human resource. Despite many social, psychological and economic barriers, women have come to the forefront in different walks of life and are competing with men. Thus, the women entrepreneurship has effectively and successfully expanded in the Indian social horizon.

Ms. Sujata Kumari and Dr. Vendana Kaushik\textsuperscript{110} (2008) made laudable efforts to study the problems of rural women entrepreneurship. It was conducted in the rural areas of Rajasthan with 60 rural women of whom half were engaged in some part of entrepreneurial activity. Information on the entrepreneurship among women was gathered and analyzed. The study points out that the government has an important catalytic role in helping rural population mobilize their own entrepreneurship. The most important duty is to provide a congenial environment for the women’s organizations to grow and to perform their functions fully and effectively. Often, they are unable to function effectively for lack of professionalism, technical competence and entrepreneurial skills. The result of the study highlights the presence of a number of risk factors viz. financial crises, accidents, draught, natural calamities and civil disturbance and losses during storage of products. Further de motivators identified in the study are classified into two categories- External and Internal factors. The external environment de motivators are lack of participation, group competitiveness and mutual trust. The internal environment de motivators are the problems faced in the collection

and the selection of raw materials. Owing to all these difficulties the rural women entrepreneurship is unable to contribute much to the economic welfare of women. Supplying raw materials and other resources, required machinery and equipment, arrangement of credit facilities, training and research as well as marketing assistance can enhance their competitive strength. The survey brings out the need to create awareness among women entrepreneurs about following a positive and creative approach towards the employees as crucial human resources. Under EDPs, women entrepreneurs are found to gain momentum all over the state and the country.

Neena Vyas, Savitha Balish\textsuperscript{111} (2009) conducted an investigation to study the involvement of women in direct selling enterprises and their income generation. In spite of the hostile traditional gender role expectations and attitudes in a developing nation like India, women were found coming up the field of business in a big way. The study concludes that it is easy for anyone to join any enterprise, as the membership fee is less than Rs.5000. Most women were found engaged in enterprises, producing typically women consuming products, meant for home care and personal care, such as cosmetics, kitchen ware, 

\textsuperscript{111} Neena Vyas, Savita Balsh, “Involvement of Women In Direct Selling Enterprises”, Journal of Social Science, Vol.21, No 3, Dec 2009.
nutritional foods, gift articles and jewellery. Almost all the respondents earned a monthly income ranging from Rs.5000 to 15,000.

Raminder Bhatia and Baljinder Kaur\textsuperscript{112} (2010) in their treatise, ‘Indian Women Entrepreneurs-Issues and Prospects, ‘say that the myth that a woman’s place is in the home has been buried once for all. Now they are not only job seekers but job givers too. But, sad to say, still Indian women have to play multiple roles in the family (as expected by others), which make it impossible for them to make use of the opportunities, created for their empowerment and emancipation. The study under review has its focus on women entrepreneurs’ vis-à-vis bearing, organization and innovation. Women entrepreneurs face two types of problems – general and particular. The studies made by some reputed authors have been reviewed for the purpose of this research. The factors motivating women entrepreneurship comprise both push and pull factors. The push factors are beyond one’s control where as the pull factors consist of inducements and incentives, which prompt a person to take up a particular career. No other factor can be as motivating as the success stories of a host of others. A good many Indian women entrepreneurs have braved a perilous sea of different entrepreneurial

styles. It augurs well that the Indian Government has come forward with various promotional schemes for the benefit of women entrepreneurs. The Government and various voluntary agencies should go ahead with effective measures to channelize the strength of the women towards the process of the industrial development of India. National and international cooperation can give a boost to the endeavours of women. It is high time that the world realized that the immense women potential could be utilized in the wider public interest, instead of confining it within the four walls of the home.

3.14 STUDIES CONDUCTED IN KERALA ON WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Entrepreneurship seems to be ideal for women seeking participation in the country’s economic development on considerations both private and public. The emergence of entrepreneurship is considered to be closely linked to social, cultural, religious and psychological variables and these changes seem to have become acceptable norms in the context of women at work in the Indian situation today, being alive to their potential for producing tangible results.
The Department of Economics and Statistics, Government of Kerala (1984) conducted a study on women-oriented industrial programmes in Kerala. The main objective of the study was to assess the involvement of manpower in this field and to analyze the difficulties and problems, faced by the women entrepreneurs, which impede the growth and smooth functioning of the units run or managed by them. It was supported by the views of 275 women entrepreneurs of Kerala. It revealed that nearly 82 per cent of women’s industrial units were still in their infancy and they faced the problems of

1. Capital
2. Marketing
3. Raw materials
4. Competition
5. Availability of power

Resia Beegam (1993) made an investigation into the problems of women entrepreneurs in Kerala. It was found that in spite of substantial support they obtain from the members of the family and the government, many of the women-run enterprises are running at a loss.

She found that more governmental support is needed for the betterment of their condition.

Kerala Women’s Commission\textsuperscript{115} (2002) conducted a study on the status of women entrepreneurs in Kerala. In this study the status of women in development programmes in Kerala was analyzed by taking a sample of 412 different entrepreneurial development units of Kannur district. It was revealed that the encouragement of officials in the case of government programmes and the encouragement from the responsible field staff of NGO programmes were the greatest inducements to women for setting up business concerns of their own in Kerala.

Dhanam\textsuperscript{116}, the Business magazine of Kerala made a study of about 100 women Entrepreneurs of Kerala in 2003 and 2009. The study shows that now more and more women are entering the field of Entrepreneurship in Kerala from the traditional areas moving up into the challenging non-traditional sectors. The main problem of Women Entrepreneur is the conflict they face between domestic and entrepreneur roles. Fifty principles have been formulated for Women Entrepreneurs follow in their entrepreneurial life and these principles were formed on the basis of the interviews with Women Entrepreneurs.


\textsuperscript{116} Dhanam, Vyavasaya Vanijya, Rubber Asia, Aug. 31, 2003-2009.
The researcher met the editor of the magazine and those persons who had conducted the study. Their efforts proved quite helpful in gathering an idea about the Women Entrepreneurs of Kerala. They have also given a brief sketch of the nine leading Women Entrepreneurs of Kerala.

Nirmala Karuna D’cuz\textsuperscript{117} (2003) conducted a study, titled ‘Constraints on Women Entrepreneurship Development In Kerala; An Analysis Of Familial, Social and Psychological Dimensions’. The study reveals that it is not the aspiration of women that has made them entrepreneurs; they have taken up this career under compulsion- in the absence of any other means of contributing to the family income. Again, most of them started business only after all their attempts to secure a regular, salaried job had failed. The biggest problem was reportedly in the areas of procurement of raw materials, the canvassing of orders and staying away from home for long hours, particularly late in the evening.

Dr. K.S. Chandra Shekar and Juby. R\textsuperscript{118} (2010) in their article ‘Enterprise Development and Sustainability-Need for Entrepreneurship Education for Women’ throws light on the need to incorporate women entrepreneurship in the curriculum in schools and colleges, with the

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main objective of achieving enterprise development and its sustainability in Kerala. This is essential in the present scenario to boost Indian economy into the vanguard of world economy. Kerala, a 100 per cent literate state, has the highest rate of educated unemployed in the country numbering over 40 lakhs on the live register of employment exchanges. A large number of women have entered the field of entrepreneurial ventures. But the vast majority of them are petty traders, beauty parlour owners and home-level manufactures of pickles, papads and the like. Only a few have entered the non-traditional areas such as engineering, retailing and exports. With all the socio-economic development going on in Kerala, the entrepreneurial culture has yet to set in. The present educational system has not been able to promote independent thinking, creativity, a spirit of innovation and motivation for setting a challenging and achievable goal. The article gives certain product-oriented suggestions for fostering women entrepreneurship and it lays particular stress on the fact that the concept of entrepreneurship must reach each and every corner of the country and boost the confidence of the entrepreneur.