CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

An attempt has been made to study the earlier studies which were very popular in the field of entrepreneurship. Having determined the research problem and its worthiness, the researcher had decided to make an empirical study of the problem. There had been a continuous research in the field of textiles entrepreneur which proves to be very useful and provides an insight into the objectives of the study. A brief account of important studies pertaining to textile entrepreneurs is presented as follows:

Watanabe (1970)\(^1\) found that in Japan, small entrepreneurs had to overcome various barriers in order to set up business. Competition appeared to be very severe, the difficulties and risks were also very high. Gustav Ramis said of the community centered entrepreneur that he lies somewhere between the Schempeterian autocentered entrepreneur and the caricature of Government officials.

Harris (1971)\(^2\) had conducted a study of 269 Nigerian women entrepreneurs engaged in different industrial activities like saw-milling, manufacture of furniture, printing, rubber processing, garment-making and banking. Harris found that the Nigerian entrepreneurs were almost successful in identifying opportunities and gaining command over resources, but they were relatively unsuccessful in the management of enterprises.


**Donnel and Anderson (1978)**³ studied women engaged in 10 traditional and 10 non-traditional fields to determine the variables contributing to women’s decisions to enter pioneering fields. Women who preferred male-oriented fields perceived these fields as more important, socially acceptable and prestigious.

**Reddy and Murthy (1979)**⁴ conducted a study of 18 women entrepreneurs in the industrial Estate in the Ananthapur district. Their study revealed that an entrepreneur’s family and educational background did not contribute significantly to the success of the enterprise. The study suggested a strategy for the development of backward areas.

**Surti and Sarupriya (1983)**⁵ in their study investigated the psychological factors affecting women entrepreneurs. They examined the role stress experienced, the effect of demographic variables such as marital status and type of family on stress, and how women entrepreneurs cope with stress. Results indicated that unmarried women experienced less stress and less self-role distance than married women. Women from joint families tended to experience less role stress than women from nuclear families. External locus of control was significantly related to role stress, and fear of success was related to result inadequacy and role inadequacy dimensions of stress.

Waddell (1983) in a study compared 47 women who were business owners to 47 women managers and 47 women secretaries on six variables: achievement, motivation, locus of control, sex-role masculinity, and availability of models for ownership—father, mother and others. It was found that the six variables considered simultaneously discriminated among the three occupational groups. The owners were higher than secretaries in achievement motivation, locus of control, and sex-role masculinity. Owners had more parental models (both father and mother) for ownership than either managers or secretaries.

Hadimani (1985) conducted a survey of 200 traditionally trading women entrepreneurs belonging to the weaving and non-weaving castes, in the handloom industry. His study indicated that caste attachment to the caste occupation was strong, but interestingly it promoted entrepreneurship in the case of the trading caste and hindered in the case of the weaving caste. He is of the view that, this dual role of caste in entrepreneurship is mainly due to the presence or lack of several social, economic, political, and educational and human resources factors.

Huntley (1985) used a case study approach to explore the life events and experiences that had influenced women to choose entrepreneurship as a career alternative. Data collected from 31 subjects showed that the subjects were determined, hard working and self-confident, which helped them in overcoming
financial hurdles. Most ventured into entrepreneurship because of a desire to be independent and to be in control of their lives. They were looking for a balance of personal and professional interests and admitted to career satisfaction, which transcended to other aspects of their lives.

Singh (1986)\(^9\) study based on some cases of successful women entrepreneurs aimed at identifying factors for success and for developing entrepreneurship for economic growth in a country. He examined the social values related to entrepreneurship, importance of entrepreneurship in economic development, governmental efforts to encourage entrepreneurs, factors influencing entrepreneurship, and suggested a model for entrepreneurial development.

Vinze (1987)\(^10\) in a study of 50 women entrepreneurs of Delhi, presented an empirical report about their perception of the prospects and future of their enterprise, problems faced, their involvement in the enterprise, and its effects on family life. The analysis revealed that all the 50 women entrepreneurs felt that the future prospects of their enterprise were quite bright. Only 10 per cent were aware of government organizations involved in promoting and providing support to entrepreneurs. Only a minority (11/50) of the entrepreneurs knew about government providing infrastructural facilities like preparation of project report, purchase of machinery for the industry, and provision of land and building, for setting up the industry but they


also reported that the procedures for getting the loan, credit and infrastructural facilities were very cumbersome.

**Seth (1988)**\(^{11}\) conducted an empirical study to explore some psychological characteristics of Indian women entrepreneur’s vis a vis their non-entrepreneur peers in terms of personality, self-concepts, and sex role orientation. The study found that women entrepreneurs as compared to their non-entrepreneurial peers were found to possess better cognitive qualities in terms of level of organisation and imagination, whereas non-entrepreneurial women were found to have more general intelligence than their entrepreneurial peers. Women entrepreneurs were also found to be more organized, imaginative, cheerful, self-assertive, decisive, ambitious, socially conscious, mature and integrated further found to have a higher overall self-concept than women in other professions. Larger number of women entrepreneurs (13 out of 20) was found to have a masculine sex role orientation, whereas greater number of (14 out of 20) non-entrepreneurial peers had a feminine sex role orientation.

**Bisht and Sharma (1991)** \(^{12}\) had studied the entrepreneurial planning and setting by surveying 150 women entrepreneurs of the Faridabad district in Haryana. The investigators found that in the modern setting the caste factor was not as important as the family factor, and that the inter-generational / intra-generational influences were the dominant factors deciding the course of entrepreneurial history.

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and its repetitive nature. An important finding of the study is that majority of the women entrepreneurs surveyed had hardly any business or traditional background.

**Fagensor and Marcus (1991)**\(^{13}\) examined women’s perceptions on the sex-role stereotypic characteristics of successful entrepreneurs and on the effect female role models have on these perceptions. The findings were that women working in female-headed firms weighted feminine characteristics more heavily than those in male-headed organizations suggested that the presence of female role models as the head of the firm may influence women’s characterization of entrepreneurship. In general, the study pointed out that feminine characteristics as compared to masculine attributes were perceived to be less congruent with being successful managers and entrepreneurs. The authors argue that if women were exposed to entrepreneurship through female role models, it will help encourage young women to perceive a fit between their sex-role socialized personality characteristics and entrepreneurship.

**Ohe, et.al., (1992)**\(^{14}\) presented the preliminary conclusions of a psychological study of entrepreneurial phenomena of women in Japan and the United States. They defined two distinct dimensions which characterized the difference between entrepreneurs and managers: (1) Personal Difference Index (PDI); (2) Corporate Difference Index (CDI). The primary findings was that U.S. and Japanese women entrepreneurs required a certain minimum personal and corporate difference to overcome the obstacles to become women entrepreneur.


Dolinski and Caputo (1993)\textsuperscript{15} studied the growth in women entrepreneurship over the past two decades. The study tested two rival theories – the disadvantaged worker theory and the liquidity constraint theory-in the course of examining the long-term self-employment/business ownership experiences of women. The results of the study indicated that as the levels of educational attainment increased, there was a rise in the incidence of initial entry, continuous ‘stayer’ and re-entry status among women. The findings supported the liquidity constraints theory that the less educated individuals were less likely to have accumulated assets and hence were more likely to face liquidity constraints that made it relatively difficult for them to pursue entrepreneurship. This called for disproportionately more efforts, especially in spheres of finance and human capital, to facilitate entry of less educated women into self-employment.

Allen and Carter (1996)\textsuperscript{16} in their research explored the nature of women entrepreneurs, their businesses, and how they may differ from their male counterparts in terms of characteristics, experience, skills, motivation and intent. Significant evidence from the study indicated that they lagged behind men-owned businesses in size as measured by sales and income. Investigators had also learned that the ultimate size of business reached appeared to be determined by the size at start-up.


Hisrich, et. al., (1996)\(^{17}\) in their study explored whether women’s perceptions of entrepreneurship differ from men’s perceptions. A sample of 267 women and 360 men respondents from Northern Europe, the United Kingdom, Ireland, US, and Australia completed a survey instrument comprised of 60 variables: 40 to perceive “entrepreneurship” and 20 to perceive “an entrepreneur”. Among the respondents, women generally perceived entrepreneurship more positively than men. In terms of egoistic variables (such as insolence, selfishness, and hardness), women’s means were lower than men’s. Women scored higher than men in the area of stereotypical entrepreneurial variables (such as activeness, inventiveness, desire to experiment, creativity, effectiveness, working hard, and taking responsibility).

According to Weeks (1997)\(^{18}\) NFWBO director of Research, “for the women entrepreneur, the process of starting and operating a new enterprise could be tremendously difficult in both the formal and informal sector because she often lacked the skills, education, and societal support system to facilitate her efforts. Although women’s efforts may be affected in many ways entrepreneurship among women is vibrant and growing internationally”.

Huq and Richardson (1997)\(^{19}\) in their study on women entrepreneurs in the industrialized countries suggested that women business owners had emerged largely from the educated commercially experienced segments of the female population. Yet


\(^{18}\) National Foundation for Woman Business Owners. Women entrepreneurs are a growing international trend, 1997 p.1.

the corresponding category of women in the developing countries had received little attention either from development planners or from academic investigators. This exploratory study looked at business ownership as an economic option for middle-income educated urban women.

**Caputo and Dolinsky (1998)** examined the role of financial and human capital of household member to pursue self-employment among females. The analysis revealed that business knowledge and cooperation of husbands in family matters contribute a lot in pursuing businesses. The findings further suggested that the government should provide necessary skills to women to ensure rapid growth of entrepreneurship.

**Glas and Petrin (1998)** analysed the entrepreneurial career choices of women entrepreneurs in Slovenia. The financial performance of small companies managed by women entrepreneurs were compared in this study with the financial performance of small companies managed by men counterparts. The study revealed that women tend to own relatively more service business than men; women managed businesses were significantly smaller than men-managed businesses; women-managed companies exported less than men-managed businesses.

**Alvarez and Meyer (1998)** in their study on “why do women become entrepreneurs?” revealed that, women entrepreneurs started their own business not

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because they lack business options but because it was a vehicle that allowed women to use, satisfy, and maintain high level skills. Not only do these skills gave women a competitive advantage when starting their own business, but it would also indicate that training programme for women entrepreneurs should be more sophisticated than what were currently available. The authors recommended that training programmes for women with higher levels of education and specific work experience related to business start-ups should be organized and conducted.

**Mallika Das (1999)** this study profiles women entrepreneurs who owned and managed small- to medium- sized enterprises in two southern Indian states—Tamil Nadu and Kerala. Based on their reasons for starting a business, the women were classified into three categories: 'chance', 'forced' and 'created or pulled' entrepreneurs. The paper argued that while there were similarities between these three groups in terms of certain demographic variables, they do differ in terms of critical business variables such as sales volume, expected growth and success factors. The start-up problems faced by the women entrepreneurs in this study were similar to those encountered by their counterparts elsewhere. However, the level of work—family conflicts were found to be lower in the case of the former.

**Punitha et. al (1999)** examined the problems and constraints faced by self-employed women in the Pondicherry region. A sample of 120 women were personally interviewed during the period from June to July 1999, of which 42

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belonged to rural and 78 to urban areas. The major problems faced by the rural selfemployed women were competition front better quality products, and marketing problems. The problems for urban entrepreneurs were, apart form the competition from better quality products, the difficulty in getting loans. The least problems faced by both rural and urban self-employed women were ignorance about schemes, distance from markets, and ignorance about agencies and institutions.

Bliss and Garratt (2001)\textsuperscript{25} examined the working of organizations for women in Poland. The paper examined various activities performed by these organizations to promote women entrepreneurs. Information was collected from 12 support organizations for women. The data collected from these organizations highlighted that the basic purpose of these organizations were to provide inputs to self-employed women in the field of professional ethics, to ensure protection of their rights and companies, to allow exchange of experiences, and other activities.

Ganesan, et. al., (2002)\textsuperscript{26} in their article stated that, Entrepreneurship as a strategy to promote enterprise can be successful only if the same is duly imparted and conscientiously induced. This argument holds strong particularly when such a strategy is being tried on women. In the present context many of the theories dealing with entrepreneurship had seen a divergence from practice. It seemed that many entrepreneurs were motivated on their own to start their own enterprises. Many of these entrepreneurs actually did not receive any structured entrepreneurial input. They


learnt the same through trial and error. Keeping these views on entrepreneurship, this article deals with the problems, which these self-motivated women entrepreneurs confront, and then highlights the prospects and the future challenges. The article established the role that entrepreneurial training can play in making the ventures initiated by these self-motivated women self-sustaining. The article identified the concern areas of these women who were in business and also proposed what kind of entrepreneurial training would be ideal. The authors felt that when more women initiate businesses without such formal training, one should probably then start investing resources into making them stand on their own. The article had also identified certain special factors and problems women in business generally confront and the gendered root of such problems. The suggestion was that these problems could be taken care of through investing in building network and alliances.

**Reshmi (2002)**27 this article examines factors that influence the growth of women-run firms in order to understand why so many of them remain small. The study proposes an integration of gender-related factors into generalized stages of growth models in order to broaden our understanding of growth patterns in women-run enterprises. A typology of women entrepreneurs is proposed and tested using a sample of Indian entrepreneurs. Differences in the factors influencing growth in women-owned firms are investigated in order to suggest how the main constraints can be addressed.

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Narayan and Geethakutty (2003)\textsuperscript{28} Women entrepreneurship has been recognized as an essential ingredient of economic development. Very high literacy rate and lack of employment opportunities paved way for many unemployed youth including women to take up small-scale business units. In this study entrepreneurial success index (ESI) was developed to measure the level of success of women.

The article by Handy, et. al., (2003)\textsuperscript{29} examined women entrepreneurs in the nonprofit sector. Entrepreneurial activity attracted certain kinds of individuals. Such self-selection is not a random event but was influenced by personal characteristics as well as socioeconomic and cultural factors. This article examined women entrepreneurs in a particular segment of the nonprofit sector in India to determine which factors influenced such self-selection. Their research confirmed findings by other scholars that nonprofit entrepreneurs received a high payoff from promoting social causes. Furthermore, they found that previous experience in the sector, beliefs, culture, social class, education, and family background also played an important role. They explored some policy implications of their findings.

Watson (2003)\textsuperscript{30} examined the failure rates among female-controlled businesses in Australia. The analysis of the study highlighted that the rate of failure in female-controlled businesses is relatively higher than male-controlled businesses. However, the difference is not significant after controlling the effects of the industry.


Smith-Hunter (2004) This article began with a look at women employment over the years and the historical place of women entrepreneurship in today’s economy. It continued by analyzing data statistically on women entrepreneurs in the United States across racial lines, with a particular focus on Hispanic women entrepreneurs. The article ends by examining the critical issues that were important for women entrepreneurs in today’s environment as well as the future implications of these issues.

Cistoldi Lee (2004) This article highlighted a case study of a non-governmental organization in Costa Rica that initiated a pilot program in 2002 to expand information and communication technology to 100 women nationwide through a free computer class. This program was developed in order to increase women's access to and control over technology. It was important to analyze the success of this and other programs from the perspective of the participants and to understand how such programs changed behaviors in the public and private sphere, on the micro and macro levels. The article specifically assesses how and in what ways this program altered job experiences for the women participants, modified their role within the family, reformulated the individual's perspective of self, and empowered the students. The data was collected over several months of field work and included over 20 in-depth, semi-structured interviews and two focus groups with 33 respondents. Qualitative methods were used to analyze the individual experiences of

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the students in the program to better understand the successes and failures of this type of program in the context of development for women in the Third World.

**Ganesh and Gill (2004)**³³ This paper was a critical examination of the “free agent” metaphor for entrepreneurialism as it is expressed in the discourse of women entrepreneurs in a Northwestern state in the U.S. They argued that the free agent metaphor serves to highlight empowering aspects of entrepreneurship, but hides several constraints. The free agent metaphor was especially evident in our participants’ stories about the reasons they chose to become entrepreneurs. Here, they identify themes of autonomy, confidence, opportunity and self-expression. The constraints hidden by the free agent metaphor was evident in the women’s’ description of their entrepreneurial experiences were gendered, and include discrimination, management and work-family balance issues. They concluded the paper by discussing the implications of their findings for understanding of empowerment and studies of hegemony.

**Kamalanabhan and Vijaya (2006)**³⁴ This research study focused on the psychological aspects of the entrepreneurial intention of small-scale women entrepreneurs in the manufacturing, trading and service sectors. The variables studied were life situation antecedence, personality, entrepreneurial motivation and business related variables. The tools used for the study were life situation antecedence scale,

personality questionnaire and entrepreneurial motivation scale. Three hundred women entrepreneurs from manufacturing, trading and service sectors and two hundred non-entrepreneurs from supervisory and clerical cadres from India participated in this study. Univariate and multivariate analyses were done to process the data. The results reveal that there are significant contributions of life situation antecedence, personality and business related variables in contributing to entrepreneurial intention in small-scale women entrepreneurs. The women entrepreneurs have been found to have lower psychological support, poorer work condition and lesser competence compared to women non-entrepreneurs in life situation antecedence. Certain life situation antecedence variables, personality variables and motivational factors were found to explain differences in the entrepreneurial intention of women entrepreneurs in the manufacturing, trading and service sectors.

**Lituchy, et. al., (2006)**

Research in indigenous entrepreneurship as well as women and entrepreneurship is growing. This paper presents 11 case studies on women Aboriginal entrepreneurs in Quebec, Canada. For Aboriginal peoples, small business and entrepreneurship is intimately linked to community and cultural survival. Within these communities, women assume major roles and are active participants and leaders in politics and in business. This research examines several models of entrepreneurship – traits, behavioural and environmental. The Aboriginal women entrepreneurs interviewed show a profound need for conformity and a strong tendency towards collectivism. The business strategies of this group are mostly

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focused on serving local community needs. This inwardly focused approach may be due to their collectivist orientation or to the availability of limited information on external markets for products and services. This paper concludes with some suggestions on policy directions to encourage Aboriginal entrepreneurship as a means of economic development, self-determination and community sustainability.

Low (2007)\textsuperscript{36} examined economic outcomes of female immigrant entrepreneurship in Sydney. The study showed that these entrepreneurs had contributed significantly to the creation of new businesses and jobs, in addition to other non-quantifiable economic benefits, to Australia.

Prema (2007)\textsuperscript{37} This paper analyzes the evolution of various concepts and definitions of entrepreneurship with special reference to women. It provides the present scenario of women entrepreneurs in India and the various challenges, which they are facing in the changing global scenario. It then focuses on marketing challenges faced by women entrepreneurs, and the various strategies used by them and related organizations to overcome the challenges.

Shankar and Vijayalakshmi (2007)\textsuperscript{38} The concept of entrepreneurship has gained worldwide popularity in recent years. Women are becoming entrepreneurs at a faster rate as compared to men. It is estimated that women entrepreneurs presently comprise 10% of the total number of entrepreneurs in India, and this figure is found

to be increasing every year. If the prevailing trend continues, it is likely that in another five years, women will comprise 20% of the entrepreneurial force. The women-owned enterprises in India have increased to 7%, with Tamil Nadu recording the highest growth of 18%. With this background, the research examines the motivating factors of women entrepreneurs in Chennai, the capital city of Tamil Nadu. The various motivators were categorized into 'Pull' and 'Push' factors. The study uses a descriptive research model, with the help of non-probability sampling design and a convenience method for sampling data collection. Data were collected from 47 respondents. It was found that many of the women entrepreneurs in this study were motivated by the 'pull' factors.

Sandeep, et. al., (2007)39 Entrepreneurship is now widely recognized as a tool of economic development in India. Because of this recognition, congenial supportive environment has been created over the years for the women and thus more and more women entrepreneur are getting involved in business as well as in self employment activities. Major objectives of the study are to ascertain the factors in the emergence of women entrepreneurs understand the type of entrepreneurship taken by trained and untrained women entrepreneurs. To examine difficulties faced by women entrepreneurs. The study reveals that there are several factors for emergence of women entrepreneurship in India such as family background, motivating and facilitating factors, ambitions, attitudes of family and society, government policy of funds, marketing systems, training programmes etc. At the end the paper makes some

suggestions for increase or promotion of women entrepreneurs and healthy growth of women entrepreneurs in India.

Maxwell and Yaw (2008)\textsuperscript{40} Entrepreneurs, nearly 50% of which are women, started most small businesses. Entrepreneurs are persons with some knowledge or skill in a business field, and some funds, who take the risk of venturing into business in various states of preparedness or unpreparedness. In the process of choosing a business area, deciding definitely to go into business, and going through all the agonies of getting the business started, entrepreneurs have few people to turn to for support and comfort. They tend to be loners, self dependent people characterised by a slight mistrust of other business people and workers. They keep their affairs to themselves, make all decisions, and carry the sole burden for all aspects of business operation. The purpose of this paper is to look at the characteristics of successful women entrepreneurs.

Reavley and Lituchy (2008)\textsuperscript{41} In this qualitative six-country analysis, we present self-reported definitions and determinants of success among female entrepreneurs in Canada, Ireland, Czech Republic, Poland and Japan. The women became entrepreneurs because they felt rejected: the ‘push factor’. While some women defined success in terms of profits, many used non-financial factors such as number of clients, number of employees, years in business, or because ‘my peers say so’. The


most important success factor was networking. Business education and training was second. Country differences are reported and the significance for new and established women entrepreneurs and the institutions supporting their efforts are discussed.

**Roomi and Parrott (2008)** In Pakistan, women entrepreneurs do not enjoy the same opportunities as men due to a number of deep-rooted discriminatory socio-cultural values and traditions. Furthermore, these restrictions can be observed within the support mechanisms that exist to assist such fledgling businesswomen. The economic potential of female entrepreneurs is not being realised as they suffer from a lack of access to capital, land, business premises, information technology, training and agency assistance. Inherent attitudes of a patriarchal society, that men are superior to women and that women are best suited to be homemakers, create formidable challenges. Women also receive little encouragement from some male family members, resulting in limited spatial mobility and a dearth of social capital. The research suggests that in order to foster development, multi-agency cooperation is required. The media, educational policy makers and government agencies could combine to provide women with improved access to business development services and facilitate local, regional and national networks. This would help integration of women entrepreneurs into the mainstream economy.

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Sierdjan Koster and Shailendra Kumar Rai (2008)\textsuperscript{43} analyses the possible link between entrepreneurship and economic development for the case of India. This link has been studied extensively for developed countries, but less so for developing countries. Using the GEM-model as a reference, we expect declining rates of entrepreneurship, as economic development opens up employment possibilities decreasing the number of necessity entrepreneurship. This pattern, however, is not found in the Indian case. Rather, entrepreneurship appears to be an important driver of recent economic growth. This can be explained by the fact that India is very much a service-based economy that facilitates small-scale firms. Although the level of entrepreneurship is increasing over time, the quality of the small firms remains rather stable; the share of registered firms remains equal over time. Given the importance of high-quality entrepreneurship for economic development, it seems that increasing the quality of entrepreneurship should be the main focus of policy measures.

Asa Hansson (2008)\textsuperscript{44} discussed in her study entrepreneurship is often credited with generating important positive economic externalities. For example, entrepreneurs are often credited for promoting innovation, discovering new markets, and serving as a mechanism for knowledge spillover. Governments increasingly view encouraging entrepreneurship as an important policy objective. Economists have long studied the determinants of entrepreneurship. Taxation has also been found to be important, in particular income taxes and capital taxes. One form of taxation that has


not been considered so far, however, is the wealth tax. The wealth tax is likely to influence entrepreneurship negatively, by affecting the pool of capital available to start up businesses as well as reducing the net return to successful entrepreneurship. This paper illustrates the impact of a tax on wealth on entrepreneurship using a simple model of the choice between becoming an entrepreneur or an employee. Actual data is then used to crudely investigate whether the wealth tax indeed has a measurable effect on self-employment in OECD countries, using increasingly sophisticated techniques. A difference-in-difference type estimator using the abolishment of the wealth tax as a “natural experiment” points to a consistent pattern of a perceptible, but small impact.

**Satyajit Majumdar (2008)** examined growth is understood variously by entrepreneurs, and their attitudes influence the goals and ambitions concerning growth. Their actions in this regard depend on the contextual conditions. In this article a model on growth strategy in small entrepreneurial organisations is presented and three propositions are made: (1) attitudes and vision of the entrepreneurs drive growth of small organisations, (2) entrepreneurs of small organisations conduct early search for strategic fit in the market and the environment, and (3) entrepreneurs of small organisations persist in their search for better fit in the market. The model reflects strategic and entrepreneurial dimensions of growth. The propositions can be tested in specific industry settings. First, the dimensions of growth as understood by the entrepreneurs should be analysed and then the process of finding a fit between the

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industry and its market opportunities should be mapped out to arrive at a robust strategy framework.

**Rajkishor Meher and Renubala Sahoo (2008)** analyse the causes of low growth/failure of small-scale industries (SSI) in a poor and industrially backward state like Orissa, notwithstanding its rich mineral resource endowments and a good number of professionally qualified and well experienced people heading the SSI units of the state as entrepreneurs. Based on a survey of the SSI units and interview of Oriya entrepreneurs by using a structured questionnaire in three of the largest and important cities of Orissa, the researchers have analysed the social, cultural and political factors that have stifled the growth of a conducive industrial climate for the success of SSI units in the State. Also, the factors that are responsible for the deficiency of good entrepreneurial quality among the Oriya entrepreneurs of the SSI sector have been looked into from the political economy and socio-political angles.

**Sujata Mukherjee (2009)** The rapidly changing economy has forced women to venture out as entrepreneurs. Although there are no concrete evidences of discrimination against women micro entrepreneurs, failure to provide collateral or guarantees reduces the likelihood of obtaining credit. Further, lack of marketing skills and technological know-how also act as impediments to the growth of their businesses. The present paper discusses the factors impeding the growth of women

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micro entrepreneurs and the catalytic role played by the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in creating appropriate entrepreneurial environment. The paper also discusses the supporting role in the process of entrepreneurship development among women.

**Pillania et. al., (2010)**\(^{48}\) Entrepreneurship has again gained currency across the globe and female-entrepreneurship has become an important component. India is one of the fastest emerging economies and the importance of entrepreneurship is realised across the spectrum. This research is a preliminary investigation in which the researchers identified 43 motives for starting business amongst women entrepreneurs. Principal component matrix was used for factor analysis and Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalisation was used for rotation, which yielded eight factors. The eight factors were labelled as Independence, Flexibility, Achievement, Money, Opportunity, Escape, Family Support and Recognition from other. The motives were further classified into push and pull elements (Turner, 1993) on which Wilcoxon-signed rank test was performed, the statistical test revealed that relatively pull motives attract women entrepreneurs more than the push motives for starting business.

**Pearl D’Souza and Zubin R. Mulla (2011)**\(^{49}\) examined the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and employee engagement by studying 101

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Indian managers across three companies. In addition, we studied the moderating role of three job characteristics (autonomy, skill variety and task feedback) on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and employee engagement. The results of this study show that individuals who score high on entrepreneurial orientation are likely to score high on employee engagement. In addition, we found that individuals high on entrepreneurial orientation experienced high engagement levels when their jobs were characterised by low levels of autonomy, low levels of skill variety and high levels of task feedback. The findings indicate that a proactive personality does compensate for some non-motivating elements of job design.

Keerti Prajapati and Keerti Prajapati (2011)\textsuperscript{50} in their article presents results of a study on the impact of entrepreneurial demographic characteristics (age, experience and education), entrepreneurial network structure (size, density and centrality), entrepreneurial network types (competitive and supportive) and entrepreneurial self-efficacy on subjective performance. The sample consisted of 148 micro and small enterprises in a textile handicraft and handloom cluster in Kutch, Gujarat, India. Regression analysis results suggested that size, density, centrality, entrepreneur self-efficacy, competitive network and supportive network predicted subjective performance significantly and together they accounted for about 56 per cent of the variance in the dependent variable. However, the unique contribution of the demographic variables and supportive network was not significant. Results are explained in the light of the theory of social capital and the entrepreneur cognitive

theory. The research has implications for policymaking, research and entrepreneurship training and education.

CONCLUSION

It is obvious to note that many researchers have contributed more research emphasis towards Entrepreneurial Development. But none of the study has highlighted their problems and prospects of textile entrepreneurs. Hence, the researcher has identified this as research gap. In order to fulfil the gap, the researcher has chosen this topic as his research work.