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WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE INDUSTRIAL MANUFACTURING SECTOR OF KERALA

Thesis submitted to the Cochin University of Science and Technology
for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Under the Faculty of Social Sciences

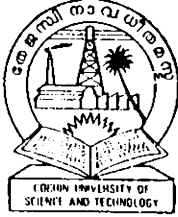
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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is the record of bona fide research work carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. N. Chandrasekharan Pillai, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Cochin - 22. I further declare that this thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title of recognition.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I take this opportunity to place on record my sincere gratitude to Dr. N. Chandrasekharan Pillai, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology (CUSAT), for his constant encouragement and meticulous guidance without which this thesis would not have been completed.

I am deeply indebted to Dr. K.C. Sankaranarayanan, Prof. and Head, Department of Applied Economics for his valuable suggestions and help throughout my work. My sincere thanks are due to Dr. M.K. Sukumaran Nair, Prof. C.M. George and Dr. Mary Joseph T. for their timely help.

I have benefited much from the discussions I had with several persons, particularly Smt. E.J. Vijayamma (Women's Industries Officer, Directorate of Industries and Commerce, Trivandrum), Smt. Leela Damodara Menon M.L.A. (President, Kerala State Women's Industries Association (KSWIA) and Smt. Suhra Rahman (Secretary, KSWIA). I express my deep sense of gratitude to them. I am also highly indebted to the entrepreneurs for their patience and good will in providing me with necessary information.

I am much obliged to Rev. Fr. Jose Alex (Principal) for making available the library facilities of Rajagiri College of Social Science, Kalamassery. I owe a lot to Miss. Elizabeth Abraham, Librarian, Department of Applied Economics for her encouragement and assistance. A special word of thanks is due to Librarian and staff of University Library and School of Management Library (CUSAT), Centre for Development Studies (Trivandrum), Directorate of Industries and Commerce (Trivandrum), State Planning Board, District Industries Centre, Small Industries Service Institute (Trichur) and Kerala Industrial and Technical Consultancy Organisation (Cochin).

I acknowledge my deep sense of gratitude to Smt. A.K. Susheela (Matron, Aiswarya, CUSAT) for her encouragement and prayers. I also cherish fond feeling of gratitude to my fellow research scholars and friends for their whole hearted support and generous help. I will be failing in my duty if I do not also express here my sincere and deep appreciation of the help I have received from Smt. Geetha R. Nair.

I am also indebted to ICSSR, New Delhi for their financial assistance, in terms of contingency grant.

My sincere thanks are also due to M/S. Thekkekolathu Enterprises for typing the work neatly and correctly.

Last, but not the least, the blessings and prayers of my parents were always with me throughout my work. I am deeply indebted to my husband - Tomy - for his unstinted encouragement. I also remember my children - Anitta and Antu - who missed me a lot during my research work.

ANNA V.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

In any country industrial development is the result of the constant striving of human agencies who respond to the business environment. This responsiveness of human agencies is termed as 'Entrepreneurship' ¹. The term 'entrepreneur' was coined by Cantillon in the 18th century. Kilby has likened the entrepreneur to a rather large and very important animal called 'Heffalump' hunted by many individuals but all unable to capture him. All claim to have seen him and have variously described him, but wide disagreement still exists among them on his particularities².

Schumpeter was the first to have recognised the importance of the entrepreneur in economic development. The personage, who is responsible for innovation is called the entrepreneur. Schumpeterian innovation is a creative response to a situation. Creativity is the essence of the entrepreneurial activity. The basic concept of entrepreneurship connotes an effectiveness, an urge to take risks in the face of uncertainties and an

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1. Sharma, S.V.S., Small Entrepreneurial Development in Some Asian Countries, Life and Light Publishers, New Delhi, 1979, p.39.
 2. Kilby, Peter, "Hunting the Heffalump", Kilby, Peter (Ed.), Entrepreneurship and Economic Development, The Free Press, New York, 1971, pp.1-40.

intention i.e., a capacity for showing things in a way which afterwards proves to be true³.

Many authorities have accepted the importance of innovation in business. Unique products and services come only from innovation. Peter Drucker has put it well in the following words, ". . . . innovation is more than a method. It is a new view of the universe as one of risk rather than one of chance or of certainty. It is a new view of man's role in the universe; he creates order by taking risks. And this means that innovation, rather than being an assertion of human power is an acceptance of human responsibility"⁴.

According to Mark Casson an entrepreneur is someone who specialises in taking judgemental decisions about the co-ordination of scarce resources. It is important for the entrepreneur to be reasonably proficient in all aspects of decision-making, rather than proficient in some aspects but inadequate in others. Entrepreneurship appears as a personal quality which enables certain individuals to take decisions with far reaching consequences⁵.

B.C. Tandon elaborately analysed the growth of entrepreneurship in India. To him, undertaking of an enterprise is thus entrepreneurship and one who undertakes it - one who combines capital and labour for the

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3. Schumpeter, J.A., The Theory of Economic Development (translated by Redverse Opic), Oxford University Press, New York, 1961, pp.66, 84-94.
 4. Drucker, Peter F., Land Marks of Tomorrow, Harper and Row, New York, 1959, p.19.
 5. Casson, Mark, The Entrepreneur : An Economic Theory, Martin Robertson and Company, Oxford, 1982, pp.11-34.

purpose of production - is an entrepreneur. This class is an employing class - the entrepreneur class. In the modern age entrepreneurs are the men who organise and direct business units. He is one who co-ordinates the factors of production in proper proportion so as to maximise output at minimum cost of production. Business is a game of skill. Risks and rewards both are great. An entrepreneur is a "potential and enterprising individual, endowed with special ability to innovate or imitate and for decision-making, interested in advancing technology and willing to assume the risk involved in it". Willingness to accept change is a remarkable quality of a successful entrepreneur⁶.

1.1 Women Entrepreneurship

Human resource, both of men and women of working age, constitutes the main strength of economic development of a nation. Women power forms an important segment of the labour force and the economic role played by them cannot be isolated from the framework of development. It is said that women, who constitute half of the world's population, perform two-thirds of the world's work, receive one-tenth of its income and own less than one-hundredth of its property⁷.

6. Tandon, B.C., Environment and Entrepreneur, Chugh Publications, Allahabad, 1975, p.33.

7. United Nations : Report of the Secretary General, World Conference on Women, Nairobi, 1985.

The role and degree of integration of women in economic development is always an indicator of women's economic independence, social status and also as a measure of women's contribution to economic and social development. Dandekar observes that "economic development is generally conceived and defined to mean growth in per capita Gross Domestic Product. It follows that, to contribute to economic development, women must engage themselves in economic or gainful activities as distinct from household or non-market activities. In other words, for full integration of women in economic development, they must enter the labour force on an equal footing with men"⁸.

The quest for economic independence and better social status, force women into self-employment and entrepreneurship. By virtue of a conducive social system, universal education and more risk-bearing attitudes, women in the developed countries of the west have been able to establish equality in social status and economic independence with their male counterparts to a great extent. Thus women in developed countries have not only been contributing substantially towards supplementing their family incomes but also have been enriching their national wealth. However, women in less developed countries are less privileged and economically dependent⁹.

8. Dandekar, V.M., "Integration of Women in Economic Development", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.XVII, No.44, October 30, 1982, p.1782.

9. Heggade, O.D., Women and Economic Development, Ramya Roopa Prakashana, Bangalore, 1984, p.30.

Today the women labour force is confronted with chronic unemployment, underemployment and seasonal unemployment in almost all developing countries. In most countries since 1970, women's unemployment rates are significantly above that of the men. Even in an advanced country like Sweden women's unemployment rates are 13 per cent higher than that of men. It is much higher in France, Italy and Japan. In Eastern Europe and the U.S.S.R. women's representation in paid employment is 90 per cent of that of the men. In the middle east, the ratio of women to men in the labour force is only 29 per cent. In Northern Africa and Latin America, cultural values have affected the women's access to gainful employment¹⁰.

As women have entered more deeply into all areas of the U.S. work force, they have also begun to form their own business at an increasingly rapid rate. These businesses are not only in the traditional female occupation of fashion, cosmetics and home services, but also include high technology and the challenging areas of economic life as well. Even in an advanced country like the U.S.A. women entrepreneurs are only three per cent of the total business owners. From 1960 to 1980 the proportion of women in the professions increased from 38 per cent to 46 per cent. These changes in the labour force are expected to serve as forerunners of continuing and increasing change in women entrepreneurship in U.S.A¹¹.

10. Bhatnagar, Pramod S., "The Gender Gap in the World Economy", Yojana, Vol.XXXII, No.9, May 16-31, 1988, pp.18 and 30.

11. Chansky, Dorothy, "The Rise of Women Entrepreneurs", Economic Impact, A Quarterly Review of World Economics, No.50, 1985/2, pp.42-44.

The post war period witnessed an unprecedented economic and technical growth. From 1980 to 1985 the world's output tripled in real terms and per capita income doubled on an average. There has been a rapid expansion of trade, production and capital flow for a large number of population of the working age group. During 1950-1980, the paid labour force grew by an estimated 700 million people. Still at poverty levels, women have been a growing majority. Much of their work, still remains unaccounted and unpaid¹².

Women workers in India form a rather small portion of the country's total female population. According to 1981 census only one-fifth of the total women are in the labour force. The remaining are classified as non-working, because they are not participating in any economically productive activity. Of the women who work, two-thirds are fully engaged in work whereas the other one-third are classified as marginal workers. Their share in total employment (40%) is higher than their share in the labour force (33%)¹³.

As per 1981 census there are only 1,50,000 self-employed women, a mere 5.2 per cent of the total self-employed. Of this, the majority are concentrated in low paid, low skilled, low technology and low productivity jobs in the rural and unorganised sectors. Ninety per cent (79.4 million)

12. Bhatnagar, Promod S., op.cit., pp.30-31.

13. Population Census of India, Series 1, Papers 3, 1981.

women workers are in rural areas whereas only 10 per cent (8.6 million) are in the urban areas. Only 2.5 million women work in the organised sector, a mere 12.4 per cent of the total employment¹⁴.

Women's work participation rate in the country as a whole has been significantly lower than that of men¹⁵. In recent years women's work participation has been less than half of the rate for men. Women's work participation as a percentage of men's work participation is 39 as per the 1981 census. Nearly 63 per cent of the male workers are engaged in agriculture, the corresponding figure for working women is 78 per cent¹⁶. According to National Sample Survey, (27th round) 14.2 per cent of working men were in enterprises/professions as a regular employee or labourers, the corresponding percentage for working women was only 4.3¹⁷.

Kerala has the highest density of population, literacy rate, life expectancy and the lowest mortality rate. The State combines all these

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14. Vinze, M.D., Women Entrepreneurs in India, Mittal Publications, Delhi, 1987, p.83.
 15. Gopalan, S., "Employment of Women - The Indian Situation", Report, 2nd International Conference of Women Entrepreneurs, NAYE, New Delhi, 1981, pp.3-13.
 16. Gulati, Leela, "Women in Unorganised Sector with Special Reference to Kerala", Working Paper 172, Centre for Development Studies, Trivandrum, p.2.
 17. Seal, K.C., "Women in the Labour Force in India : A Macro Level Statistical Profile", Women in the Indian Labour Force, International Labour Organisation (ARTEP), 1981.

features, with apparently low levels of urbanisation and per capita income,¹⁸ and high rate of unemployment including educated unemployment¹⁹. One out of every 20 working women is classified as a cultivator and more than four out of every ten working women are occupied in work other than agriculture and household industry. The urban rural disparities in regard to the occupational distribution of working women are less sharp in Kerala than in the country as a whole. Work participation of women is 17 per cent, which is only 38 per cent of that of men. At the macro level, the employment of women is more concentrated in the unorganised sector of Kerala than in the country as a whole²⁰.

Women entrepreneurship gained importance in India after the launching of International Women's Year in 1975. Before that, there were only very few women entrepreneurs in India. Their number was insignificant and the statistics related to them was insufficient. One estimate of the number of these enterprises given by National Alliance of Young Entrepreneurs is only 50,000 for the country till 1985²¹.

18. Sankaranarayanan, K.C. and Karunakaran, V., Kerala Economy, Oxford and I.B.H., New Delhi, 1985, pp.12-22.

19. Prakash, B.A., "Unemployment in Kerala : Some observations Based on a Field Study", Working Paper 224, Centre for Development Studies, Trivandrum, Kerala.

20. Gulati, Leela, op.cit., pp.8-12.

21. Vinze, M.D., op.cit., p.4.

The nature and pattern of economic expansion and modernisation pursued hitherto could not provide job opportunities for the entire labour force. It is held that the growing women unemployment and poverty in India can be tackled efficiently by way of developing women entrepreneurship. Therefore, more and more emphasis has been laid on developing entrepreneurship in the small scale manufacturing sector; the idea is one of transforming "job-seekers" to "job-creators". Hence the strategy for promoting self-employment has been one of the vital features of employment policy under IV, V and VI Five Year Plans²².

In April 1975 the Government of Kerala launched a massive programme to set up 10,000 small scale industrial units in the State during the course of the next four years. As part of the above programme, a special programme for women viz., Women's Industrial Development Programme was planned to commemorate the International Women's Year. Before that, there were only very few women's industrial units and they are mainly in the co-operative sector²³.

The real emergence and growth of women entrepreneurs occurred during and after 1978. As on 31st March 1987 there are 1143 women's

22. Heggade, O.D., op.cit., p.49.

23. Department of Economics and Statistics : Study on Women's Industrial Programme in Kerala - Manpower Study Series - 38, Government of Kerala, February 1984, pp.1 & 2.

enterprises* in the small industrial sector of Kerala. They are spread all over the 14 districts of the state and engage in 13 different trade lines. They have made their mark both in the traditional and modern sectors. There are different schemes and agencies sponsored by the Central and State Governments to extend a helping hand to the needy women entrepreneurs in Kerala.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Women in Kerala are highly literate and their contribution to the agricultural and service sectors of the economy is quite significant. However, their contribution to the industrial development does not appear to be so impressive. There is, therefore, a need to look into the factors behind the relatively inadequate representation of women in the industrial sector. As a part of an attempt to fill the gap, the study endeavours to analyse the different aspects of women entrepreneurship in the small scale industrial manufacturing sector of Kerala. To be precise, what is in focus is the trends in the growth of women entrepreneurship, socio-economic factors motivating enterprise, profile of the units, an analysis of some specific problems faced by women entrepreneurs and their contribution to the socio-economic growth of Kerala.

* "An industrial unit is considered as women's industrial unit only if it is owned and managed by women and women account at least 80 per cent of the workers". (as defined by the Department of Industries, Government of Kerala)

To illustrate, Kerala being a small state at the Southern most tip of the country possesses certain unique demographic characteristics. Census of India 1981 reveals that Kerala is the only State where women outnumber men. Not only that, Kerala has the highest literacy rates for both men and women, 75.26 per cent for men and 65.73 per cent for women, whereas the corresponding national figures are 46.62 per cent and 24.73 per cent respectively.

Education can direct the process of change and development towards desired goals. Education of women is higher in Kerala. Women in Kerala enter all occupations or professions like teachers, nurses, lawyers, doctors and civil servants. Nearly 57 per cent of school teachers, 36.26 per cent of college teachers and 98.04 per cent of nurses are women. It is a well recognised fact that more than 60 per cent of agricultural operations have been traditionally handled by women.

Even though women in Kerala are better emancipated and literacy rates are high, the number of women entrepreneurs are very small. Women are not coming forward to take up industrial ventures which demand initiative and dynamism. The total number of registered women's industrial units in Kerala were only 1143 as on 31st March 1987. In the case of men the number was 39,199. Women's industrial units account only for 2.83 per cent of the total registered small scale units in Kerala. Only two per cent of the Indian women entrepreneurs belong to Kerala, while the State has four per cent of the total female population.

Why is industrial entrepreneurship shy in Kerala? One can further ask : What are the different socio-political and economic factors behind the growth of women entrepreneurship? A related question is concerned with the institutional factors promoting and inhibiting entrepreneurial growth among women.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

1. To study the pattern and extent of supply of women entrepreneurs.
2. To assess the relative effect of socio-economic factors both as inhibitors and promoters of women entrepreneurship.
3. To examine the entrepreneurial support system - their related strengths and weaknesses.
4. To study the profile of women's industrial units.
5. To study different problems facing women entrepreneurs.

1.4 Review of Literature

This section is intended to provide an overview of available or published works on women entrepreneurship in India. Of all aspects of entrepreneurship, much literature has been published on the Indian entrepreneurial history, motivational aspects of entrepreneurship, emerging

entrepreneurship and rural entrepreneurship²⁴.

Surveys and studies which cover 'position of women in India' are many and quantitatively extensive²⁵. The literature available shows a

24. For Bibliography of Entrepreneurship see,
 - a. Sharma, R.A., "Entrepreneurship in Economic Development : Bibliography", Review of Commerce Studies, Vol.VII, March 1978, pp.109-155.
 - b. Sharma, R.A., Entrepreneurial Change in Indian Industry, Sterling Publishers, Bangalore, 1980, pp.244-258.
 - c. Subhashini, K.S., "Bibliographic Survey of Entrepreneurship", Developing Entrepreneurship : Issues and Problems, SIET, Hyderabad, 1980, pp.1-57.
 - d. Hadimani, R.N., Dynamics of Industrial Entrepreneurship, Asia Publishing House, New Delhi, 1985, pp.163-181.
 - e. Gangadhara Rao, N., Entrepreneurship and Growth of Enterprise in Industrial Estates, Deep and Deep Publications, New Delhi, 1986, pp.437-450.

25. For Bibliography of Women see,
 - a. Dasgupta, Kalpana (Ed.) Women on the Indian Scene, an annotated Bibliography, Abhinav Publications, New Delhi, 1976, pp.1-382.
 - b. Mehta, Sushila, Revolution and status of Women in India, Metropolitan Book Co., New Delhi, 1982, pp.253-276.
 - c. Desai, N. and Patel, V., Indian Women, Change and Challenge in the International Decade 1975-'85, Popular Prakashan, Bombay, pp.89-95.
 - d. Rajalakshmi, C. and Jabbi, M.K., "A Select Bibliography of Studies on Women in India", Social Change : Vol.XV, No.2, June 1985, pp.43-52.

broad spectrum of aspects viz., general studies on women, society and women, economic status, political status, legal status, education, women in Art and Culture. Since the emergence of women entrepreneurship is of recent origin, not much literature is found on the subject. Nagendra P. Singh and Rita Sen Gupta²⁶ made an exploratory study on the potential of women entrepreneurs, their profile, vision and motivation. Some pioneering work has been done by Management Development Institute (MDI) in collaboration with National Institute of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Development, the results of which were published in 1984 and 1986. The result of these studies when compared with those of another conducted by MDI on Rajasthan entrepreneurs in 1983 bring out the point forcefully that women are as effective as men in business and industry²⁷. A pilot study on women entrepreneurs in Delhi has been undertaken by Savitri Ramamurthy of Irwin College and her reports are that 40 per cent of them had ventured into non-traditional areas such as engineering, consultancy, chemicals, circuit breakers, amplifiers, transformers, microphones, etc²⁸. Rejula Devi²⁹

26. Singh, Nagendra P. and Rita Sen Gupta, "Potential Women Entrepreneurs, Their Profile, Vision and Motivation" - An Exploratory Study, NIESBUD Research Report Serial, 1985.

27. Tinani, Madan, "Women Entrepreneurs", The Economic Times, Sunday, April 10, 1988, p.5.

28. Ibid.

29. Rejula Devi, A.K., "Women Entrepreneurs, Yojana, Vol.XXII, No.13, July 16, 1978, pp.19-22.

discusses the difficulties of women entrepreneurs and different schemes of the government to solve the problem of unemployment among educated and uneducated women. Heggade's³⁰ and Surekha Panandiker's³¹ deal with the problems and potentials of women entrepreneurs.

Sulochana Nadkarni³² has conducted a study of women entrepreneurs of Pune city. The study emphasised the socio-economic and family background of women entrepreneurs and the problems they face. Medha Dhubhashi Vinze's³³ study highlights the basic issues, problems and constraints with regard to prospects of women entrepreneurs of Delhi in a theoretical perspective and in the context of administrative and institutional developments and policy formulation during the last decade.)

There are very few academic attempts to analyse the different aspects of women entrepreneurship. A perusal of the available research studies on women shows that it is the welfare aspect of women rather

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30. Heggade, O.D., "Development of Women Entrepreneurs : Problems and Prospects", Economic Affairs, Vol.XXVI, No.1, January-March, 1981, pp.39-50.
 31. Panandiker, Surekha, "Women Entrepreneurs, Problems and Potential", The Economic Times, December 26, 1985.
 32. Nadkarni, Sulochana, "Women Entrepreneurs, A Socio-Economic Study of Pune City", The Economic Times, September 14, 1983, p.9.
 33. Vinze, M.D., op.cit.

than their development which has attracted attention. There are only very few studies on women entrepreneurship or enterprises in Kerala. Even the available literature does not focus sufficiently on the varied aspects of women entrepreneurship. The only study³⁴ worth mentioning is the one conducted by the Department of Economics and Statistics (Government of Kerala, 1984).

This study was on women's industries programme in Kerala, to assess the involvement of manpower in this field and to analyse the difficulties and problems faced by the women entrepreneurs which impede the growth and smooth functioning of units. It was supported by the views of 275 women entrepreneurs of Kerala. Census method was adopted and only 58 per cent of units responded by supplying necessary details. Details were collected from these units through mailed questionnaires designed for the purpose. The study highlights the profile of workers in the women's industrial units, but the profile of the entrepreneurs is neglected. Problems faced by women entrepreneurs are analysed under the following major heads viz., capital, raw materials, marketing, competition from other units and availability of power. But the conclusions drawn from the survey are not on proper empirical support. It also includes suggestions of entrepreneurs. The major findings of the study are as follows : Nearly 82 per cent of the women's industrial units are functioning throughout

34. Study on Women's Industrial Programme in Kerala, op.cit.

the year. Proprietary concerns and co-operative societies are the popular ones. Majority of the units are running on profit. Women's units are still in their infancy and so the problems faced by them are many. The characteristics of having other business or sister concerns is lacking among women entrepreneurs. Nearly 94 per cent of the employees are permanent. About four-fifth (81%) of the workers are full time employees. Only a very small proportion of the employees (1%) get a reasonable income that is above Rs.500 per month. The workers are very young and 63 per cent workers have no experience at all.

1.5 Data and Methodology

A generally accepted definition of small scale industry is hard to find in the academic treatise on the subject or in the administrative usage. The small scale sector as commonly understood in India, include a wide range of manufacturing units which vary in the size of employment, capital investment and value of output as well as in the level of organisation, technology, source of power, type and quality of products and so on. The sector is very heterogenous, with units widely spread all over the country including relatively large urban based establishments using modern technology.

The concept of small scale industries as developed through the years, is one of confusion and lacks clarity. Neither the government nor the planners could provide a clear and graphic definition. The concept has

undergone change from time to time³⁵. The limit for inclusion of a unit in the SSI has been raised upwards several times in the recent past. Since March 1985 the investment in plant and machinery for small scale industry has been raised to Rs.35 lakhs and for ancillary units to Rs.45 lakhs³⁶.

Similarly, definition of women's industrial units lacks precision and clarity. There are several types of schemes and categories under which the units are set up. Women's industrial units may be, manufacturing, servicing, retail and wholesale trade, traditional, modern, imitative, tiny, small or micro. A few of these women entrepreneurs may not even come under the academic and commonly understood term 'entrepreneur'. The word used by the Department of Industries to refer to the products as well as the work done in these units is "Trade". That term and their mode of classification is followed in this study also. So the scope of the present study is confined only to those women entrepreneurs who were registered with the Department of Industries.

The primary data for the study was collected from the women entrepreneurs of Kerala. The simple random sampling technique was adopted to select women entrepreneurs. Initially a sample of 12 per cent (137 out of 1143) women entrepreneurs was selected at random for indepth study.

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35. Nanjappa, K.L., Small Scale Industries, Twenty five Years Progress, Government of India, 1973, p.1.
36. Ramachandran, G., "Data Base for Small Scale Industries : An Appraisal", Suri, K.B. (Ed.), Small Scale Enterprises in Industrial Development, Sage Publications, New Delhi, 1988, p.42.

Our objective was to draw a sample of 10 per cent only. But we have taken a 12 per cent sample, keeping in view the chances of expected non-responsiveness of nearly two per cent entrepreneurs. Out of 137 women entrepreneurs selected, only 121 co-operated by supplying the necessary information. It is found that the sample represents all the 14 districts of Kerala State and 13 different trade lines. There are 14 charitable institutions and five co-operative societies in the sample (Tables 1.1, 1.2, 1.3 & 1.4).

The list of names and addresses of registered units were collected from the District Industries Centres. This was checked and finalised with the help of the list prepared by Kerala State Women's Industries Association. District-wise seminars on small scale industries and the state level annual convention of women entrepreneurs held at Ernakulam in 1987 were also helpful in collecting information about women entrepreneurs in Kerala.

Detailed information from the sample units was obtained during September-December 1987, by administering a lengthy schedule divided into two parts (See appendix) running into nearly 13 pages. The schedules were pre-tested and suitable modifications made after eliciting the opinions of selected entrepreneurs and experts. Part I of the schedule solicited particulars of the entrepreneur and the enterprise, profile of the entrepreneurs, factors facilitating and motivating entrepreneurship. Part II covered profile of the enterprise and the problems encountered. The questions in the schedule were basically of two types - fixed answer questions and open-ended questions.

It proved to be an uphill task to persuade the entrepreneurs to respond to such a lengthy schedule which took up at least two hours of the entrepreneur's time. Most of the items in the schedule required personalised qualitative data. So it was thought that it would be better, if the data were collected through personal contact and discussions.

The primary data collected in the course of interview with the entrepreneurs are tabulated to make it suitable for further statistical treatment. Simple statistical devices such as percentages and averages are extensively used to interpret and analyse the data collected. Factors motivating and facilitating entrepreneurship and the intensity of the problems faced by the entrepreneurs are rated by weighted scores. Graphical representation is made use of wherever necessary.

Co-operative societies and charitable institutions in the sample are (N. 19) excluded in the analysis of the profile of entrepreneurs (N. 102) but included in the profile of the enterprise and problems encountered (N. 121). It is clear from the information collected from respondents that these units are managed by women who have taken over its control without true entrepreneurial spirit. These women are usually popular in the socio-political field. The socio-economic and motivational aspirations of the president or secretary may not affect the working of co-operative societies because it is controlled by a Board of Directors. Generally industrial co-operative societies are meant for providing employment to weaker sections of the society. In many charitable institutions the production unit is secondary to their principal function viz., education. Their motivating force

is not earning profits for themselves but organising work for the backward sections of the society. They take up entrepreneurship to help socially handicapped women.

The secondary sources of data include, published and unpublished materials both private and public; related to industries in general and women's industrial programme in particular.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

This is an exploratory study based on a sample survey. The limitations of such a study is applicable in this case also. No attempt has been made to study the health of the units and psychology of women entrepreneurs. Year-wise number of women's industrial units registered in Kerala before 1978 is not available. So it is taken as units started 'before 1978'. Labour and capital productivity are reckoned in terms of monthly sales turnover of the units. But monthly sales turnover does not include the value of unsold inventories. Economic evaluation of the women's industrial units is not attempted in the study. Again a detailed comparative study of Kerala's position with that of the other States has not been attempted in the thesis due to paucity of published data.

1.7 Plan of the Study

The study is divided into seven chapters.

The first chapter provides a brief introduction to the study.

It also includes the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, method of data collection, tools and techniques used for data analysis and a brief review of the available literature on the subject.

The second chapter provides a brief historical analysis of the emergence and growth of women entrepreneurs in India with special reference to Kerala. It also discusses entrepreneurship development programmes and organisations in the service of entrepreneurs.

The socio-economic and educational background of women entrepreneurs is the subject matter of the third chapter. It identifies the sources of women entrepreneurship in Kerala by their socio-economic characteristics viz., community, occupation, education, financial background and other related characteristics.

The different forces which induced women to step into industrial ventures and also the process of the emergence of entrepreneurship among women constitute the core of chapter four.

The fifth chapter gives a profile of the units surveyed, with special emphasis on their age, organisational set-up, capital structure, employment and sales turnover.

Chapter six deals with problems faced by women entrepreneurs in their day to day business life. It also includes suggestions to overcome such problems.

The concluding chapter, besides providing a summary of the study, highlights some of the policy implications emerging from it.

Table 1.1 Distribution of Respondents : District-wise

Sl. No.	District	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1.	Trivandrum	8	6.61
2.	Quilon	7	5.79
3.	Pathanamthitta	3	2.48
4.	Alleppey	14	11.57
5.	Kottayam	18	14.88
6.	Idukki	6	4.96
7.	Ernakulam	32	26.45
8.	Trichur	16	13.22
9.	Palghat	4	3.30
10.	Malappuram	4	3.30
11.	Calicut	4	3.30
12.	Wynad	1	0.83
13.	Cannanore	1	0.83
14.	Kasaragod	3	2.48
	Kerala	121	100

Table 1.2 Distribution of Respondents : Trade-wise

Sl. No.	Trade *	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1.	Food Industries	12	9.92
2.	Ready-made Garments	39	32.23
3.	Printing and Book Binding	18	14.88
4.	Match Dipping	4	3.31
5.	Candle	5	4.13
6.	Chemical Industries	3	2.47
7.	Handicrafts	4	3.31
8.	Radio Assembling	5	4.13
9.	Rubber Industries	5	4.13
10.	Clinical Laboratories	3	2.48
11.	Engineering Works	3	2.48
12.	Handloom Textiles	4	3.31
13.	Miscellaneous **	16	13.22
	Total	121	100

Note : * This is based on the classification given by the Department of Industries, Government of Kerala.

** Includes : paper products, umbrella assembling, optical lense shop, beauty parlour, manufacturing of hallow bricks, flower pots and ventillation, X-ray film envelops, cloth tin envelops, rice and flour mill, cattle feed manufacturing, photostat, etc.

Table 1.3 Total Number of Women Entrepreneurs in Kerala and the
Number of Respondents : Trade-wise

Sl. No.	Trade	Total No. of Entrepreneurs	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1.	Food Industries	122	12	9.84
2.	Ready-made Garments	390	39	10.00
3.	Printing and Book Binding	174	18	10.34
4.	Match Dipping	37	4	10.81
5.	Candle	48	5	10.42
6.	Chemical Industries	25	3	12.00
7.	Handicrafts	42	4	9.52
8.	Radio Assembling	32	5	15.63
9.	Rubber Industries	45	5	11.11
10.	Clinical Laboratories	28	3	10.71
11.	Engineering Works	5	3	60.00
12.	Handloom Textiles	35	4	11.43
13.	Miscellaneous	160	16	10.00
Total		1,143	121	10.59

Table 1.4 Organisational Set-up

Sl. No.	Organisational Set-up	No. of Units in Kerala	No. of Respondents	Percentage
1.	Proprietary	891	89	9.99
2.	Partnership	63	12	19.04
3.	Charitable Institution	62	14	22.58
4.	Joint-Stock Company	5	1	20.00
5.	Industrial Co-operative Society	122	5	4.10
Total		1,143	121	10.59

Chapter 2

ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

This chapter presents a brief historical analysis of the emergence and growth of women entrepreneurs in India with special reference to Kerala. It also includes women entrepreneurship development programmes and the organisations involved in the service of women entrepreneurs.

2.1 Women Entrepreneurs

"A woman entrepreneur is a person who is an enterprising individual with an eye for opportunities and an uncanny vision, commercial acumen, with tremendous perseverance and above all a person who is willing to take risks with the unknown because of the adventurous spirit she possesses"¹. Women entrepreneurs in India represent a group of women who have broken away from the beaten track and are exploring new avenues of economic participation. A great many have chosen entrepreneurship because of the compelling sense of wanting to do something positive. Women have also become aware of their talents and abilities in business and industry².

Normally a woman entrepreneur is visualised as a producer of pickles, papads, masala and other things. In fact it was assumed till recently

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1. Vinze, M.D., op.cit., p.112.
 2. Varadappan, Sarojini, "Emergence of Women Entrepreneurs", Social Welfare, Vol. 23, No.9, December 1976.

that entrepreneurial skill of women is limited to '3 Ps.' i.e. papad, pickle, powder (masala), an extension of kitchen activities. If at all any machinery has to be operated by women, then the choice was limited to the sewing machine. With the spread of education and a new awareness, women entrepreneurs are spreading their operations to higher levels of engineering, electronics and energy, though the number of such units are still limited.

Self-employment or entrepreneurship is better suited than employment for the double role which a woman has to play even now. "And those women, who run their own enterprises, are often able to develop a flexible working schedule that allows them to combine their business with their own domestic responsibilities, in a way that an ordinary job does not. It gives them an independent income, even though the income is very low"³. In the family with many children, the man will have no problem other than the financial. But the women have several problems - related to child rearing, home-management and personal profession⁴. So it is better for a woman to start her own venture suited to the environment.

Who can be a successful woman entrepreneur?

The formula is simple.

D + T + F	=	Success
D	=	Determination
T	=	Training (and counselling)
F	=	Family support

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3. Report, "Status of World's Women", 1985, Reprinted in the Economic Times, July 14, 1985.
 4. Subhamma, Malladi, Women, Tradition and Culture, Sterling publishers, New Delhi, 1985, p.2.

A determined and strong willed woman with an encouraging family support aided by well designed training package can become a successful entrepreneur. "Economic Independence" combined with the "challenge" of starting their own business is the primary motivation for women entrepreneurs. She has to learn to strike a balance between business and home life⁵.

Women, have, of late, begun to step on to the toes of men in the field of industry to drive home to the latter that economic uplift is nobody's preserve. An awakening among women has given them a feeling that they too have a role to play in the industrial development of the country and this has driven them to organise themselves to not only demand the same attention as a man from the government and financial institutions, but also to seek reservation of certain areas of activity for women entrepreneurs⁶.

2.2 Development in Other Countries

In recent years, millions of new jobs have been created in the U.S.A. by small business and start up firms, founded by entrepreneurs - people with vision and a willingness to work hard and risk failure - and backed by small amounts of savings or venture capital. In recent years, the U.S.A. has evolved into a country of small firms and new inventions and radical break through by daring men and women who are leading the world economy into a new age of growth and prosperity⁷.

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5. Krishnan, Jalram, "Women as Entrepreneurs", The Economic Times, October.6, 1985, p.5.
 6. Gururaj, D.S., "Entrepreneurs - A Part of the Mainstream", The Economic Times, March 10, 1985, p.5
 7. Gilder, George, "Creating Jobs: The Entrepreneur's Role. The Real Economy", Economic Impact, A Quarterly Review of World Economics, 1985/2, p.18.

The last decade has seen a dramatic spurt of growth in business, owned-operated and originated by women in the U.S.A. It is estimated that in 1972 less than 3 per cent of the U.S. companies - a total of 4,02,025 - were owned by women. By 1983, women owned 26.1 per cent of all non-farm sole proprietorships in the U.S., a total of 3.5 million business. Between 1977 and 1980, the number of female owned non-farm sole proprietorships increased 33 per cent as against 11 per cent for males⁸. The number of self-employed women rose 10 per cent from 1980 to 1982, as against one per cent for men. Forty two per cent of all women-owned ventures have gross incomes less than \$5,000 per year. And the 3.5 million female owned business nation-wide account for as little as three per cent of the U.S. economy. A home-based business offers independence, income and the chance to provide a positive role model for ones children. Beyond economic stimulus, a feeling that they can do a better job than people already in the field-often male - is promoting women to start business⁹.

According to the Report of the President on the State of Small Business 1984, "Women share the American dream to own and operate their own business. Each year thousands of women use small business as a way to enter the business world and to contribute to the growth of products, services and employment in the economy. In recent years women-operated business have increased more rapidly than either men-operated firms or the total

8. Chansky, Dorothy, op.cit.

9. Haber, Sheldon E., et.al., "On their own: The Self-Employed and Others in private business", American Labour News, Supplement, Vol.XV, Nos. 3 & 4, March/April 1988, pp.1-6.

number of businesses"¹⁰.

The boom in entrepreneurship among women has spawned a whole group of service organisations, resource centres and publications to meet new needs. The best known is American Women's Economic Development (AWED) Corporation, a nation-wide training and counselling service for women entrepreneurs. It offers training programmes related to setting up business, private counselling, special seminar, etc. Some 20,000 women in each of the 50 states received help from AWED. AWED publishes WE - Women Entrepreneur, a quarterly journal and it offers insurance programmes and group purchasing benefits items sometimes unavailable to the self-employed¹¹.

The number of colleges offering courses in entrepreneurship skyrocketed from a handful in 1967 to well over 200 today. Interest in 'running your business' is so intense that 250 universities now offer courses in entrepreneurship according to a survey by Karlvesper - Professor of Small Business at the University of Washington in Seattle. In 1980 only 160 schools offered such courses¹².

10. Chansky, Dorothy, op.cit.

11. Ibid.

12. Scherschel, Patricia M., "The Come Back of Risk Takers", Economic Impact, A Quarterly Review of World Economics, No. 50, 1985/2, pp.27-32.

In France one seventh of all heads of industrial firms are women. The number of women working for business firms, either as employees or as executives in their own companies, has always been high. In West Germany about 2.7 million women work either as independent business women, or owners and managers of small or medium size firms or assistants in some family enterprise¹³.

2.3 Women Entrepreneurship in India

To enter the modern industrial world as an entrepreneur is a difficult and risky venture as the organisation of a modern enterprise need a large amount of capital, technical know-how and managerial skill. For an Indian woman to enter modern economic world as an entrepreneur is even more difficult and risky as women in India are not expected to have initiative, drive, aggressiveness and independence which are the essential qualities for such a venture. More than all that, there are no traditions for women to act as entrepreneurs. On the contrary, there are many prejudices, taboos and customs which restrict women's effort in these directions. To the social scientists it has come as a surprise that despite difficulties and obstructions quite a few Indian women have emerged as entrepreneurs and established their small scale industries in recent years in India¹⁴.

13. Lebmann, A., "Between Old and New", Raphael Patal (Ed.), Women in the Modern World, The Free Press, New York, 1967. pp.227-246.

14. Metha, Sushila, op.cit., pp.129-167.

Women entrepreneurs have started industries in such consumer goods as ready-made garments, pickles, food products, polythene bags, packing cartons, drinking straws, etc. But there are exceptional cases too. There is, for example, a woman entrepreneur whose firm manufactures and supplies railway carriage fans. Within four and a half years the turnover rose to the tune of Rs.3 crores. From Karnataka there is a women entrepreneur who manufactures tractors and agricultural implements. In Delhi, there are women entrepreneurs who manufacture steering gears, chemicals, etc. Perhaps there is only one mine owner woman in India¹⁵.

With the advance of science and technology, a certain amount of change has come about. An increasing number of women want to participate in the economic activities of the nation. A welcome feature noticeable among the modern educated women of India is that they are showing keen interest in the field of entrepreneurship. Moreover, the jobs which require certain levels of education and technical training as pre-requisites, are attracting more women today¹⁶.

At the central level, various ministries and departments have evolved their different schemes which seek to promote entrepreneurship among women. The small industries service institutes conduct training programmes for women entrepreneurs and provide active assistance for setting up their own enterprises, they conduct market surveys and give demonstration and publicity to perspective beneficiaries to motivate women entrepreneurs.

15. Ibid.

16. Sherwani, Madeeha, "Why More Women Entering Workforce", Yojana, 28/No. 20, June 1-15, 1984, p.23.

All India Handicrafts Board conducts training programmes and assistance in setting up training-cum-production centres and gives guidance in marketing and designing. The Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Social Welfare and Central Board of Welfare too have their own programmes which provide avenues for self-employment to needy women¹⁷.

A major financial institution for the first time has worked out a scheme exclusively for the benefit of women entrepreneurs. The Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI) has introduced an interest subsidy scheme for harnessing the vast entrepreneurial talent among women. The women entrepreneurs' scheme applies to all industrial projects whether in rural, cottage, tiny, small, ancillary or medium scale (with capital costs upto Rs.3 crores) units set up and run by women. A pre-condition for tapping IFCI scheme is that, it is desirable that borrowing women entrepreneurs should undergo a course, Entrepreneur Development Programme (EDP) through some EDP conducting agencies. The IFCI has also launched two other schemes, one for the modernisations of small units and the other the control of pollution in these units¹⁸.

Though much is being said about promoting women entrepreneurship, no special programme with any concrete action plan has emerged. Women entrepreneurs themselves have been holding seminars and annual conventions with a view to attracting women to the manufacturing sector. Women

17. Ravindran Nair, G., "From Exploitation to Entrepreneurship", The Economic Times, March 24, 1985.

18. The Financial Correspondent, "IFCI Scheme for Women Entrepreneurs", The Economic Times, January 30, 1986.

entrepreneurs have conducted hitherto six national conventions at different parts of the country with the participation of women entrepreneurs from all over India. They have conducted exhibitions of commodities produced by women entrepreneurs. Four international conferences of women entrepreneurs have been held by November 1986¹⁹.

Many States have come up with several schemes that seek to promote the entrepreneurial skills of women and provide avenues for enterprising women. Entrepreneurship Development Programmes are conducted to train new generation of entrepreneurs and to shape a woman into becoming an actual owner and a decision-maker of a non-traditional enterprise. Of the trained women entrepreneurs in Gujarat nearly 14 per cent are in textile hoisery, 19.4 per cent in chemicals, 8.73 per cent in plastics, 10.67 per cent in engineering, 5.82 per cent in electronics and 41.71 per cent in general industries. Some of the products successfully being manufactured by them are electronic table clocks, printed circuit boards, electronic motor and armature, tube light choke, latex rubber thread, packaging boxes, golden paste and plastic printing. The general investment range of women entrepreneurs trained under Gujarat Entrepreneurship Development Programmes are 23.28 per cent upto Rs.25,000, 18.43 per cent upto Rs.50,000, 24.25 per cent upto Rs.1.5 lakhs, 21.34 per cent between Rs.2 lakhs and Rs.5 lakhs and two per cent co-operative basis²⁰.

19. Reports of National Alliance of Young Entrepreneurs (NAYE) and National Convention of Women Entrepreneurs, various years.

20. Krishnan, Jairam, op.cit.

The Karnataka government is also recognizing women entrepreneurs for their calibre and has given aid and reserved various items of the business and industry for women. Out of the estimated 200 women entrepreneurs in Bangalore only, 8 per cent are under 30 years of age. Most women entrepreneurs are between the age of thirty and forty. A few leading women entrepreneurs are engaged in the production of leather goods, cosmetics, electronic items, ice, textiles, etc. State Bank of India's innovative management development programme brought together many of Bangalore's women entrepreneurs²¹. The Second Best Woman Entrepreneur Award was presented to Ms. Sunanda Murthy, Shekar Electronics, Bangalore²².

About 7,000 women entrepreneurs are in Tamil Nadu till 1986*. They started in a small way and have grown strong in the span of a few years. They produce precision tools and plastic components required by leading electronic and automobile companies. A few have specialised in screen printing as ancillary units. The Government of Tamil Nadu earmarked a sum of Rs.20 lakhs to give subsidy to 3000 rural women from the weaker sections who came forward to set up self-employment ventures. This report from Trichy dated 2nd February 1985 further stated that a subsidy of 25 per cent would be given by the Government to each woman entrepreneur for setting up typewriting institutes, wet grinders, vegetable shops, petty shops, etc. to a maximum of Rs.3,000/-. The remaining 75 per cent would

21. George, Sheba, "The Products of Women Entrepreneurs on Display at the Convention", Economic Times, March 10, 1985, p.5.

22. S.T.G. "If Karnataka can do it", Economic Times, March 10, 1985, p.5.

* Informations collected from the Tamil Nadu Corporation for the Development of Women Ltd.

be given as loans by the banks under the differential rate of interest scheme of four per cent²³. The Best Woman Entrepreneur Award went to the oldest woman entrepreneur in Tamil Nadu, Mrs. T. Mankyakarasi, Ancillary Products, Madras. This 62 year old lady began with a machinery shop in 1962. Her entrepreneurial spirit was recognised when the Tamil Nadu Government nominated her to attend the International Conference of Women Entrepreneurs in 1984²⁴.

In Bihar, there are an estimated 30 to 50 business women and in Calcutta, an estimated 100 women entrepreneurs with an annual turnover of Rs.35 crores²⁵. Women are putting up units to manufacture solar cookers as in Gujarat, small foundaries in Maharashtra and T.V. capacitors in the industrially backward area of Orissa illustrating the fact that women, if trained and given opportunities, can venture into non-traditional industries. Even the so called socially backward industrial activity of wine making and selling is done by women entrepreneurs in Bombay. Today women entrepreneurs have fixed themselves in some of the non-traditional fields such as leading consultants, distributors, exporters of machinery, manufacturers of electric goods, publishers, exporters of garments, designers, interior decorators and the like. Small units are being run in the manufacture of ready-made garments, handicrafts, textile printing, toys and dolls, plastic

23. Raj, Flossie, "Development of Women Entrepreneurs", Malcom S.Adishesiah (Ed), Entrepreneurship Development for Tamil Nadu, Tamil Nadu State Council for Science and Technology, Madras, 1985, pp.40-43.

24. S.T.G., op.cit.

25. Badhwar, Indergit, et.al., "Women Entrepreneurs, Blazing New Trails", India Today, July 31, 1988, pp.70-81.

processing and preservation of fruits by enterprising ladies. These fields are specially suited to their temperaments and tastes.

2.4 Women Entrepreneurs in Kerala

As per 1981 census, Kerala has a population of 2.54 crores. Of this 1.29 crores (50.84%) are women. Nearly 65 per cent of the women are literate. Consequently the number of educated women seeking employment have aggravated the unemployment problem in the State. Women registrants in the employment exchanges of the State constitute 40 per cent of the total. Year by year the number of girls coming out from educational institutions is increasing which adds to the problem of unemployment in the State. This pathetic plight has created so many economic as well as sociological problems.

Taking these aspects into consideration, Kerala State Government has taken the initiative to attract women folk to participate in the industrial activities and find out self-employment. These new ideas blossomed during the International Women's Year of 1975 and bore fruit within a short time. As a consequence of the incentives offered by the Government, a number of women's industrial units sprang up. Besides, more and more women are coming forward to start new units. Table 2.1 reveal the facts.

The Government of Kerala started to implement special schemes for the promotion of women's industrial activities from the year 1978-79. Before 1978 there were only 73 women's industrial units in Kerala i.e., 6.39 per cent of the total women's industrial units in the State. Year-wise

distribution of women's industrial units established before 1978 are not available. The highest number of women's industrial units were established during 1983-84 (194 out of 1143) followed by 149 in 1981-82 (Table 2.1 and Diagram 2.1).

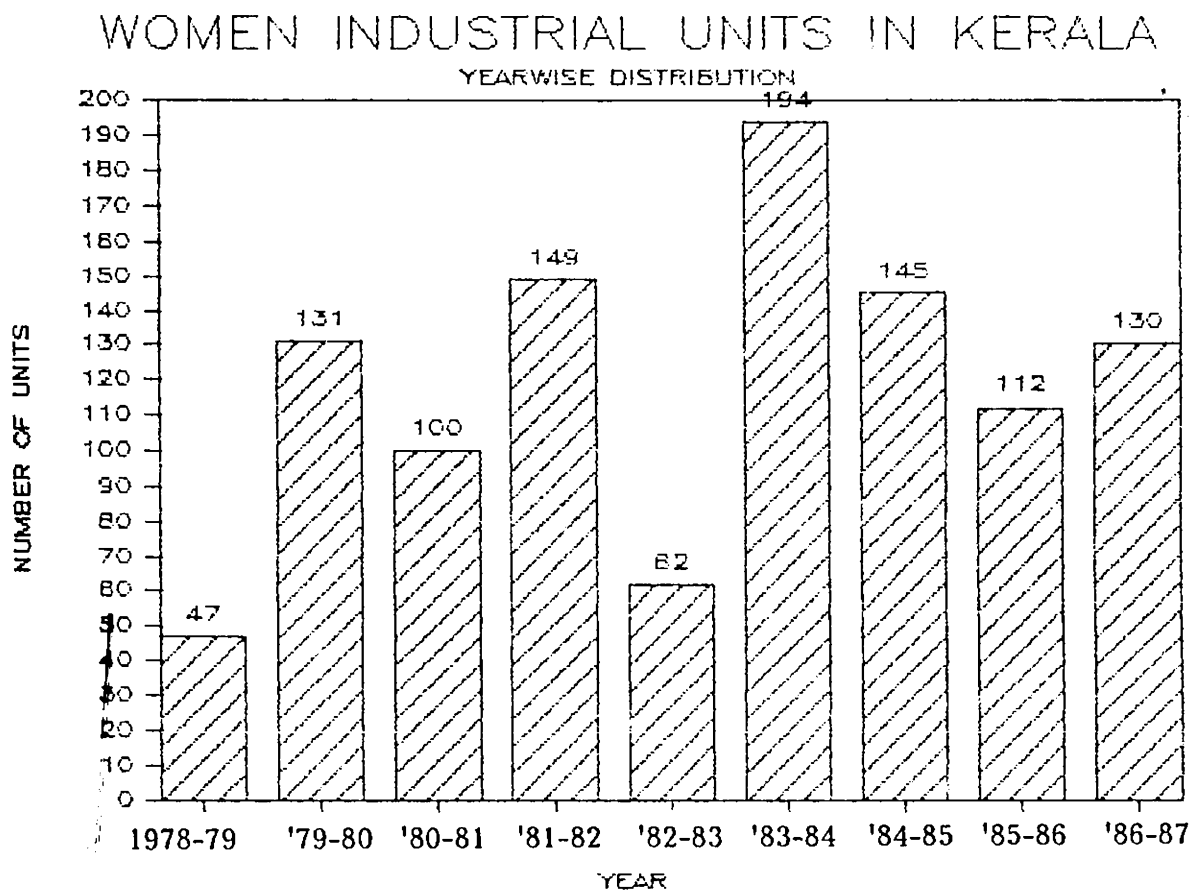
Table 2.1 Year-Wise Distribution of Women's Industrial Units established in Kerala (Annual Percentage Change)

Year	No. of Units	Percentage increase/ decrease
Before 1978	73(6.39)	--
1978 - 79	47(4.11)	--
1979 - 80	131(11.46)	+171.43
1980 - 81	100(8.75)	-23.66
1981 - 82	149(13.04)	+49.00
1982 - 83	62(5.42)	-58.39
1983 - 84	194(16.97)	+212.90
1984 - 85	145(12.69)	-25.26
1985 - 86	112(9.80)	-22.76
1986 - 87	130(11.37)	+16.07
Total	1,143(100)	

Source: Compiled from the estimates of Women's Industrial Units in Kerala prepared by the Directorate of Industries and Commerce, Government of Kerala.

Note: Figures in brackets denote percentage.

Diagram 2.1



As on 31-03-1987 there are about 40,342 small scale units in Kerala. Of this 39,199 units are owned and operated by men and 1,143 by women i.e., only 2.83 per cent of the total small scale units in Kerala²⁶. The year 1983-84 witnessed the establishment of the highest number of women's industrial units (6 % of the total). And the least number of women entrepreneurs started during 1982-83 (62 out of 2907 i.e. 2.13%) (Table 2.2 and Diagram 2.2).

Table 2.2 Year-Wise Distribution of Men and Women Small Scale Industrial Units Established in Kerala.

Year	Men Industrial Units	Women Industrial Units	Total	Percentage of women's industrial units to total units
1978 - 79	1221	47	1268	3.71
1979 - 80	2457	131	2588	5.06
1980 - 81	2832	100	2932	3.41
1981 - 82	2872	149	3021	4.93
1982 - 83	2845	62	2907	2.13
1983 - 84	3039	194	3233	6.00
1984 - 85	3237	145	3382	4.29
1985 - 86	3754	112	3866	2.90
1986 - 87	4847	130	4977	2.61

Source: 1. Same as in Table 2.1

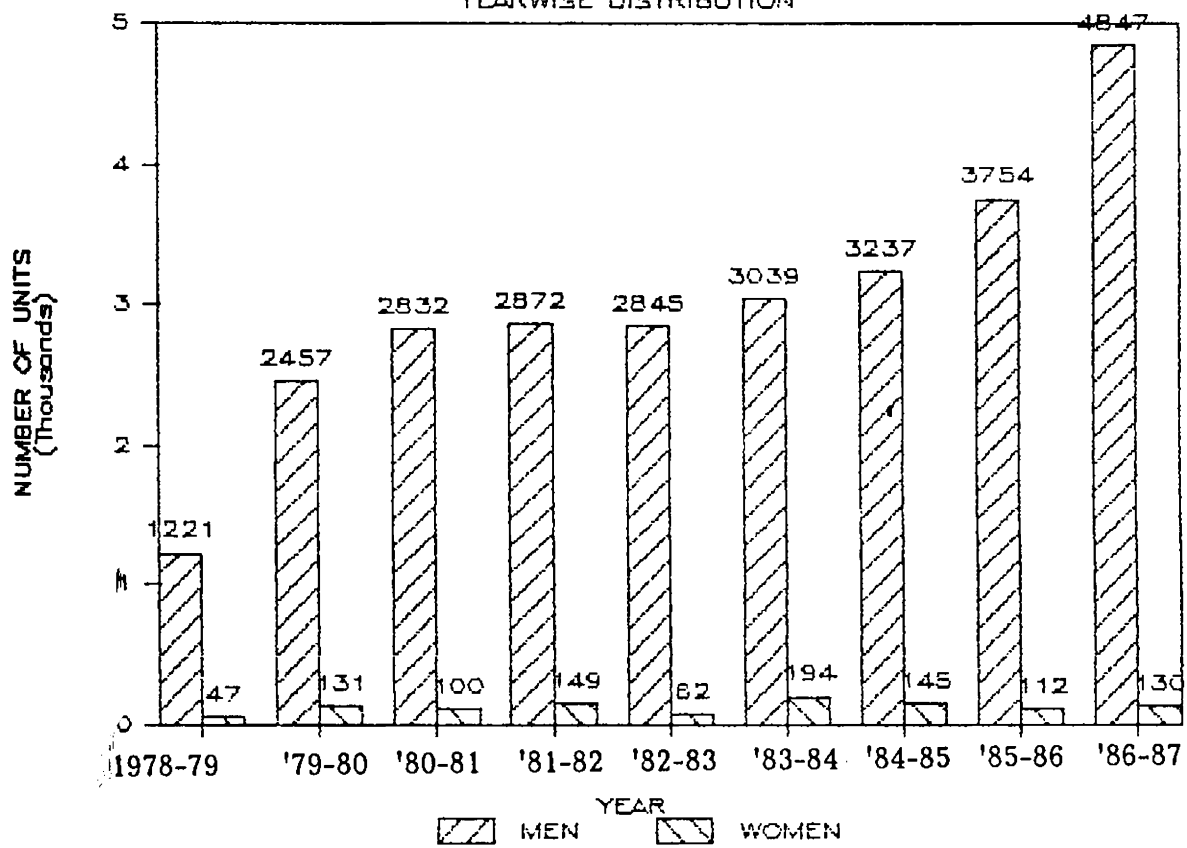
2. State Planning Board : Economic Review, Government of Kerala, 1978 to 1987.

26. State Planning Board: Economic Review, Government of Kerala, 1987, p.163.

Diagram 2.2

MEN & WOMEN S.S.I. UNITS IN KERALA

YEARWISE DISTRIBUTION



District-wise distribution of women's industrial units in Kerala reveals the fact that Trichur ranks first having 171 units (out of 1143) i.e. 14.96 per cent, followed by Ernakulam (13.30%), industrially the best developed district of the State. Number of units are the least in the newly formed districts viz., Wynad ten out of 1143 (0.87%) and Kasaragod 12 out of 1143 (1.05%) (Table 2.3 and Diagram 2.3). Districts ranked according to percentage of women's industrial units to all Kerala is given in map 2.1.

In Trivandrum district the highest number of units were established during 1981-82 and 1983-84 (20.68% and 20.69% respectively), in Quilon during 1980-81 (17.27%), 1981-82 and 1984-85 (13.64% each). In Pathanamthitta 1983-84 and in Wynad, and Kasaragod 1984-85 witnessed the emergence of women's industrial units. Before that these districts were parts of other neighbouring districts. About 24 per cent of the women entrepreneurs in Alleppey district originated during 1979-80, Kottayam 1984-85 (26.22%), Idukki 1982-83 (26.67%), Ernakulam 1984-85 (25%), Trichur 1981-82 (42.69%), Palghat 1983-84 (37.25%), Malappuram 1983-84 (32.31%), Calicut 1983-84 (35.87%) (Table 2.4).

Of the 73 units started before 1978, 19 are (26.03%) in Trichur and 10 (13.69%) in Quilon. Of the total number of units established during 1978-79, 1980-81, 1984-85 and 1986-87, the highest concentration is in Ernakulam, 1979-80 and 1982-83 in Alleppey, 1981-82 and 1985-86 in Trichur and 1983-84 in Calicut (Table 2.5).

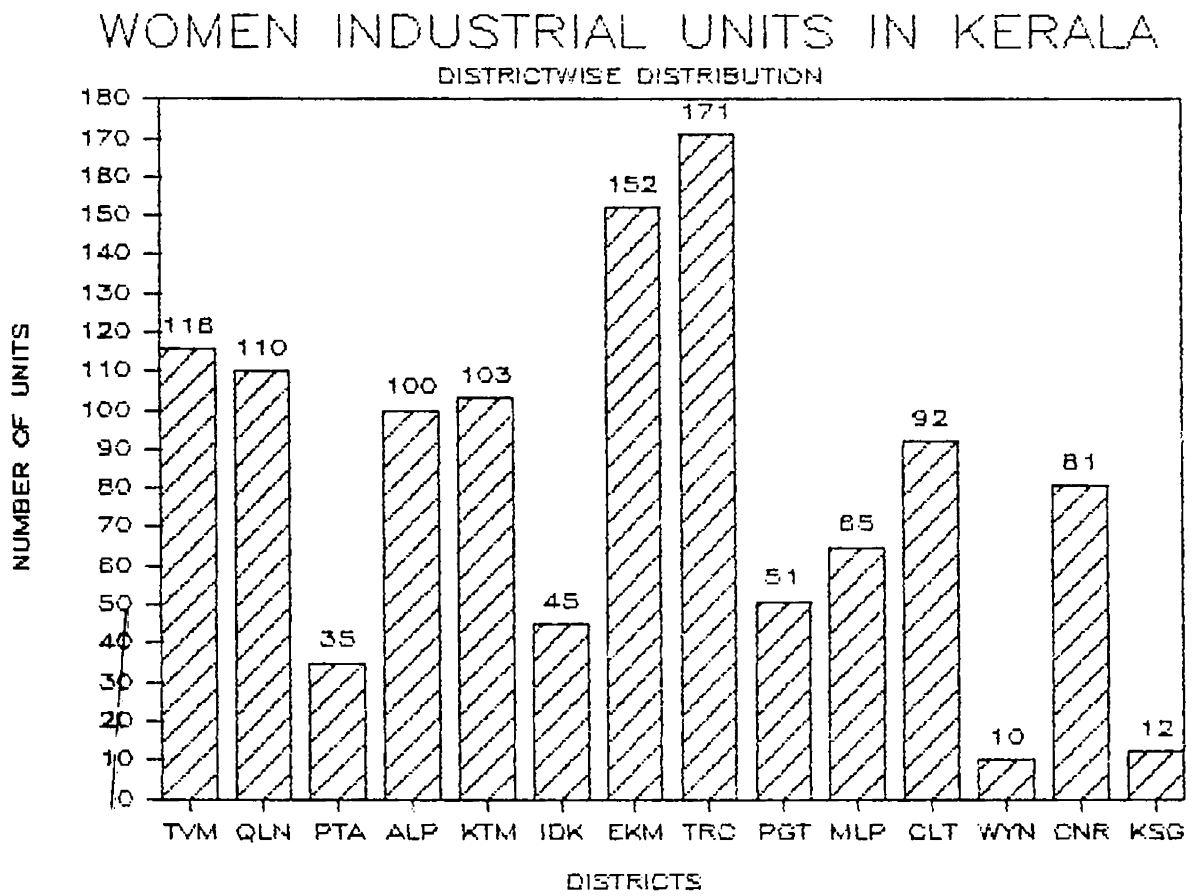
Table 2.3 Distribution of Women's Industrial Units in Kerala - District-Wise

District	No. of Units	Per cent
Trivandrum	116	10.15
Quilon	110	9.62
Pathanamthitta	35	3.06
Alleppey	100	8.75
Kottayam	103	9.01
Idukki	45	3.94
Ernakulam	152	13.30
Trichur	171	14.96
Palghat	51	4.46
Malappuram	65	5.69
Calicut	92	8.05
Wynad	10	0.87
Cannanore	81	7.09
Kasaragod	12	1.05
Kerala	1,143	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Note: Wynad, Pathanamthitta and Kasaragod districts were formed in November 1, 1980, November 1, 1982 and May 24, 1984 respectively.

Diagram 2.3



Districts Ranked According to Percentage of Women's
Industrial Units to All Kerala.

KERALA

MAP 2.1

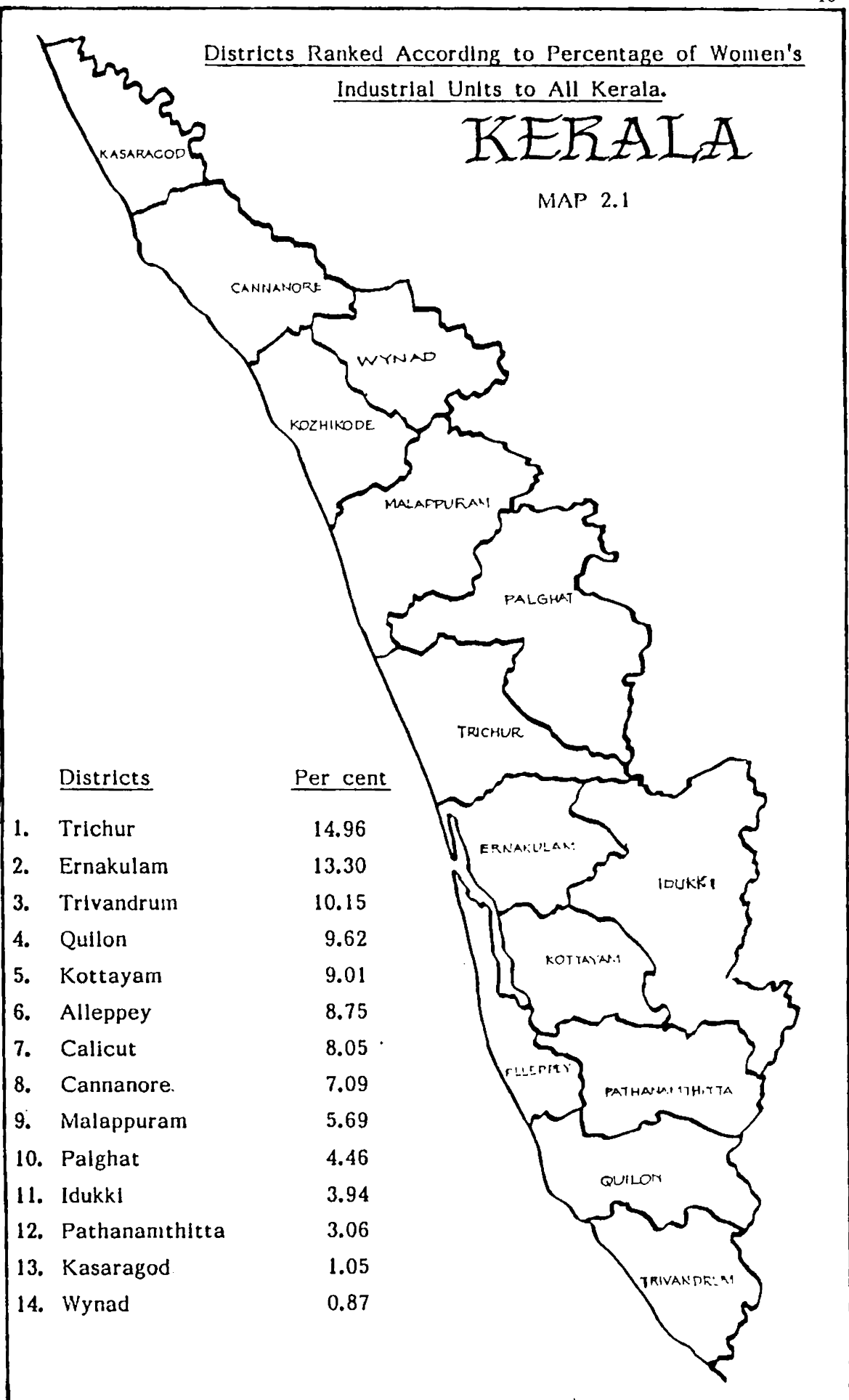


Table 2.4 Year-Wise-District-Wise Percentage Distribution of Women's Industrial Units

District	Before 1978	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	Total
Trivandrum	7.76	6.03	16.38	4.31	20.68	0.86	20.69	12.07	8.62	2.59	100
Quilon	9.09	3.64	7.27	17.27	13.64	-	10.91	13.64	11.82	12.73	100
Pathanamthitta	--	--	--	--	--	--	42.86	--	20.00	37.14	100
Alleppey	5.00	1.00	24.00	3.00	--	19.00	15.00	10.00	12.00	11.00	100
Kottayam	2.91	--	22.33	3.88	6.80	9.71	5.82	26.22	7.77	14.56	100
Idukki	--	11.11	8.89	2.22	--	26.67	22.22	17.78	4.44	6.67	100
Ernakulam	2.63	6.58	7.24	23.03	3.29	4.61	--	25.00	13.16	14.47	100
Trichur	11.11	5.26	5.26	2.92	42.69	5.85	4.68	2.34	12.87	7.02	100
Palghat	15.69	3.92	13.73	3.92	--	5.88	37.25	3.92	11.76	3.92	100
Malappuram	7.69	7.69	--	3.08	20.00	--	32.31	6.15	--	23.08	100
Calicut	5.43	2.17	9.78	11.96	10.87	--	35.87	8.70	4.35	10.87	100
Wynad	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	50.00	20.00	30.00	100
Cannanore	6.17	2.47	20.99	16.05	2.47	--	38.27	6.17	3.70	3.70	100
Kasaragod	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	41.67	25.00	33.33	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Table 2.5 District-Wise - Year-Wise Distribution of Women's Industrial Units

District	Before 1978	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87
Trivandrum	9(12.33)	7(14.89)	19(14.50)	5(5.00)	24(16.10)	1(1.61)	24(12.37)	14(9.65)	10(8.93)	3(2.31)
Quilon	10(13.69)	4(8.51)	8(6.11)	19(19.00)	15(10.07)	--	12(6.19)	15(10.33)	13(11.61)	14(10.77)
Pathanamthitta	--	--	--	--	--	--	15(7.73)	--	7(6.25)	13(10.00)
Alleppey	5(6.85)	1(2.13)	24(18.32)	3(3.00)	--	19(30.65)	15(7.73)	10(6.90)	12(10.71)	11(8.46)
Kottayam	3(4.11)	--	23(17.56)	4(4.00)	7(4.70)	10(16.13)	6(3.09)	27(18.62)	8(7.14)	15(11.54)
Idukki	--	5(10.64)	4(3.05)	1(1.00)	--	12(19.35)	10(5.15)	8(5.52)	2(1.79)	3(2.31)
Ernakulam	4(5.48)	10(21.28)	11(8.40)	35(35.00)	5(3.36)	7(11.29)	--	38(26.21)	20(17.85)	22(16.92)
Trichur	19(26.03)	9(19.15)	9(6.87)	5(5.00)	73(48.99)	10(16.73)	8(4.12)	4(2.76)	22(19.64)	12(9.23)
Palghat	8(10.96)	2(4.26)	7(5.34)	2(2.00)	--	3(4.84)	19(9.79)	2(1.38)	6(5.36)	2(1.54)
Malappuram	5(6.85)	5(10.64)	--	2(2.00)	13(8.72)	--	21(10.82)	4(2.76)	--	15(11.54)
Calicut	5(6.85)	2(4.25)	9(6.87)	11(11.00)	10(6.71)	--	33(17.0)	8(5.52)	4(3.57)	10(9.69)
Wynad	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	5(3.45)	2(1.79)	3(2.31)
Cannanore	5(6.85)	2(4.25)	17(12.98)	13(13.00)	2(1.34)	--	31(15.98)	5(3.45)	3(2.68)	3(2.31)
Kasaragod	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	5(3.45)	3(2.68)	4(3.08)
Kerala	73(100)	47(100)	131(100)	100(100)	149(100)	62(100)	194(100)	145(100)	112(100)	130(100)

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Note: Figures in brackets denote the percentage of each district to total number of units in Kerala.

There are 891 (77.95%) sole proprietary concerns, 63 (5.51%) partnership firms, 62 (5.42%) charitable institutions, five (0.44%) joint-stock companies and 122 (10.67%) industrial co-operative societies (Table 2.6 and Diagram 2.4).

Table 2.6 Organisational Set-up of Women's Industrial Units in Kerala.

Organisational set-up	No. of Units	Per cent
Proprietary	891	77.95
Partnership	63	5.51
Charitable Institution	62	5.43
Joint-Stock Company	5	0.44
Industrial Co-operative Society	122	10.67
Total	1,143	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

In all districts of Kerala except Wynad, sole proprietary is the most familiar form of business organisation. In Wynad 70 per cent of the units are industrial co-operative societies and the rest, sole proprietary. No charitable institutions are established in Palghat, Malappuram, Wynad and Kasaragod, whereas joint-stock companies are found only in Trivandrum, Alleppey and Ernakulam (Table 2.7).

Diagram 2.4

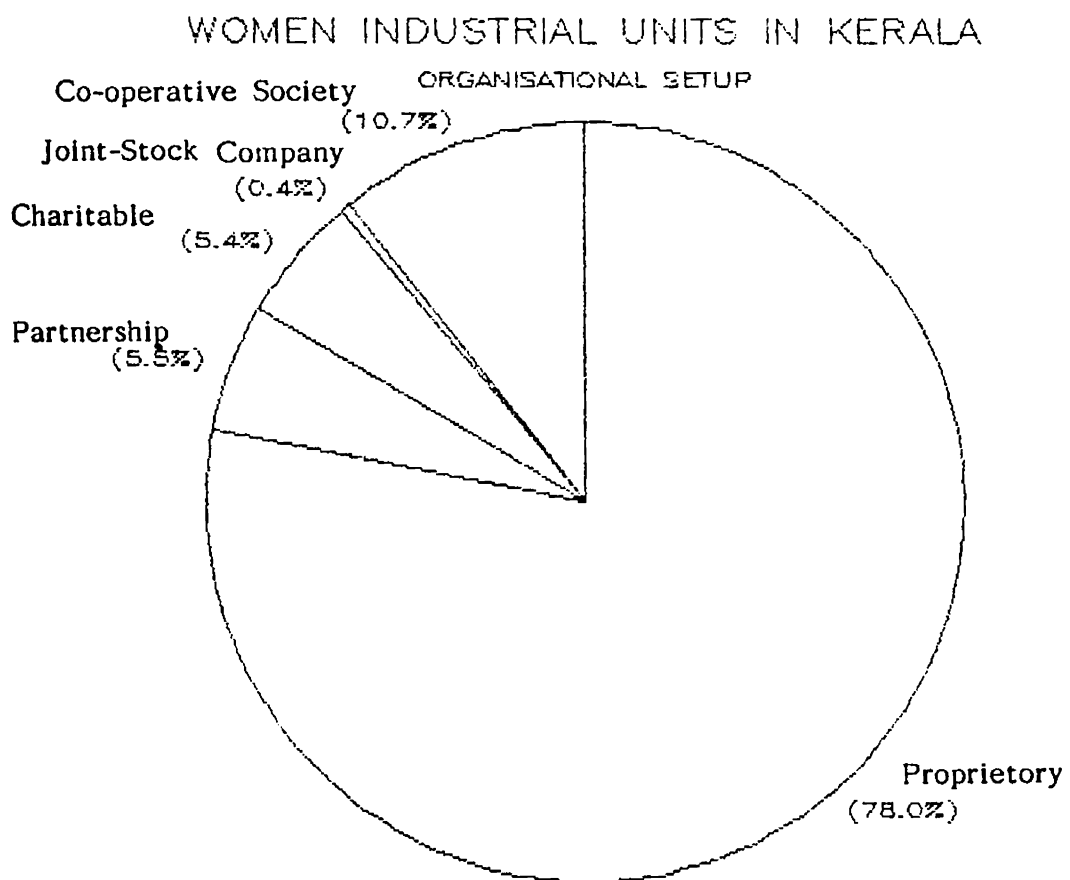


Table 2.7 Organisational Set-up of Women's Industrial Units Established in Kerala (Percentage Distribution - District-Wise)

District	Proprietary	Partnership	Charitable Institution	Joint-Stock Company	Industrial Co-operative Society	Total
Trivandrum	77.59	3.45	8.62	1.72	8.62	100
Quilon	81.82	0.91	7.27	--	10.00	100
Pathanamthitta	88.57	5.71	2.86	--	2.86	100
Alleppey	76.00	3.00	4.00	2.00	15.00	100
Kottayam	83.50	8.73	6.80	--	0.97	100
Idukki	77.78	2.22	8.89	--	11.11	100
Ernakulam	87.50	4.61	5.26	0.66	1.97	100
Trichur	63.74	8.19	9.36	--	18.71	100
Palghat	84.31	5.88	--	--	9.80	100
Malappuram	87.69	4.62	--	--	7.69	100
Calicut	82.61	8.70	2.17	--	6.52	100
Wynad	30.00	--	--	--	70.00	100
Cannanore	65.43	7.41	2.47	--	24.69	100
Kasaragod	75.00	16.67	--	--	8.33	100
Kerala	77.95	5.51	5.42	0.44	10.67	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Of the 891 sole proprietary form of business organisation, 133 (14.93%) are in Ernakulam followed by Trichur, 109 (12.23%), whereas partnerships are concerned, Trichur ranks first having 14 out of 63 units (22.22%) followed by Kottayam nine (14.29%). Charitable institutions are mainly located in Trichur district (16 out of 62) and the least in Pathanamthitta. Where joint-stock companies are concerned there are two each in Trivandrum and Alleppey and one in Ernakulam (out of 5). Industrial co-operative societies are mainly located in Trichur i.e. 32 out of 122 (26.22%) (Table 2.8).

As shown in Table 2.9 women entrepreneurs in Kerala engage in 13 different types of trade. The largest number of women entrepreneurs are engaged in ready-made garments business (34%) followed by printing and book binding (15.22%) and the least in engineering works (0.44%) (Diagram 2.5).

Trade-wise concentration of units are given in Table 2.10. Food products (14.75%), printing and book binding (14.37%) and handloom textiles (74.28%) are concentrated in Ernakulam district. In the case of ready-made garments (13.33%), chemical industrial units (32%), handicrafts (40.48%), engineering works (40%) and miscellaneous products (14.38%) the credit goes to Trichur district. In the case of candle units Ernakulam and Trichur are equally important (16.66% each). Quilon is best suited for match dipping (59.46%), Kottayam for radio assembling (21.88%) and rubber products (57.78%), and Malappuram for clinical laboratories (28.57%).

Table 2.8 Organisation-Wise Distribution of Women's Industrial Units in Each District

District	Proprietary	Partnership	Charitable Institution	Joint-Stock Company	Industrial Co-operative Society
Trivandrum	90(10.10)	4(6.35)	10(16.13)	2(40.00)	10(8.20)
Quilon	90(10.10)	1(1.59)	8(12.90)	--	11(9.02)
Pathanamthitta	31(3.48)	2(3.17)	1(1.61)	--	1(0.82)
Alleppey	76(8.53)	3(4.76)	4(6.45)	2(40.00)	15(12.30)
Kottayam	86(9.65)	9(14.29)	7(11.29)	--	1(0.82)
Idukki	35(3.93)	1(1.59)	4(6.45)	--	5(4.10)
Ernakulam	133(14.93)	7(11.11)	8(12.90)	1(20.00)	3(2.46)
Trichur	109(12.23)	14(22.22)	16(25.80)	--	32(26.22)
Palghat	43(4.83)	3(4.76)	--	--	5(4.10)
Malappuram	57(6.40)	3(4.76)	--	--	5(4.10)
Calicut	76(8.53)	8(12.70)	2(3.23)	--	6(4.91)
Wynad	3(0.33)	--	--	--	7(5.74)
Cannanore	53(5.95)	6(9.52)	2(3.23)	--	20(16.39)
Kasaragod	9(1.01)	2(3.17)	--	--	1(0.82)
Kerala	891(100)	63(100)	62(100)	5(100)	122(100)

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

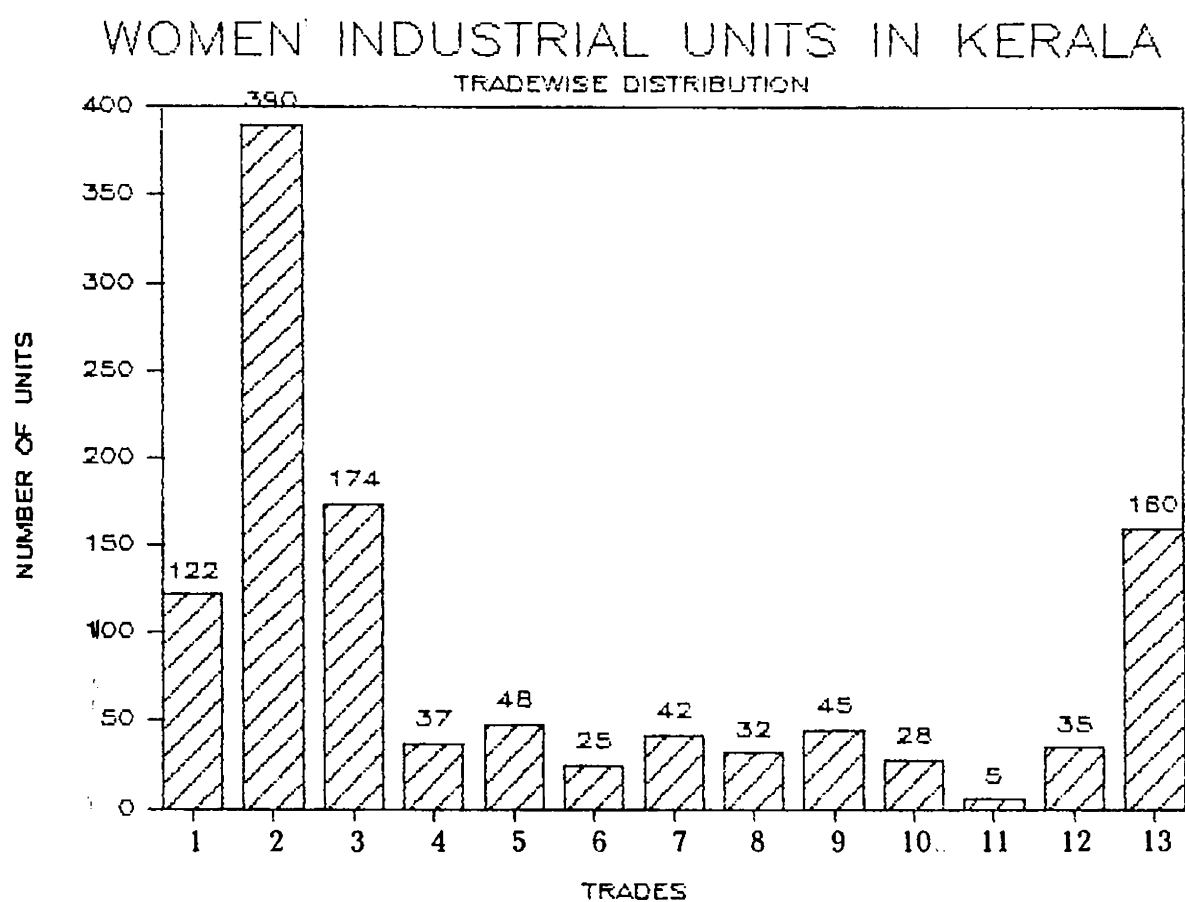
Note: Figures in brackets denote the percentage of each district to total number of units in Kerala.

Table 2.9 Trade-Wise Details Relating to Women's Industrial Units in Kerala as on 31-03-1987

Trade	No. of Units	Per cent
Food Industries	122	10.67
Ready-made Garments	390	34.12
Printing and Book Binding	174	15.22
Match Dipping	37	3.24
Candle	48	4.20
Chemical Industries	25	2.19
Handicrafts	42	3.67
Radio Assembling	32	2.80
Rubber Industries	45	3.94
Clinical Laboratories	28	2.45
Engineering Works	5	0.44
Handloom Textiles	35	3.06
Miscellaneous	160	14.00
Total	1,143	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Diagram 2.5



- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Food Industries | 7. Handicrafts |
| 2. Ready-made Garments | 8. Radio Assembling |
| 3. Printing and Book Binding | 9. Rubber Industries |
| 4. Match Dipping | 10. Clinical Laboratories |
| 5. Candle | 11. Engineering Works |
| 6. Chemical Industries | 12. Handloom Textiles |
| 13. Miscellaneous | |

Table 2.10 District-Wise - Trade-Wise percentage Distribution of Women's Industrial Units.

District	Food Industries	Ready-made Garments	Printing & Book Binding	Match Dipping	Candle	Chemical Industries	Handicrafts	Radio Assembling	Rubber Industries	Clinical Laboratories	Engineering Works	Handloom Textiles	Miscellaneous
Trivandrum	8.19	9.74	16.67	5.41	14.58	8.00	14.29	9.38	-	-	-	2.86	11.25
Quilon	6.56	8.46	8.05	59.46	14.58	8.00	19.05	6.25	2.22	-	-	2.86	7.50
Pathanamthitta	5.74	1.54	3.45	-	4.17	8.00	4.76	6.25	8.88	-	-	-	2.50
Alleppey	11.47	10.77	7.47	10.81	10.42	8.00	7.14	6.25	4.44	7.14	20.00	-	6.25
Kottayam	6.56	6.15	6.90	-	12.50	8.00	-	21.88	57.78	14.29	-	-	8.75
Idukki	4.10	6.41	2.87	2.70	4.17	-	2.38	3.12	4.44	-	-	-	1.86
Ernakulam	14.75	9.74	14.37	2.70	16.66	16.00	2.38	3.12	13.33	3.57	20.00	74.28	13.75
Trichur	12.30	13.33	13.79	13.51	16.66	32.00	40.48	9.38	2.22	25.00	40.00	17.14	14.38
Palghat	4.92	5.64	5.75	5.41	2.08	-	2.38	-	-	3.57	-	-	5.00
Malappuram	11.47	5.13	4.60	-	-	4.00	2.38	9.38	4.44	28.57	-	-	5.00
Calicut	4.92	7.95	8.62	-	4.17	4.00	2.38	6.25	2.22	14.29	-	-	18.13
Wynad	0.82	0.77	0.57	-	-	-	2.38	3.12	-	-	-	-	1.88
Cannanore	4.96	13.08	6.32	-	-	4.00	-	12.50	-	-	20.00	2.86	3.75
Kasaragod	3.28	1.28	0.57	-	-	-	-	3.12	-	3.57	-	-	-
Kerala	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Women entrepreneurs in Trivandrum engage mainly in ready-made garments (32.76%) and printing and book binding (25%), Pathanamthitta food products (20%), Kottayam rubber products (25.24%) and ready-made garments (23.30%), and Wynad miscellaneous and ready-made garments (30% each). Women entrepreneurs in all other districts of Kerala are mainly dealing in ready-made garments business (Table 2.11).

One of the important objectives of the establishment of small industrial units is to create immediate large scale employment opportunities and to offset periodic irregularities in agricultural employment in the country. Table 2.12 shows direct employment generation through women's industrial units in Kerala. Women's industrial units in Kerala have provided employment to 12,475 persons. On an average the employment provided per unit works out to 11. Eventhough the highest number of women's industrial units are seen in Trichur, employment creation is the highest in Ernakulam district i.e., 1,724 (13.82%).

Details of grant sanctioned to women's industrial units from 1978-79 to 1986-87 is given in Table 2.13. Total amount of grant sanctioned to these units was about Rs.113 lakhs. The highest amount of grant sanctioned to these units was during 1986-87 i.e., 22.17 per cent and the least in 1978-79 (0.81%).

Distribution of grant to women's industrial units is the highest in Ernakulam district (14.36%) and the least in Wynad district (0.78%). But 14.36 per cent of the total grant was sanctioned to 169 units in Ernakulam,

Table 2.11 Trade-Wise - District -Wise percentage Distribution of Women's Industrial Units

District	Food Industries	Ready-made Garments	Printing & Book Binding	Match Dipping	Candle	Chemical Industries	Handicrafts	Radio Assembling	Rubber Industries	Clinical Laboratories	Engineering Works	Handloom Textiles	Miscellaneous	Total
Trivandrum	8.62	32.76	25.00	1.72	6.03	1.72	5.17	2.59	-	-	-	0.86	15.52	100
Quilon	7.27	30.00	12.73	20.00	6.36	1.82	7.27	1.82	0.91	-	-	0.91	10.91	100
Pathanamthitta	20.00	17.14	17.14	-	5.71	5.71	5.71	5.71	11.43	-	-	-	11.43	100
Alleppey	14.00	42.00	13.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	-	10.00	100
Kottayam	7.77	23.30	11.65	-	5.83	1.94	-	6.80	25.24	3.88	-	-	13.59	100
Idukki	11.11	55.56	11.11	2.22	4.44	2.22	2.22	4.44	-	-	-	-	6.67	100
Ernakulam	11.84	25.00	16.44	0.66	5.26	2.63	0.66	0.66	3.95	0.66	0.66	17.11	14.47	100
Trichur	8.77	30.41	14.04	2.92	4.68	4.68	9.94	1.75	0.58	4.09	1.17	3.51	13.45	100
Palghat	11.76	43.14	19.61	3.92	1.96	-	1.96	-	-	4.96	-	-	15.69	100
Malappuram	21.54	30.77	12.30	-	-	1.54	1.54	4.61	3.08	12.31	-	-	12.31	100
Calicut	6.52	33.70	16.30	-	2.17	1.09	1.09	2.17	1.09	4.35	-	-	31.52	100
Wynad	10.00	30.00	10.00	-	-	-	10.00	10.00	-	-	-	-	30.00	100
Cannanore	7.41	62.96	13.58	-	-	1.23	-	4.94	-	-	1.23	1.23	7.41	100
Kasaragod	33.33	41.67	8.33	-	-	-	-	8.33	-	8.33	-	-	-	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Table 2.12 Employment Provided by Women's Industrial Units :
District-Wise

District	No. of Units	No. of Labourers Employed	Percentage Employed
Trivandrum	116	1,415	11.34
Quilon	110	1,588	12.73
Pathanamthitta	35	309	2.48
Alleppey	100	1,168	9.36
Kottayam	103	754	6.04
Idukki	45	561	4.50
Ernakulam	152	1,724	13.82
Trichur	171	1,673	13.41
Palghat	51	597	4.79
Malappuram	65	367	2.94
Calicut	92	700	5.61
Wynad	10	474	3.80
Cannanore	81	1,068	8.56
Kasaragod	12	77	0.62
Kerala	1,143	12,475	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Table 2.13 Grant Sanctioned to Women's Industrial Units in Kerala:
Year - Wise

Year	Amount (Rs.)	Percentage
1978 - 79	91,635.00	0.81
1979 - 80	8,89,233.00	7.88
1980 - 81	15,05,260.00	13.34
1981 - 82	13,58,201.00	12.04
1982 - 83	10,51,749.00	9.32
1983 - 84	10,08,226.00	8.94
1984 - 85	15,59,490.00	13.82
1985 - 86	13,17,900.00	11.68
1986 - 87	25,01,077.95	22.17
Total	1,12,82,771.95	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

whereas 14.15 per cent have been sanctioned to 225 units in Trichur. In this respect, units in Ernakulam district have got more grant from the Government (Table 2.14).

Share participation given to women's industrial co-operative societies in Kerala from 1979 - 80 to 1986 - 87 is furnished in Table 2.15. Total amount of share participation sanctioned to the women's industrial co-operative societies in Kerala was about Rs.41 lakhs. The highest amount sanctioned was during 1981-82 (26.82%) and the least in 1982-83 (3.38%).

Pathanamthitta district has not got any share participation from the State Government to the women's industrial co-operatives. Among the 14 districts, Trichur bagged the highest (22.69%) amount of share participation to women's industrial co-operative societies and Wynad got the least i.e. 1.29 per cent (Table 2.16).

Table 2.14 District-Wise Distribution of Grant to Women's Industrial Units
During 1978-1979 to 1986-1987

District	No. of Units Received grant	Amount (Rs.)	Percentage of grant
Trivandrum	165	12,93,910.10	11.87
Quilon	152	13,61,501.00	12.50
Pathanamthitta	26	2,30,517.50	2.12
Alleppey	115	7,90,362.25	7.25
Kottayam	102	10,52,687.15	9.66
Idukki	57	3,98,256.00	3.65
Ernakulam	169	15,64,786.95	14.36
Trichur	225	15,41,355.50	14.15
Palghat	79	5,57,767.00	5.12
Malappuram	69	5,91,531.00	5.43
Calicut	97	7,76,428.50	7.13
Wynad	14	84,580.00	0.78
Cannanore	104	4,92,889.00	4.52
Kasaragod	16	1,58,667.00	1.46
Kerala	1390 [*]	1,08,95,238.95 ^{**}	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

* Eventhough there are only 1143 women's industrial units in Kerala, grants were sanctioned to 1390 units. It may be that, a few units may have got grant more than once.

** 1982-83 special central assistance Rs.3,40,033 to 49 women's industrial units. 1985-86 special Central Govt. assistance in the form of grant to seminar and exhibition (Rs.47,500) to the Directorate. As district-wise break-up is not available, excluded here.

Table 2.15 Share Participation Given to Women's Industrial
Co-operative Societies : Year-Wise

Year	No. of Societies Received Share	Amount (Rs.)	Percentage of Share
1979 - 80	30	8,10,990	19.58
1980 - 81	30	5,35,300	12.93
1981 - 82	32	11,10,250	26.82
1982 - 83	2	1,40,000	3.38
1983 - 84	11	3,00,400	7.26
1984 - 85	15	7,23,400	17.47
1985 - 86	4	2,70,000	6.52
1986 - 87	N.A.	2,50,000	6.04
Total		41,40,340	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Table 2.16 District-Wise Distribution of Share Participation Given to Women's Industrial Co-operative Societies (1979-80 to 1985-86)

District	No. of Units Received Share	Amount (Rs.)	Percentage of Share
Trivandrum	13	3,41,750	8.78
Quilon	12	2,88,340	7.41
Pathanamthitta *	-	--	-
Alleppey	20	6,21,050	15.96
Kottayam	3	1,23,000	3.16
Idukki	3	1,73,700	4.46
Ernakulam	4	1,29,990	3.34
Trichur	27	8,82,590	22.69
Palghat	4	81,650	2.10
Malappuram	11	2,16,970	5.58
Calicut	6	1,52,100	3.91
Wynad	1	50,000	1.29
Cannanore	19	7,69,200	19.77
Kasaragod	1	60,000	1.54
Kerala	124	38,90,340 **	100

Source: Same as in Table 2.1

Note:

*Has not got any share participation to the women's industrial co-operative societies.

**As district-wise break-up of share participation given to women's industrial co-operative societies during 1986-87 is not available, it is excluded. Total during 1986-87 is Rs.2,50,000.

2.5 Organisations in the Service of Women Entrepreneurs

The role of different agencies/organisations in the development of women entrepreneurship in post independent Kerala is discussed in this section. The first generation of women entrepreneurs were unfortunately deprived of such facilities as there were no organisations to come to their help. But gradually different agencies and organisations came into being not only to provide financial assistance but also to impart training, technical know-how and consultancy services. These organisations and agencies are the motivating force to develop entrepreneurship. If an entrepreneur is the captain of the ship of the enterprise, the organisations and agencies which come to the help of entrepreneurs are like steering wheels of the ship.

2.5.1 Kerala State Government's Special Assistance Scheme

Let us have a look into the special assistance, provided by the Kerala State Government for the promotion of women's industrial activities. The following special incentives are already being given to the women's industrial units as grant assistance by way of reimbursement.

1. Establishment charges of a paid manager or secretary and one Technical Expert subject to a maximum of Rs.500/- per month for four years on a tapering scale of 100 per cent for the first year, 75 per cent for the second year, 50 per cent for the third year and 25 per cent for the fourth year.

2. Fifty per cent of the cost of machinery subject to a maximum of Rs.25,000/-.
3. Rent of building subject to a maximum of Rs.500/- per month for four years on a tapering scale.
4. Stipend to trainees, Rs.50 per month per trainee for 6 months and wastage allowance for raw materials subject to a maximum of Rs.2,000/-.

2.5.1.1 Government Share Participation In Women's Industrial Co-operative Societies

The industrial co-operative societies are sponsored by women belonging to the lower income strata. The promoters of these societies find it very difficult to raise adequate funds for the profitable operation of industrial units and provide employment to all job seeking members. The intention of the scheme is to enable primary societies to raise funds by extending government share participation proportionate to the collected share i.e., four times of the collected share subject to a maximum of rupees one lakh.

2.5.1.2 Sales Tax Exemption

Women's industrial units are exempted from payment of sales tax for six years from the date of commencement of production.

2.5.1.3 Marketing Assistance

The Industries Department subsidises the expenses met by women's industrial units towards marketing support devices like advertisement in dailies, cinema slides, radio commercial broadcasts, participation in Trade Fairs, etc.

2.5.1.4 Ancillary Units of Kerala Electronic Development Corporation

A scheme has already been envisaged jointly by the Industries Department and the 'Keltron' for establishing a number of women's industrial units in the co-operative sector and charitable trusts for assembling of electronic items such as radio sets. The employment expected to be generated under this scheme in 10 years is 25,000 on full implementation.

2.5.1.5 Industrial Management Training Courses for Women

Often when women entrepreneurs take up industrial activities, they try to compensate the managerial deficiencies by hiring men as managers. Hence in order to develop women as good managers and also to instil confidence in them to run small scale industrial units, stipendary training courses are conducted exclusively for women. The trained women are helped by the department to take up self-employment programmes. These training courses are found very effective for the entrepreneurs²⁷.

2.5.2 Entrepreneurship Development Institute

Entrepreneurship Development Institute (EDI) is a unique institute.

27. Vijayamma, E.J. "Kerala State Government, Measures taken to promote self-employment and Entrepreneurship among Women" - Report, Directorate of Industries, Vikas Bhavan, Trivandrum, Kerala, 1986.

It is training a new generation of entrepreneurs, thereby exploding a few myths, that entrepreneurs are born not made, and that entrepreneurship is inherent only in a few castes and communities and found exclusively in some States. The Institute has been training entrepreneurs in diverse regions like the Andamans, Kerala, Goa, Sikkim, Bihar, and Arunachal Pradesh.

The Institute conducts result-oriented Entrepreneur Development Programme (EDP). EDP is well established to promote Small Scale Industries in industrially backward and rural areas and for developing local resources. Special EDPs are conducted for target groups like, science and technology graduates, women, for rural self-employment and existing entrepreneurs. EDI also provides expertise for the selection of entrepreneurs achievement motivation training and pre-programme promotional activities²⁸.

2.5.3 Kerala Industrial and Technical Consultancy Organisation

Kerala Industrial and Technical Consultancy Organisation (KITCO) was established in 1972 by the Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI) as its subsidiary with the objective of serving mainly the technical consultancy needs of small and medium scale enterprises, particularly in the rural and backward regions and that of financial institutions and commercial banks for a systematic appraisal and post sanction monitoring of industrial projects.

28. Krishnan, Jairam, "A School for Future Tycoons", The Economic Times, October 6, 1985, pp. 4 & 5.

KITCO renders various types of consultancy services to entrepreneurs/institutions/organisations by way of preparing project reports, sick unit study revival reports, project monitoring, modernisation reports, working capital assessment report, market survey report, detailed engineering services, etc.

Conducting EDP on a regular basis is a major activity for the Management Consultancy Division of KITCO. EDPs through tailor made training programme for different target groups have been undertaken by KITCO. The total number of persons trained through EDPs so far (April 1987) is 1927 persons including 204 women and 748 belonging to SC/ST. The success rate of the EDP conducted by KITCO in Kerala over the years, has been registering a gradual but steady improvement over the years. From very small percentage of success in the initial years, KITCO could achieve a success rate of 20.5 per cent in 1984-85. In the programmes conducted for the period 1985-86 KITCO had registered a success rate of 17 per cent as on 15th December 1986. At the end of the one year after the conclusion of EDPs the 1985-86 programmes are also poised to yield a success rate of over 20 per cent²⁹.

2.5.4 Kerala Financial Corporation (KFC)

KFC was incorporated under the State Financial Corporations Act 1951 on 1-12-1953. It has district offices at all the district head quarters of the State. The main objectives of the corporation is to encourage, promote

29. Gopalakrishnan, P.G., Entrepreneurship Development, an unpublished dissertation, Cochin University of Science and Technology, 1986-87, pp. 10 & 11.

and aid the industrialisation of Kerala by providing long term finance to small and medium scale industrial units to start new industries and also to expand and diversify existing industries. The maximum amount of loan the corporation can advance to an industrial concern is Rs.30 lakhs. The corporation also finances acquisition of trucks and buses, hotel industry, X-ray plants, etc. There are special schemes for technocrats and for scheduled castes and tribes. It operates the scheme of seed capital assistance of its own and that of IDBI. The KFC is the main institution which finances new small scale units³⁰.

2.5.5 National Small Industries Corporation Limited

National Small Industries Corporation Ltd. (NSIC) was set up by the Government of India in 1955 to promote and develop small scale industries in the country. The corporation provided support to small scale sector in the following areas.

1. Supply of both indigenous and imported machines on easy hire purchase terms. Special concessional terms have been introduced for units in backward areas and also for units promoted by entrepreneurs from weaker sections of the society.
2. Marketing of small industries' products, based on consortia approach.

30. State Planning Board : Report of the High Level Committee on Industry, Trade and Power, Vol. 1, Govt. of Kerala, Trivandrum, 1984, pp.46-53.

3. Export of small industries' products and developing export worthiness of small scale units.
4. Enlisting competent units and facilitating their participation in government stores purchase programmes.
5. Developing prototypes of machines, equipment and tools which are then passed on for commercial production.
6. Training in several industrial trades.
7. Development and upgradation of technology for projects based on wastes.
8. Supply and distribution of indigenous and imported raw material.
9. Setting up small scale industries in other developing countries on turn key basis³¹.

2.5.6 Small Industries Development Organisations

Small Industries Development Organisation (SIDO) through its network of small industries service institutes, branch institutes and extension centres has been motivating women entrepreneurs to take up small industries of their own. Technical assistance and guidance are being provided to them on types of products and activities which could be taken up by them for gainfull employment. A number of project profiles have been prepared for the requirements of women entrepreneurs.

31. KITCO : Entrepreneurship Development Programme : Background papers (2nd Edn.), Cochin, 1987, pp.65 - 66.

In addition, the entrepreneurial development training courses are being conducted exclusively for women entrepreneurs normally covering a duration of one month. The objectives of entrepreneurial development training courses are :

- a) To make them aware of the various opportunities of self-employment,
- b) To motivate them to take up self-employment,
- c) To impart needed skills/training and
- d) To promote achievement motivation amongst them.

In short, the training programme is designed to help and provide assistance in developing certain traits and qualities which are so necessary to select start and run small industries of their own³².

2.5.7 Small Industries Service Institute

Small Industries Service Institute (SISI) Trichur, with its three extension centres at Calicut, Shornur and Alleppey together with the Central Workshop, Footwear Service Centre and Fruit Preservation Section at Trichur caters to the needs of prospective and existing entrepreneurs in the small scale sectors of Kerala and Lakshadweep by providing comprehensive economic, managerial and technical consultancy services including common facility and training.

32. SIDO: "Entrepreneurial Development Programme Among Women", Report, Development Commissioner, SSI, New Delhi.

SISI conducts Management Consultancy Services, Entrepreneur Development Programme courses, short-term management courses, seminars on motivation of entrepreneurs, and technical courses in extension centres and Technical Consultancy Services. Through the Mobile Demonstration Vans, nine courses including entrepreneurial development in carpentry, blacksmithy and leather footwear were conducted. It also undertakes ancillary development programme, subcontract exchange programme, modernisation programme, production index programme, training programme on packaging for exports, etc.

The institute continued to extend full co-operation and assistance to the Director of Industries and Commerce and 14 District Industries Centres in the State. Technical guidance, clarification of policies and programmes were offered to the different DICs from time to time³³.

2.5.8 Small Industries Development and Employment Corporation (SIDEKO)

The main objects to be pursued by SIDEKO which was incorporated in 6-11-1975 are the following:

- a) To aid, counsel, finance, protect and promote the interest of small scale industries in the state.
- b) To promote employment and entrepreneurship among the skilled, semi-skilled, trained, experienced and educated members of the public by promoting, establishing and undertaking the development of small scale and medium industries.

33. State Planning Board: Economic Review, Government of Kerala, Trivandrum, 1980-1987.

Infrastructure development for industries is the main function of the Corporation. The Raw Material Division has undertaken the procurement and distribution of cement, iron and steel, paraffin wax, coke and coal, a few chemicals, AC sheets, Nonferrous items such as Zinc, Aluminium and all types of rods and angles required for industrial and construction purpose.

The Marketing and Ancillary Division is expected to assist small scale industries in the State in marketing their finished products and promote the setting up of more ancillary units for supplying components to large and medium industries in the state. The information and Publicity Division is engaged in the publication of a monthly, the 'Vyavasaya Keralam' through which information connected with small scale industries is disseminated among small scale entrepreneurs³⁴.

2.5.9 District Industries Centres (DIC)

With the announcement of the industrial policy of the Government of India in December 1977, the concept of DIC originated. The DICs came into existence in the State by July 1978 in all the then districts. The DICs have been conceived as a single agency for making available all financial and technical assistance, inputs and other services required to an industrial entrepreneur under one roof.

The DICs act as catalysts of development, prepare action plan for the district, formulate project profiles for entrepreneurs and conduct project

34. Ibid.

viability studies. The DICs assist entrepreneurs, public enterprises and financial institutions in implementing various supporting schemes such as seed capital assistance to entrepreneurs, investment subsidies and other incentive schemes for the benefit of general category, women and Harijan entrepreneurs³⁵.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to outline the origin and growth of women entrepreneurship in a historical perspective. The emergence of women entrepreneurs in India especially in Kerala is an event related to International Women's Year. The International Women's Decade, 1975-85 witnessed a spurt of women entrepreneurs in Kerala. They have entered into both traditional and modern sectors. Majority of the units are sole proprietary concerns. There are a handful of agencies and institutions to extend assistance and training to women entrepreneurs.

Secondary source of information is insufficient to illustrate clearly the socio-economic and motivational factors of women entrepreneurship, profile of their enterprise and related problems. So relevant data has been collected from selected women entrepreneurs and are presented in the following chapters.

35. Pillai, V.R., A Report on the Role of Small Scale Industries in the Seventh Plan, State Planning Board, Govt. of Kerala, Trivandrum, 1986, pp.4-6.

Chapter 3

SOCIO - ECONOMIC BASIS OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Having outlined the history and growth of women entrepreneurship, it is proposed in this chapter to identify the sources of women entrepreneurship in Kerala by their socio-economic characteristics.

Entrepreneurship as an economic activity emerges and functions in socio-cultural setting. It could be conceived of as an individual's free choice of activity or a social group's occupation or profession. In the Indian context, entrepreneurs generally hail from communities which are traditionally endowed with entrepreneurial qualities. Of late, those from traditionally non-entrepreneurial groups have also made entry into this economic activity. Further, entrepreneurship may result in either basic, partial or total transformation in the client community as well.

Entrepreneurship is a function of multiple factors. Entrepreneurship originates in a society through individual activities. Individuals initiate, establish and maintain new enterprises and expand existing ones. Entrepreneurs grow in the tradition of their families and the society, and internalise certain values and norms. Socio-cultural factors like the family background and the norms and values of the immediate society contribute significantly to entrepreneurial development. It is also observed that the socio-political and economic policies of the government and the opportunities available in a

society influence entrepreneurship significantly. In addition, an effective functioning of the support systems like financial and commercial institutions, consultancy services, etc. play a crucial role in the development of entrepreneurship¹.

Thus, as aptly observed by Pareek and Nadkarni, four factors that influence the development of entrepreneurship, can be identified, viz., (a) the individual, (b) socio-cultural tradition, (c) support systems and (d) the environment².

3.1 Community

The predominance of certain communities in particular trade or occupation is neither insignificant nor can it be ignored. The underdeveloped countries have not yet reached a stage of development which can afford them either to discount or discard the notion that entrepreneurship is confined to few classes or communities³. It is intended here to probe into the genesis of entrepreneurship that may unravel the process of germination of entrepreneurship by establishing inter-relationships between socio-economic structures and entrepreneurship.

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1. Kannan, Gnana, "Training for Entrepreneurship Development", Developing Entrepreneurship, Issues and Problems, SIET, Hyderabad, 1980, P. 117.
 2. Ibid; P. 118.
 3. Gangadhara Rao, N., op. cit; P. 37.

If certain social groups produce a large and capable body of entrepreneurs, while others do not, an explanation is to be found in the prevailing social factors. This has been confirmed by Everett Hagen who studied the origin and background of several countries and regions, including England, Western Europe, Soviet Union, Japan and Latin America⁴.

In several countries, entrepreneurs have emerged from a particular socio-economic class. In Britain, United States of America and Turkey the ranks of entrepreneurs were largely filled from commerce⁵. It has often been suggested that certain religions encourage the growth of entrepreneurial ability. The protestant ethic of the West is considered to have significantly contributed to the emergence of a new class of industrialists⁶. In Japan it was the Samurai who turned to industry and kept their social structure intact by the expedient of adopting vigorous young businessmen or taking them into the family through marriage⁷. The emergence of smaller firms in France is attributed to the social structure, especially to their family pattern⁸.

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4. Higgins, Benjamin, "Requirements for Rapid Economic Development: Latin America", Social Aspects of Economic Development in Latin America, Vol. I, UNESCO, 1973.
 5. Kindleberger, Economic Development, Mc Graw-Hill, New York, 1961, P.86.
 6. Weber, Max, The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, translated by Talcott Parsons, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1958, pp. 17-22.
 7. Hery, M.J., "Contrasting Factors in the Modernisation of China and Japan", Simon Kuznets et.al (Eds.), Economic Growth: Brazil, India, Japan, N.C. Duke University Press, Durham, 1965, p.6.
 8. Landes, D.S., "French Entrepreneurship and Industrial Growth in the Nineteenth Century", Journal of Economic History, May, 1949, pp. 45-61.

In India also some communities (like the Parsees, Marwaris and Sindhies) seem to have a strong tendency for industrial activity, though the available evidence is not conclusive on this point. However, several studies undertaken at the regional level reveal the predominance of certain communities among the entrepreneurial classes. Lamb⁹ noted that Parsis, Gujaratis and Marwaris had monopolised industry even after independence and they are mostly concentrated in Bombay and Bengal. Acharya's¹⁰ study of business enterprises in Gujarat reported that these entrepreneurs were mostly business community people. Over 68 per cent of medium scale engineering units in the cities of Madras and Coimbatore belonged to these communities namely, Naidus (40%) Brahmins (23%) and Chettiars (15%)¹¹. This fact is confirmed by Shoji Ito who studied business firms and combinations of such firms and found that they all belonged to traditionally trading Nattukottai Chettiars¹². In a Bombay survey, 85 per cent of the entrepreneurs in art silk industry were advanced caste Hindus and Jains¹³. Singh's study of 25 small firms in light engineering industry of Agra revealed that Agarwal merchants

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9. Lamb, H.B., "The Indian Business Communities and the Evaluation of an Industrial Class", Pacific Affairs, Vol. XXVIII, No.2, June 1955, pp.101-116.
 10. Acharya, H., "Creative Response in Indian Economy: A Comment", Economic Weekly, Vol.IX, No.16, April 20, 1957, pp.547-549.
 11. Berna, James J., Industrial Entrepreneurship in Madras State, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1960, p.43.
 12. Shoji Ito, "A Note on the Business Combine in India with Special Reference to Nattukottai Chettiar", Developing Economies, Vol. IV, No.3, Sept. 1966, pp.367-380.
 13. UNESCO Research and Development Centre on Social and Economic Development in Southern Asia, Social Aspects of Some Industries in India: Studies in Howrah and Bombay, Delhi 1962, p.14.

and manufacturers dominated the industry and succeeded in it¹⁴. The proportion of Muslims among the small industrialists of Hyderabad was 58 per cent¹⁵.

Spodek observed that initially it was non-Banias who started the cotton textile industry in Ahmedabad, of course, with Banias financial support. Then Banias entered into the industry and brought out considerable changes in the city¹⁶. Mahadevan's¹⁷ study of an Indian trading caste, namely Chettiar in Malaya shows that the trading background promoted entrepreneurship even in strange culture and a foreign country. Financing communities were in fact more entrepreneurial than some of the trading communities due to their access to credit and background in banking and money lending. Christians, Nairs and Muslims of Kerala accounted for nearly 50 per cent of the small enterprises here, the proportion of the Christians being 22 per cent.¹⁸

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14. Singh, B.N., "Patterns of Entrepreneurship in Agra, Indian Journal of Commerce, Vol.XVII, Part III, No. 60, Sept. 1964, pp.205-213.
 15. UNESCO Research Centre on Social and Economic Development in Southern Asia, Small Industries and Social Change: Four Studies in India, Delhi, 1966, p.21.
 16. Spodek, H., "Traditional Culture and Entrepreneurship", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.IV, No.8, 22nd February 1969, pp.M27-M31.
 17. Mahadevan, R. "Pattern of Enterprises of Immigrant Entrepreneurs: A Study of Chettiars in Malaya, 1880-1930", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.13, Nos.4 and 5, Jan.29-Feb.4, 1978, pp.146-154.
 18. Oommen, M.A., Small Industry in Indian Economic Growth : A Case Study of Kerala, Research Publications in Social Sciences, Delhi, 1972, p.174.

3.1.1 Community Background of Women Entrepreneurs

The community background of the respondent women entrepreneurs is given in Table 3.1. In Kerala there is the co-existence of different communities based on religion and caste. They are Christians, Nairs, Ezhavas, Muslims, Brahmins, Other Hindus (Hindus other than Nair, Ezhava and Brahmin) and SC/ST. Among the 102 entrepreneurs, 33 are Christians (32.35%), 22 are Nairs (21.57%), 21 are Ezhavas (20.59%), Muslims 10 (9.80%), Brahmins five (4.90%), other Hindus three (2.94%) and SC/ST eight (7.84%).

Table 3.1 Community-Wise Distribution of Entrepreneurs
(N. 102)

Community	Frequency	Per cent
Christian	33	32.35
Nair	22	21.57
Ezhava	21	20.59
Muslim	10	9.80
Brahmin	5	4.90
Other Hindus	3	2.94
SC/ST	8	7.84
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

It is clear from the table that nearly one-third of the women entrepreneurs belong to Christian community. While comparing the percentage distribution of women entrepreneurs, SC/ST holds better position to Brahmins and other Hindus and not too low compared to Muslims. SC/ST women emerging as entrepreneurs is a noteworthy feature.

In Kerala, Christians and Muslims are the predominantly business and banking communities. On the West Coast in South, most of the trade was in the hands of Syrian Christians called Nazrani Mappilas and Mohammedan merchants known as Mophlas. The internal trade of Cochin and Travancore was financed mainly by the Nazrani Mappilas, while the Mophlas are found in larger or smaller numbers throughout Malabar and Canara¹⁹.

As the trading monopoly of the East India Company faded and finally vanished after 1857, many of the Christians prospered as merchants in the benign atmosphere of Victorian free trade. They became private bankers, and when native joint stock banks began to appear at the end of the 19th century, it was the Syrian and Chaldean Christians who were most active in promoting them²⁰.

19 Sarada Raju, A., Economic Conditions in the Madras Presidency 1800-1850, Department of Economics, University of Madras, 1941, pp.186-187.

20. George, Woodcock, Kerala - A Portrait of the Malabar Coast, Feber and Feber, London, 1967, p.227.

In the present study, Muslim women entrepreneurs are comparatively few, i.e. only 9.80 per cent. But Sulochana Nadkarni's study on women entrepreneurs of Pune city reveals that there is not even a single Muslim women among the 75 respondents²¹. It may be because of the peculiar religious, cultural and social background in which the Muslim women are brought up.

Assuming that around 50 per cent of the population is women, the ratio of women population to sample women entrepreneurs on the basis of community is given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 The Ratio of Women Population to Sample Women Entrepreneurs : Community - Wise.

Community	Percentage of Women * Population	Percentage Distri- of Sample Women Entrepreneurs	Ratio of Women Population to sample women entrepreneurs
Hindus ***	29.71	57.84	1:2
Christians	10.53	32.35	1:3
Muslims	9.75	9.80	1:1

Source: *Census of India 1981 'Final Population Totals', Series 10, paper 3, p.32.

**Survey Data

*** In the Census Report, population is classified on the basis of religion. So entrepreneurs other than Christians and Muslims are included in the general category of Hindus.

21. Nadkarni, Sulochana, op. Cit.

It is clear from the above table that, although Christian Women constitute only 10.53 per cent of the population of Kerala, it is remarkable that nearly one-third of the women respondents are drawn from the Christian community and about 90 per cent (See Table 3.15) of them are fairly literate. In the case of Hindus, the ratio of women population to entrepreneurs is 1:2 whereas the corresponding ratio for muslims is only 1:1. This may be because the impact of modernisation has been felt relatively more on the Christians and Hindus than on the Muslims.

In the present study, there is not even a single women entrepreneur from Malappuram district which is considered to be the Centre of Muslims in Kerala. Even though 9.80 per cent of the women entrepreneurs are Muslims, they hail from predominantly urban areas like, Calicut, Cochin, Trichur, etc. From this, an inference can be drawn that, Muslim women in the urban areas are more emancipated than their rural counterparts.

Still, it is surprising to note that a muslim woman entrepreneur is leading the women entrepreneurs in Kerala. She is the Secretary of the Association of Women Entrepreneurs in Kerala. She has only School level education, coming from an orthodox muslim family and living with husband and children. She is residing in the industrial capital of Kerala. She turned to business in the midst of opposition, but her will power helped her to succeed in business, even though there were some failures in the beginning.

3.1.1.1 Status of Indian Women

In this context, it is appropriate to have a bird's eye view of the status of women in the Indian society. Social structure, cultural norms, and value systems are important determinants and indicators of women's role and their position in society. Indian society consists of communities professing diverse religious faiths²². Religions provided ideological and moral bases for their members and accorded status and institutionalised the roles of women in society. "The social restrictions on women, and also the peoples' notions about their proper roles in the domestic and extradomestic spheres, are largely derived from the religious conceptions of a woman's basic characteristics, her assumed 'virtues' and 'vices', her proverbial strengths, and the stereotypes regarding her nature and capabilities. Each religion has a treasure of myths and legends which through descriptions of events and activities emphasise certain values"²³.

22. Desai, Neera and Patel, Vibhuti, op. cit; pp. 12-13.

23. Tuli, Jitendra, The Indian Male : Attitude Towards Sex, Chetana publications, New Delhi, 1976, pp. 59-60.

3.1.1.2 Images of Women in Religious Traditions

3.1.1.2.1 Hinduism

Hinduism has a long history and facets. During the centuries of existence, the image of woman has undergone many changes. It is said that women in the Vedic period enjoyed a higher status. To Manu "In Childhood a woman must be subject to her father, in youth to her husband, and when her lord is dead to her sons. A woman must never be independent"²⁴. There is no overall appraisal of a woman's personality in the laws of Hinduism. A woman in mother's role has been elevated to a very high position in Hindu religious literature. The Mahabharata says that mother excels not only the father in greatness but even the whole earth. Under the impact of images created, and sustained in Hinduism, women are regarded, on the one hand, as the embodiment of purity and spiritual power, on the other, they are viewed as being essentially weak and dependent creatures who are in need of constant guardianship and protection of men. In Hinduism, a strong patrilineal social structure along with features like the giving away of the girls in marriage, importance of the son for continuity of the line, authority and superiority of the male, significance of virginity, etc. have been sanctified with the help of sanskaras. The significant ideas contained in the Vedic or Pauranic texts used for sanskaras have their influence in varying degrees at various levels of Hindu population. Religion, as a system of beliefs and rituals, undoubtedly accords an inferior and dependent status to Hindu women²⁵.

24. ICSSR, Status of women in India, Allied Publishers, Bombay, 1975, p.13.

25. Tuli, Jitendra, op.cit; pp.62-64.

3.1.1.2.2 Christianity

The status of the Christian daughter-in-law is much better than the status of a daughter-in-law in patrilineal families of the upper caste Hindus. Though the father is the recognised head of the family the mother has her own sphere of work and influence. Although the central authority in the home is vested in the male, mutual responsibility of husband and wife is recognised. Christianity forbids polygamy. The establishment of monogamy stands out as the one enduring factor which has raised the status of women in Christianity. One does not find the practice of child marriage among christian communities, and widowhood is not a curse. A woman is not confined to the home. Her participation in congregational prayers, absence of purdah - no rigid insistence on the segregation of sexes, monogamy emphasise on husband-wife relationship, value of charity and service to others - all these features of christianity place women in a relatively better position than in other religions²⁶.

3.1.1.2.3 Islam

In spite of the fact that Islam provided a much higher status to women than was commonly recognised in earlier societies, the social standard of the time were very different from those accepted today, and therefore the Muslim Shariat law as it has developed over the centuries, places women in a disadvantageous position in many respects. The two practices that have been

26. Ibid; pp.71-73.

most detrimental to the status of women in Islam have been Talaq or unilateral divorce and seclusion of women. It is largely seclusion that has kept women backward in respect of education and health and prevented their participation in economic and social activities and has been a hurdle in the way of realising their property rights. Polygamy is permitted in Islam. A wife, therefore has a distinctly inferior status²⁷.

Medhora²⁸ (1965), Morris²⁹ (1967), Dwijendra Tripathi³⁰ (1971), Milton Singer³¹ (1972) and Mattison³² (1972) wrote on the role of religions of India in entrepreneurship. If Medhora, cited the examples of successful entrepreneurs among Hindus, the religious majority in the country, Morris held that Hinduism and Hindu castes only limited the scope of economic

27. Ibid; pp.67-70.

28. Medhora, P.B., "Entrepreneurship in India", Political Science Quarterly, Vol.LXXX, December, 1965, No.4, pp.558-580.

29. Morris, M.D., "Values as an Obstacle to Economic Growth in South Asia: An Historical Survey", Journal of Economic History, Vol.XXVII, Dec. 1967, No.4, pp.588-607.

30. Tripathi, D. "Indian Entrepreneurship in Historical Perspective: A Re - Interpretation", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.VI, No.22, Review of Management, 29th May 1971, pp.M59-M66.

31. Singer, Milton, When a Great Tradition Modernises, praeger publishers, New York, 1972, p.276.

32. Mines, M., Muslim Merchants, Sri. Rama Centre for Industrial Relations and Human Resources, New Delhi, 1972.

opportunities but did not constitute specific form of social structure, which could hinder modern capitalism. Tripathi reported that independence changed the economic environment in the country and consequently Hindu values also underwent changes to permit non business sections into industrial ventures. Singer and Mines went a step ahead in their studies on Tamil Nadu entrepreneurs and tried to show an "inner worldly" aspect of Hinduism and Islam respectively, which could promote modern capitalism.

3.1.2 Age of Entrepreneurs at Commencement of Enterprise :

Community-Wise Distribution

Turning to the age of entrepreneurs at which they are entering industry, 25.49 per cent (26 out of 102) of the entrepreneurs are in the age group of 31-35, 24.51 per cent (25 out of 102) in the 26-30 age group and 23.53 per cent (24 out of 102) in the age group of 36-40. In other words about 73.53 per cent of the respondent entrepreneurs are in the age group of 26-40. About 58 per cent of the entrepreneurs are in the age group of 30 to 40. Only 14.71 per cent (15 out of 102) of the entrepreneurs below the age of 25. There are only eight out of 102 (7.84%) entrepreneurs who entered into industry in the age group of 41-45. Only four (3.92%) started their industry after the age of 45 (Table 3.3).

Of the 26 (out of 102 women entrepreneurs) in the age group of 31-35, eight (30.76%) belong to the Christian community, five to Ezhava (19.23%), two (7.69%) each to SC/ST, other Hindus and Brahmins, four (15.38%)

Table 3.3 Age of Entrepreneurs at Commencement of Enterprise : Community-Wise Distribution
(N. 102)

Entrepreneurs' Age (in Years)	Community of Entrepreneurs							Total
	Christian	Nair	Ezhava	Muslim	Brahmin	Other Hindus	SC/ST	
Upto 25	5	3	2	2	-	-	3	15
26 - 30	7	7	6	3	1	-	1	25
31 - 35	8	4	5	3	2	2	2	26
36 - 40	10	1	6	2	2	1	2	24
41 - 45	2	6	-	-	-	-	-	8
Above 45	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	4
Total	33	22	21	10	5	3	8	102

Source: Survey Data.

belong to the Nair community and three (11.54%) to Muslims. While there are 33 (out of 102) Christian women entrepreneurs, 30.3 per cent (10) belongs to 36-40 age group followed by 24.24 per cent (8) in the 31-35 age group and 21.21 per cent (7) in the 26-30 age bracket. The Nair community having 22 women entrepreneurs, 31.82 per cent (7) belongs to 26-30 age group followed by 27.27 per cent (6) in the age group 41-45. In the age group 41-45, 75 per cent of the respondents are Nairs i.e., six out of eight.

As in the case of Ezhava community, 28.57 per cent each (6 out of 21) belongs to both 26-30 and 36-40 age group and 23.81 per cent (5) in 31-35 age group. Thirty per cent (3 out of 10) Muslims belongs to 26-30 and same is the case of 31-35 age group. Two (20%) each are from 'upto 25 years' and 36-40 age group. There are five Brahmins in the sample. Two (40%) each from 31-35 and 36-40 age groups. Only one (20%) entrepreneur in the age group 26-30. With regard to other Hindus two out of three entrepreneurs belong to 31-35 age group. Only one entrepreneur is in the age group 36-40. From the SC/ST there are 37.5 per cent (3 out of 8) entrepreneurs below 25 years. Twenty five per cent (2 out of 8) each belongs to 31-35 and 36-40 age groups. There is only one entrepreneur in the age group 26-30.

3.1.3 Time of Entry

The community background of 102 women entrepreneurs in relation to year of commencement of their units is given in Table 3.4. There are two (1.96 per cent) entrepreneurs who started their units before 1976,

Table 3.4 The Year of Commencement of Units by Entrepreneurs' Community
(N. 102)

Year of Commencement	Community of Entrepreneurs							Total
	Christian	Nair	Ezhava	Muslim	Brahmin	Other Hindus	SC/ST	
Before 1976	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	2
1976 - 80	3	2	3	1	1	1	1	12
1981 - 85	23	16	16	8	3	2	7	75
'86 onwards	7	3	1	1	1	-	-	13
Total	33	22	21	10	5	3	8	102

Source: Survey Data.

12 (11.76%) during 1976 - '80, 75 (73.53%) during 1981-85 and 13 (12.75%) after 1985. There are only two entrepreneurs who started their units before 1976 and the credit goes to Nair and Ezhava communities. The Christian and Ezhava communities established three units each (out of 12) during 1976-80 while there were two entrepreneurs from the Nair community. All other communities have one entrepreneur each.

There was a tremendous spurt of women entrepreneurs during 1981-85. Of the 75 women entrepreneurs, 23 (30.67%) are from Christian community and 16 (21.33%) each belong to Nair and Ezhava communities. Muslim community represents eight (10.67%) and SC/ST seven (9.33%), Brahmins and other Hindus represent the least i.e. three (4%) and two (2.67%) respectively. There are only eight SC/ST entrepreneurs in the study and seven started their units during 1981-85. Thirteen women entrepreneurs started business after 1985. Of this seven (53.85%) women entrepreneurs are from the Christian community and three (23.07%) from the Nair community. One each represents Ezhava, Muslim and Brahmin community. The entrepreneurs hailing from different communities made use of the opportunity to enter into business during 1981-85.

Benjamin Higgins³³ has stated that there is in "each country an 'optical moment' for launching development. It is a short period of time when sociological, political and economic factors coalesce to provide a climate usually favourable for take off into economic growth. The nature of this

33. Higgins, Benjamin, *op.cit.*

optimal moment can be described and analysed in terms of intersections of entrepreneur and elite".

It is clear from the analysis that the development thrust for women entrepreneurship in Kerala was there right from 1975, it became more effective in the 'optimal moment' i.e. during 1981-85 period. It can also be observed that the christian women rose to the occasion more readily.

3.1.4 Entrepreneurs' Community by Trade

An attempt is made here to examine whether there is any relationship between the entrepreneur's communities and trade. The distribution of entrepreneurs' community by trade groups are shown in Table 3.5. No single community group is spread among all the trade lines.

Food product industries are mainly concentrated in the hands of Nair entrepreneurs i.e., 54.55 per cent (6 out of 11) followed by Christians 27.27 per cent (3 out of 11). In the case of ready-made garments, Christians dominate, i.e. 41.18 per cent (14 out of 34), next Ezhava, 23.53 per cent (8 out of 34). Nairs predominate in printing and book binding industry: 37.5 per cent (6 out of 16) followed by 25 per cent Ezhavas (4 out of 16). Match dipping units are owned by Ezhavas and Muslims on a fifty-fifty basis (2 out of 4 each). But in the case of candle units the credit goes to Christians i.e. 50 per cent (2 out of 4), Muslims and other Hindus one (25%) each.

Table 3.3 - Entrepreneurs' Community by Trade Group
(N.102)

Trade	Community of Entrepreneurs								Total
	Christian	Nair	Ezhava	Muslim	Brahmin	Other Hindus	SC/ST		
Food Industries	3	6	-	1	1	-	-	-	11
Ready-made Garments	14	5	8	3	2	-	2	-	34
Printing and Book Binding	3	6	4	2	-	-	1	-	16
Match Dipping	-	1	2	1	-	-	-	-	4
Candle	2	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	4
Chemical Industries	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	3
Handicrafts	-	-	2	-	-	-	2	-	4
Radio Assembling *	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rubber Industries	4	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	5
Clinical Laboratories	-	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	3
Engineering Works	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	3
Handloom Textiles	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	3
Miscellaneous	3	3	3	-	1	-	2	-	12
Total	33	22	21	10	5	3	8	8	102

Source: Survey Data.

* Radio Assembling units are owned and managed by Charitable Institutions and Industrial Co-operative Societies.

There are only three chemical units in the sample and two are started by Christians and the other one is owned and operated by a Brahmin. Of the four handicraft units, Ezhavas and SC/ST owned two each. Four (out of 5) rubber products industrial units are owned by Christian entrepreneurs and the remaining one goes to other Hindus. In the case of clinical laboratories, there is no special concentration of any community. Of the three units one each is owned by Nairs, Ezhavas and SC/ST. Of the three engineering units, two units are established by Christians and the other one by a muslim. As regards the three handloom textile units, ownership is equally spread over Ezhavas, Muslims and other Hindus. In the case of miscellaneous units, three (out of 12) each are owned and managed by Christians, Nairs and Ezhavas. SC/ST owned two miscellaneous units.

Christian and Ezhava women entrepreneurs are concentrated in ready-made garments and Nairs in food products and printing and book binding. Muslims are interested in ready-made garments (3 out of 10) followed by printing and book-binding (2 out of 10). Brahmins and other Hindus have no special concentration in any particular trade. As far as SC/ST are concerned they are equally concentrated in ready-made garments, handicrafts and miscellaneous trade (2 out of 8 each).

3.2 Occupation

As India is passing through a transitional phase of socio-economic transformation, identifying the origins of entrepreneurship mainly on the basis of community is unwarranted. Hence it is also attempted to go into the details of occupational background of entrepreneurs that may help us to have a broader understanding of the genesis of entrepreneurship. For the purpose, the occupation pursued by the entrepreneur just before entering industry is taken into consideration.

It is worthwhile to mention here some of the studies on the occupational background of entrepreneurs and its impact on entrepreneurship development. Ramakrishnan³⁴ studied 94 small scale new (emerged after 1975) units in 11 modern industries in Delhi city. He divided the units into three categories as those which succeeded in the industries, those which dropped out after production began and those who failed to commence production itself. He attributed social status, educational level and occupational background of the entrepreneurs' families as some of the determinants of these categories.

Sharma and Singh³⁵ made an inter-state and inter-industry comparison of entrepreneurship in the context of cycle, sports goods, agricultural implements and steel re-rolling industries in cities of Punjab and

34. Ramakrishnan, P., New Entrepreneurship in Small Scale Industries in Delhi, Economic and Scientific Research Foundation, New Delhi, 1975.

35. Sharma, K.L. and Singh, H., Entrepreneurial Growth and Development Programmes in Northern India, Abhinav Publications, New Delhi, 1980.

Uttar Pradesh. He held that capital formation and confidence to administer business were the pre-requisites of industrial entrepreneurship and these were easily available with people having business or industrial background of the family or the caste.

Sharma³⁶ studied 100 entrepreneurs selected from Kanpur, Agra, Firozabad, Varanasi and Meerut in Uttar Pradesh. He held that there were four stages of entrepreneurial development, viz., entry to manufacturing, finding of market, establishment of business and expansion of the firm. He observed that types of family background showed relations with these stages.

Mars³⁷ studied a sample of 70 firms drawn from six towns of different size in Kerala. He found that families with no land or less lands operated small workshops in small towns, landed families showed a relatively higher level of entrepreneurship in modern towns, and families pursuing white collar jobs and professions began emerging as small capitalists in large towns.

3.2.1 Previous Occupation of Women Entrepreneurs

Entrepreneurs' immediate occupational background is given in Table 3.6. Of the 102 women entrepreneurs, 56 (54.90%) are housewives. Second position goes to unemployed and white-collar job (13.73% each). Nine out of 102 (8.82%) women entrepreneurs were tailors before entering into business. Women entrepreneurs having business as the previous occupation are

36. Sharma, K.L., Entrepreneurial Performance in Role Perspective, Abhinav Publications, New Delhi, 1975.

37. Mars, Z., "Assistance to Small-Scale Industries in Kerala : An Indian Case", Development and Change, Vol.VI, No.2, April 1975, pp.61-88.

very low i.e. four out of 102 (3.92%). Daily wage earners (4.90%) coming to industry compares better than business women coming to industry (3.92%).

Table 3.6 Previous Occupation of Women Entrepreneurs
(N. 102)

Occupation	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Unemployed*	14	13.73
Housewife**	56	54.90
Daily Wage Earner	5	4.90
Business	4	3.92
Tailor	9	8.82
White-collar job	14	13.73
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

* Unmarried and unemployed

** Married and not engaging in any economically productive activity.

It is apt to compare the occupational background of women entrepreneurs with that of men entrepreneurs in the industrial estates of Coastal Andhra Pradesh. White-collar workmen come as the single largest group (28.7%) though merchants are a close second (25.3%). The unemployed and the manufacturers are not far behind (20.7% each) them, leaving

agriculturists miles behind (4.6%)³⁸.

Housewives are the largest group coming to industry. Mounting pressures of unemployment, bleak job prospects and steep rise in living expenses might have forced them to enter industry and to earn something to support the family. The earnings of the husband alone is insufficient to make both ends meet.

Many housewives are not highly educated. In our present socio-economic set up the educational level of many of them is insufficient to get a salaried job. A few husbands are not ready to send wives for jobs in far away places. They prefer business to salaried job. They can have a flexible working schedule that allows them to combine business and family life. Many housewives prefer business for independent economic status and a few to engage oneself fully (see Table 4.1). Thus housewives may form a source of potential entrepreneurship.

Nearly 14 per cent of women entrepreneurs who were previously white-collar workers entered into business. This is a noteworthy feature. Whether this is a source of (potential) entrepreneurship among women needs further research. However the tendency on the part of women to throw away the white-collar job and come to entrepreneurship is a welcome trend.

38. Gandadhara Rao, N., op.cit., p.92.

3.2.2 Occupation of Entrepreneurs' Father/Husband

Women entrepreneurs' fathers/husbands are mainly white-collar workmen i.e. 42.16 per cent (43 out of 102). About 26 per cent (27 out of 102) of their father/husband have business background and 9.80 per cent (10 out of 102) are agriculturists. Tailors and social workers are the least (2 and 1 out of 102 respectively) (Table 3.7).

Table 3.7 Occupation of Entrepreneurs' Father/Husband
(N. 102)

Occupation	Frequency	Per cent
Agriculturist	10	9.80
Social Service	1	0.98
Daily Wage Earner	19	18.63
Business	27	26.47
Tailor	2	1.96
White-collar job	43	42.16
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

In the case of the majority of women entrepreneurs, father/husband is fairly educated (see Table 3.14). Majority are white-collar workers and businessmen. This urban middle class background of father/husband provides the environment favourable to the growth of women entrepreneurship. About 26 per cent of the women entrepreneurs' father/husband or both are in business. This business link in the family is particularly conducive to the growth of entrepreneurship among women. Only 9.80 per cent women entrepreneurs come from agricultural families. Rural agricultural women folk may not be ready to shell out of the bounded - traditionality. In rural areas people are more attached to agriculture and they are not ready to accept new changes taking place in the urban and semi-urban areas.

Table 3.8 demonstrates the occupation of women entrepreneurs and that of their father/husband. Among the 27 business families, only two women entrepreneurs have business as their previous occupation. The other two business women are drawn from the background of white-collar workers and daily wage earners. There are 14 (out of 27) housewives from business families who came out as women entrepreneurs followed by tailors (5). Above 50 per cent (29 out of 56) of the women entrepreneurs who were previously housewives are drawn from families following white-collar job. Of the ten women entrepreneurs from the agricultural families, there are unemployed, housewives and white-collar workers (three each) and only one tailor. In the sample there are nine women entrepreneurs who were previously tailors, but there are only two families who pursued tailoring as their occupation.

Table 3.8 Occupation of Entrepreneur and her Father/Husband
(N. 102)

Entrepreneurs' Occupation	Fathers'/Husbands' Occupation						Total
	Agriculturist	Social Service	Daily Wage Earner	Business	Tailor	White-Collar Job	
Unemployed	3	-	4	2	-	5	14
Housewife	3	1	8	14	1	29	56
Daily Wage Earner	-	-	3	2	-	-	5
Business	-	-	1	2	-	1	4
Tailor	1	-	1	5	1	1	9
White-Collar Job	3	-	2	2	-	7	14
Total	10	1	19	27	2	43	102

Source: Survey Data

3.2.3 Occupation and Entrepreneurs' Age

The relationship between occupation and entrepreneurs' age is examined in Table 3.9. Nobody from business or white-collar job entered into industry before the age of 25. Unemployed are the least inclined to enter industry in their forties and thereafter. Housewives are spread over all the age groups. Three (out of 5) daily wage earners entered into trade before the age of 25 and two (out of 5) between 36-40. Business women entered into manufacturing during 26-30 and 36-40 age group. No tailors entered into trade in the 41-45 age group. Unemployed and daily wage earners found it ideal to enter into trade before the age of 25, housewives in the 31-35 age group, business women and tailors in the 36-40 age group and white-collar workers in the age group of 26-30.

3.2.4 The Year of Commencement by Entrepreneurs' Occupation

Before 1976 no women entrepreneur entered into trade except the unemployed and tailors and after 1985 no daily wage earners and business women entered into industry. During 1976-80 the greatest entry was made by housewives (6 out of 12) and white-collar workers (2 out of 12). During 1981-85 the largest number of women entrepreneurs, irrespective of their occupational base, entered into industry (Table 3.10).

Table 3.9 Entrepreneurs' Age at Commencement : Distribution by Occupational Background
(N. 102)

Entrepreneurs' Age (in years)	Entrepreneurs' Previous Occupation						Total
	Unemployed	Housewife	Daily Wage Earner	Business	Tailor	White-Collar Job	
Upto 25	9	2	3	-	1	-	15
26 - 30	3	15	-	1	2	4	25
31 - 35	1	20	-	-	2	3	26
36 - 40	1	12	2	3	3	3	24
41 - 45	-	5	-	-	-	3	8
Above 45	-	2	-	-	1	1	4
Total	14	56	5	4	9	14	102

Source: Survey Data

Table 3.10 The Year of Commencement by Entrepreneurs' Occupation
(N. 102)

Year of Commencement	Entrepreneurs' Previous Occupation						Total
	Unemployed	Housewife	Daily Wage Earner	Business	Tailor	White-Collar Job	
Before 1976	1	-	-	-	1	-	2
1976 -80	1	6	1	1	1	2	12
1981 - 85	10	43	4	3	6	9	75
1986 onwards	2	7	-	-	1	3	13
Total	14	56	5	4	9	14	102

Source: Survey Data

3.2.5 Community Vs. Occupation

Table 3.11 shows housewives coming into industry from all communities. Out of the 56 housewives the largest number are drawn from Christian community (22) followed by Nairs (13). While considering the previous occupation of women entrepreneurs of the 33 Christians, five are unemployed, 22 are housewives, one business woman, three tailors and two white-collar workers. Of the 22 Nairs, four are unemployed, 13 are housewives, one each daily wage earners and business woman and three white collar workers. Among the 21 Ezhavas, there are ten housewives, two daily wage earners, one business woman, three tailors and five white-collar workers. In the case of Muslims, housewives rank first (5 out of 10) and one each come from other occupation. Of the five Brahmins two each are housewives and white-collar workers and one tailor. There are two housewives and one tailor from other Hindus. Fifty per cent (4 out of 8) of the SC/ST women entrepreneurs are previously unemployed, 25 per cent (2 out of 8) housewives and 12.5 per cent (1 out of 8) each daily wage earners and white-collar workers.

3.2.6 Entrepreneurs' Occupation and Lines of Trade

The relationship between the lines of manufacture and the occupational background of the entrepreneurs is another important aspect which deserves to be examined. The unemployed had not made any mark in the field of food products, match dipping, chemical industries, rubber products and handloom textiles (Table 3.12). Housewives have entered into all fields

Table 3.11 Entrepreneurs' Occupation by their Community
(N. 102)

Occupation	Entrepreneurs' Community							Total
	Christian	Nair	Ezhava	Muslim	Brahmin	Other Hindus	SC/ST	
Unemployed	5	4	-	1	-	-	4	14
Housewife	22	13	10	5	2	2	2	56
Daily Wage Earner	-	1	2	1	-	-	1	5
Business	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	4
Tailor	3	-	3	1	1	1	-	9
White-Collar Job	2	3	5	1	2	-	1	14
Total	33	22	21	10	5	3	8	102

Source: Survey Data.

Table 3.12 Entrepreneurs' Occupation and Their Lines of Trade
(N. 102)

Trade	Entrepreneurs' Occupation							Total
	Unemployed	Housewife	Daily Wage Earner	Business Earner	Tailor	White-Collar Job		
Food Industries	-	7	-	1	-	3	11	
Ready-made Garments	3	20	-	2	7	2	34	
Printing & Book Binding	3	6	3	-	-	4	16	
Match Dipping	-	2	-	-	-	2	4	
Candle	2	2	-	-	-	-	4	
Chemical Industries	-	2	-	-	-	1	3	
Handicrafts	1	1	2	-	-	-	4	
Radio Assembling	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Rubber Industries	-	5	-	-	-	-	5	
Clinical Laboratories	2	1	-	-	-	-	3	
Engineering Works	2	-	-	1	-	-	3	
Handloom Textiles	-	1	-	-	2	-	3	
Miscellaneous	1	9	-	-	-	2	12	
Total	14	56	5	4	9	14	102	

Source : Survey Data.

except engineering works. Daily wage earners are in printing and book binding and handicrafts. Business women engage in food products, ready-made garments and engineering industry. All tailors settled in the field of ready-made garments and handloom textiles. White-collar workers are in food products, ready-made garments, printing and book binding, match dipping, chemical industries and miscellaneous products. The unemployed are mainly concentrated in ready-made garments and printing and book binding (3 out of 14 each.), housewives in ready-made garments (20 out of 56), daily wage earners in printing and book binding (3 out of 5), business women in ready-made garments (2 out of 4), tailors in ready-made garments (7 out of 9) and white-collar workers in printing and book binding (4 out of 14).

3.3 Education

The importance of education in the context of entrepreneurial growth is examined in this section. It is intended to enquire into the educational level of the entrepreneurs, the impact of their educational background on the activity of the enterprise and on the lines of trade chosen.

The Asian entrepreneur is neither totally uneducated nor has he had the benefit of sophisticated university or technical education. Nevertheless, his schooling is limited to a primary, middle or secondary level. He enters into entrepreneurship with experience gained in one or more of the different fields of trade, industry and service, possessing a certain amount of skill relevant to his field. While a typical Malaysian, Bangladeshi and Thai entrepreneur

has had no formal education or has received some secondary school education, the Philippino entrepreneur is much more qualified, very often university educated and technically trained, in India, a majority of them have a moderately high educational background³⁹.

In India, many have studied the educational background of entrepreneurs vis-a-vis its relation to entrepreneurial success. Pathek⁴⁰ selected 12 units in different lines of manufacture and studied their problems at three levels of entrepreneurial development viz., inception, operation and expansion. He found positive association between these stages and the levels of education. Studying the problems of technically trained entrepreneurs, Rao⁴¹ reported that they showed a higher level of entrepreneurship than what entrepreneurs with no such training did. Mars⁴² found the role of education in engineering knowledge in the emergence of low caste landless Hindus as small workshop owners in small towns. Oommen⁴³ studied a sample of 45 small scale entrepreneurs in light engineering industry of Kerala. He

39. Sharma, S.V.S., op.cit., pp.215-224.

40. Pathek, H.N., "The Entrepreneur, Technician and Manager in Small Scale Units", Economic and Political Weekly, Review of Management, Vol.VII, No.48, November 1972, pp.M179-M187.

41. Rao, B.S.S., "Entrepreneurship Development Among Technical Personnel: A Few Observations", Sedme, Vol.X, No.3 Sept. 1983, pp.33-46.

42. Mars, Z., op.cit.

43. Oommen, M.A., op.cit., pp.184-187.

observed that Kerala had a lesser proportion of entrepreneurs than the normal requirements of five entrepreneurs per 1000 population, which he attributed to inadequacy of education and technical knowledge in the State. Even the successful ones in the sample were found to be engineers or technicians.

3.3.1 Educational Level of Women Entrepreneurs

Of the 102 women entrepreneurs 45 (44.12%) are S.S.L.C. holders and 14 (13.73%) are below S.S.L.C (Table 3.13). There are 17 (16.67%) graduates and only one (0.98%) post graduate in the sample. It is worthwhile to note that there are 18 (17.64%) technically qualified women. As a whole

Table 3.13 Educational Level of Women Entrepreneurs
(N. 102)

Educational Level	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Below S.S.L.C .	14	13.73
S.S.L.C.*	45	44.12
P.D.C.	7	6.86
Graduates	17	16.67
Post-graduates	1	0.98
Technical Qualifications**	18	17.64
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

* S.S.L.C. Passed

** Technical qualifications include - ITI, Printing Technology, Composing, Typewriting, Chemist, Fruit Technology etc.

32.29 per cent (36) can be said to have higher education. The study indicated that most of the women entrepreneurs are fairly literate. Even though 14 per cent of the women entrepreneurs have education only below S.S.L.C., their innate talents and skills may have encouraged them to enter the industrial scene and survive. Their low level of education has not acted as a barrier on the way to entrepreneurship.

3.3.2 Educational Level of Entrepreneurs' Father/Husband

An enquiry into the qualifications of entrepreneurs' father or husband is shown in Table 3.14. Nearly 30 per cent of entrepreneurs' father or husband have education only below S.S.L.C., whereas 28.43 per cent are S.S.L.C. holders. The proportion of entrepreneur's father/husband with high educational level can be said to be quite high, which is 37 per cent (38 out of 102).

Table 3.14 Educational Level of Entrepreneurs' Father/Husband

Educational Level of Entrepreneurs' Father/husband	Frequency	Per cent
Below S.S.L.C.	31	30.39
S.S.L.C.	29	28.43
P.D.C.	4	3.92
Graduates	21	20.59
Post-graduates	5	4.90
Technical Qualifications	12	11.76
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

3.3.3 Entrepreneurs' Educational Level by their Communities

Table 3.15 demonstrates that the spread of schooling has cut across the barriers of caste. It seems none of the entrepreneurial castes are placed in a disadvantageous position. The educational level of none of the Brahmin entrepreneurs is low and none of the other Hindus is high. The Christian entrepreneurs possessing high educational qualifications outnumber all other communities. They are placed in a good position, having nine graduates (out of 33) one post-graduate and five technically qualified persons. Of the 22 Nair women entrepreneurs, four have education below S.S.L.C. Sixty per cent (6 out of 10) muslims are S.S.L.C. holders and there is only one graduate among them. Two out of eight among the SC/ST have education below S.S.L.C. But there is one graduate and two technically qualified entrepreneurs from SC/ST. Except for two (having education below S.S.L.C) all other SC/ST women entrepreneurs are in a better position. It is interesting to note that even women entrepreneurs coming from relatively under privileged community groups seem to possess a reasonable level of education.

3.3.4 The year of Commencement of Units and the Educational Level of Entrepreneurs

Table 3.16 exhibits the trend - the older the unit the lower the educational level of entrepreneurs. Conversely, entrepreneurs whose level of education is either medium or high are entering industry in larger proportions in recent years. The table clearly explains the trend of medium and higher educated entrepreneurs entering industry after 1981.

Table 3.15 Entrepreneurs' Educational Level by their Communities
(N. 102)

Community	Educational Level					Total	
	Below S.S.L.C.	S.S.L.C.	P.D.C.	Graduates	Post- Graduates		Technical Qualifications
Christian	3	12	3	9	1	5	33
Nair	4	9	1	3	-	5	22
Ezhava	2	12	3	1	-	3	21
Muslim	2	6	-	1	-	1	10
Brahmin	-	1	-	2	-	2	5
Other Hindus	1	2	-	-	-	-	3
SC/ST	2	3	-	1	-	2	8
Total	14	45	7	17	1	18	102

Source: Survey Data.

Table 3.16 The Year of Commencement of Units by Educational Level of Entrepreneurs
(N. 102)

Year of Commencement	Educational Level of Entrepreneurs					Total
	Below S.S.L.C.	S.S.L.C.	P.D.C.	Graduates	Post-Graduates	
Before 1976	1	1	-	-	-	2
1976 - 80	2	5	2	-	-	12
1981 - 85	11	36	1	13	1	75
1986 onwards	-	3	4	4	-	13
Total	14	45	7	17	1	102

Source: Survey Data.

The inclination of the educated to become entrepreneurs in such large numbers is partly due to the encouragement given by various financial institutions to the educated unemployed. The central and state governments launched various programmes to promote self-employment among educated. Majority of respondents entered industry expecting financial assistance from government agencies (see Table 4.7). The declaration of special assistance to women's industrial units by government agencies have fostered latent entrepreneurship among women.

3.3.5 Entrepreneurs' Age and their Educational Level

Highly qualified women entrepreneurs are mostly seen in the 26-30 age group and lower education is the least in this group. S.S.L.C. holders are mostly seen in the age between 31-40 (16). Among entrepreneurs having age above 45, no one is a graduate and most of them are S.S.L.C. holders (3 out of 4). Technically qualified persons are concentrated (6 out of 18) in the 26-30 age group. The only one post-graduate woman entrepreneur is 24 years old. Further analysis shows that, highly qualified entrepreneurs started their units in the age 24-31. This leads to an inference: education has motivated them to enter industry at the prime of their age (Table 3.17).

Table 3.17 Entrepreneurs' Age at Commencement by their Educational Level
(N. 102)

Entrepreneurs' age (in years)	Entrepreneurs Educational Level					Total
	Below S.S.L.C.	S.S.L.C.	P.D.C.	Graduates	Post- Graduates Technical Qualifications	
Upto 25	3	4	1	3	1	15
26 - 30	-	8	3	8	-	25
31 - 35	4	13	3	2	-	26
36 - 40	6	13	-	2	-	24
41 - 45	1	4	-	2	-	8
Above 45	-	3	-	-	-	4
Total	14	45	7	17	1	102

Source: Survey Data.

3.3.6 Educational Level and Trade

Entrepreneurs with education below S.S.L.C. have not entered into trades like match dipping, chemical industries, clinical laboratories, engineering works and miscellaneous products. Among the 18 technically qualified entrepreneurs, six are in ready-made garments business, four in printing and book binding, two each in food products, clinical laboratories and miscellaneous products. They have started units related to their technical qualifications. Technically qualified persons have not made their marks in trades like candle, chemical industry, handicrafts, rubber products and handloom textiles. The only post-graduate woman entrepreneur is in food products. Among the graduates (17), four are in ready-made garments, three each in rubber and miscellaneous products, two each in food products, chemical industries and each in engineering works, handicrafts and candle manufacturing (Table 3.18).

3.4 Economic Status

The economic background of the entrepreneurs is viewed on the basis of annual earnings of their father/husband from all sources at the time of starting the enterprise under study. In the case of unmarried women entrepreneurs the income of their father is considered. But in the case of married women entrepreneurs the income of their husband is taken into account. The annual earnings of 63.73 per cent (65 out of 102) were less than Rs.12,000/- and 22.55 per cent (23 out of 102) have income between Rs.12,000/- and 20,000/-. Only 13.72 per cent (14 out of 102) have income above Rs.20,000/- (Table 3.19).

Table 3.18 Entrepreneurs' Educational Level and their Lines of Trade
(N. 102)

Trade	Educational Level					Total	
	Below S.S.L.C.	S.S.L.C.	P.D.C.	Graduates	Post- Graduates		Technical Qualifications
Food Industries	2	4	-	2	1	2	11
Ready-made Garments	5	16	3	4	-	6	34
Printing and Book Binding	2	9	1	-	-	4	16
Match Dipping	-	2	1	-	-	1	4
Candle	2	1	-	1	-	-	4
Chemical Industries	-	1	-	2	-	-	3
Handicrafts	1	1	1	1	-	-	4
Radio Assembling	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rubber Industries	1	1	-	3	-	-	5
Clinical Laboratories	-	1	-	-	-	2	3
Engineering Works	-	1	-	1	-	1	3
Handloom Textiles	1	2	-	-	-	-	3
Miscellaneous	-	6	1	3	-	2	12
Total	14	45	7	17	1	18	102

Source : Survey Data.

Table 3.19 Annual Earnings of Entrepreneurs' Father/Husband at the Time of Starting the Enterprise
(N. 102)

Annual Earnings (Rs)	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Below 12,000	65	63.73
12,000 - 20,000	23	22.55
Above 20,000	14	13.72
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data.

Harris and Joshi made their studies on single entrepreneurs namely J.N. Tata and Lala Sri Ram respectively. Both considered economic, educational and political status of the family as a prime determinant of entrepreneurial development⁴⁴.

An attempt was made to trace women entrepreneurs' perception of their income level. Around 33 per cent (34 out of 102) remarked that they belong to lower income group, 43.14 per cent (44 out of 102) claimed that they are in the lower middle income group and 16.67 per cent (17 out of 102) of higher middle income group. Only 6.86 per cent (7 out of 102) responded that they are in the higher group (Table 3.20).

44. Harris, F.R., J.N. Tata: A Chronicle of his Life, 1925 and Joshi, A., Lala Sri Ram: A Study in Entrepreneurship and Industrial Management, 1975. Quoted from Hadimani, R.N., op.cit., p.15.

Table 3.20 Women Entrepreneurs' Perception of their Income Level

(N. 102)

Income Group	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Lower income	34	33.33
Lower middle income	44	43.14
Higher middle income	17	16.67
Higher income	7	6.86
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

Overall analysis shows that majority of women entrepreneurs belong to lower and middle income groups. Their financial backwardness prevents the expansion and modernisation of the units and this may be the reason that their firms remain tiny.

3.5 Related Characteristics

Related characteristics taken up for examination include, pattern of their families, rural-urban background, their status at home and society, marital status, their mode of management of family and attitude towards present engagement, etc.

3.5.1 Pattern of Families

From the Table 3.21 it is clear that 81.37 per cent (83 out of 102) women entrepreneurs are coming from independent families and 18.63 per cent (19 out of 102) are in joint families.

Table 3.21 Pattern of Families
(N. 102)

Type of Family	Frequency	Per cent
Independent family*	83	81.37
Joint family	19	18.63
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data.

* Husband, wife and children.

Singer⁴⁵ in his study on Madras industrialists held that the joint family provided an undivided family property to invest in and expand family firm. But in the case of women entrepreneurs even though they are hailing from a joint family, they won't get the benefit of undivided family property to invest in and expand their firm. Members of the family are reluctant to invest in ventures started by women. Joint families consisting of orthodox parents are detrimental to the interest of the free movement of women. In that respect it is better for the women entrepreneurs to have an independent family consisting of husband and children. In personal interviews, majority of them showed awareness of the importance of the small size of the family to their continuance in independent business. So the slackening of joint family system may have helped the emergence of entrepreneurship among women.

3.5.2 Rural-Urban Background

In order to find out the rural-urban background of women entrepreneurs, they are classified into three categories viz., rural, urban and semi-urban* on the basis of the place of residence, at the time of the starting of the units.

* For this purpose 'rural' areas refers to villages, 'urban' to place with local authority like municipalities and corporations, 'semi-urban' to places other than included in urban and rural areas.

45. Singer, Milton, op.cit.

Table 3.22 Rural-Urban Background
(N. 102)

Background of Entrepreneurs	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Rural	17	16.67
Urban	24	23.53
Semi-urban	61	59.80
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data.

Table 3.22 shows that majority (59.80%) of the women entrepreneurs are from semi-urban areas. About 24 per cent of them are drawn from urban areas and the least (16.67%) from rural background.

3.5.3. Status of Women Entrepreneurs at Home (Perception)

All except 19 (18.63%) got equal status with men at home in decision making. Of the 19 entrepreneurs having no equal status with men at home in decision making, nine(47.37%) are married and ten (52.63%) are unmarried. So it does not show any link between status of women entrepreneurs at home in decision making and their marital status. By a close examination it is clear that women entrepreneurs of

Hindu community* do not have equal status with men at home in decision making i.e. 63.16 per cent (12 out of 19).

Table 3.23 Status of Women Entrepreneurs at Home in Decision-Making
(Perception)

(N. 102)

Status Position	Frequency	Per cent
Equal	83	81.37
Not equal	19	18.63
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data.

3.5.4 Social Status as an Entrepreneur

Table 3.24 shows the perception of women entrepreneurs regarding their social status as an entrepreneur. Nearly 72 per cent (73 out of 102) responded that there is an increase in their social status as an entrepreneur. But 26.47 per cent (27 out of 102) think that their social status remained the same as before. Only 1.96 per cent (2 out of 102) feel that their social status decreased as they became an entrepreneur.

* A broader perspective including Brahmin, Ezhava, Nair and Other Hindus.

Table 3.24 Social Status as an Entrepreneur
(N. 102)

Social Status	Frequency	Per cent
Increased	73	71.57
Decreased	2	1.96
Same	27	26.47
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data.

3.5.5 Entrepreneurs' Mode of Management of their Financial Needs of the Family

Nearly 25 per cent of the women entrepreneurs manage the financial needs of their family exclusively by drawing money from the unit whenever necessary. But others, 32.35 per cent manage family needs out of separate earnings plus drawing money from the unit whenever necessary. There is only one women entrepreneur who takes a fixed amount from the unit. And another 14.71 per cent of entrepreneurs draw money from the unit monthly to manage their financial needs (Table 3.25).

Table 3.25 Entrepreneurs' Mode of Management of their Financial Needs
of the Family

(N. 102)

Management	Frequency	Per cent
a	11	10.78
bi	1	0.98
bii	15	14.71
biii	25	24.51
a + bii	16	15.69
a + biii	33	32.35
No response	1	0.98
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

Note:

- a = out of separate earnings
- bi = out of the earnings of the enterprise drawing a fixed amount annually
- bii = out of the earnings of the enterprise drawing a fixed amount monthly
- biii = Drawing money from the enterprise whenever necessary.

3.5.6 Entrepreneurs' Attitude Towards Present Engagement

Out of 102 women entrepreneurs 30 (29.41%) will quit this engagement, if they get a permanent job. About 70 per cent (72 out of 102) women entrepreneurs are of the opinion that the present engagement is better than a permanent job. Among the 70 per cent women entrepreneurs who consider present engagement better than a permanent job, a few remarked that there is no scope of getting a permanent job. However, it is worth noting that about 30 per cent of the women entrepreneurs are ready to quit the present engagement, if they get a permanent job. People's tradition-bound attachment to salaried job is clear from the view of 30 per cent of women entrepreneurs. This attitude of women will hinder the growth of entrepreneurship among women.

Industrial entrepreneurship among women emerges from varied, socio-economic, educational and cultural backgrounds is a welcome feature. Christian women entrepreneurs are more educated and enterprising than their counterparts in other communities. Comparatively low representation of Brahmins reveal that social barriers and traditions are on the decline but still exists. The occupational background of women entrepreneurs' father/husband provided as environment favourable to the growth of entrepreneurship among women. Housewives are a source of potential entrepreneurship. The tendency on the part of women to throw away salaried job (white-collar job) is a noteworthy trend. The study indicates that rural-agricultural women folk are not fully prepared to accept the changes taking place in the urban and semi-urban areas.

Education has motivated highly qualified women entrepreneurs to enter industry in the prime of their age. Even, the low levels of education does not inhibit a few entrepreneurs from entering into trade. The special assistance extended to women entrepreneurs by govt. agencies instilled entrepreneurial spirit among women, especially among educated women. Majority of women entrepreneurs entered into the business in the age group 30-40 at a time when they have attained self-confidence and self-decision making capacity to shoulder new ventures. Of the entrepreneurs, the technically qualified ones have started units in their own fields of education.

Majority of women entrepreneurs hail from lower and middle income groups. Their financial backwardness prevents the expansion and modernisation of units. The preference of salaried job to business by 30 per cent of women entrepreneurs reveal that they entered into the industrial scenario without true entrepreneurial spirit.

Chapter 4

FACTORS MOTIVATING WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The economic development of a nation and the industrial growth of a society are sparked largely by the entrepreneurial spirit of the people. History of the economic development of all societies, developed or underdeveloped, bears evidence to the fact that the entrepreneurs had made a significant contribution in this respect¹. The entrepreneurial spirit implies a commitment to certain ends, adherence to self-fulfilment and also the vision, progress and means of realising certain ends². Alertness to new opportunities, ability to avail them and readiness to advance technology and improve the quality of goods are different aspects of the innovative spirit³. To James McCrory⁴, a good entrepreneur is an enterprising individual i.e. energetic, resourceful, alert to new opportunities, able to adjust to changing conditions and willing to assume the risks involved in change and expansion.

The dearth of entrepreneurial and managerial skills is one of the most common problems in all underdeveloped countries. The reason for this can be traced to the very nature of underdeveloped characteristics of these

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1. Subbl Reddy, T. and Sobha Reddy, N., "Motivating Factors in Starting a Small Unit," Indian Management Vol. 23, No.8, August 1984, p.13.
 2. Singh, N.P., "From Motivation Building to Entrepreneurial Identity", Vikas Banking Journal, Vol.(1:1), 1981.
 3. Hegen, E.E., On the Theory of Social Change, Vakilas Feffer and Simons, Bombay, 1962, p.17.
 4. McCorry, James T., Small Industry In a North Indian Town : Case Studies in Latent Industrial Potential, Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Govt. of India, 1956, p.3.

economies. Further, in all newly independent sovereign nations of the third world, the native or domestic entrepreneurship developed in the last three decades has not properly spread to different social groups of their population. This is because of the historical as well as contemporary pattern of their socio-economic transition⁵.

What makes a man what he is, is mostly his environment and his attitudes. Environment and attitudes are products of cultural, psychological, economic and sociological factors. They influence the man and provide a source of inspiration to make a successful living in the society. Man, in his attempts to improve his lot, constantly endeavours to conceive new and better ideas and indulges in experimenting on them. This process leads to changed attitudes and changed environments.

Different countries are at varying levels of economic development because the people of those nations are placed in different socio-economic setting with different attitudes. Wytinsky remarks that if it were possible to transplant overnight all the factories of Michigan, Ohio and Pennsylvania to India without changing the economic attitudes of the people, two decades later, the country would be about as poor as it is now. On the other hand, if by some magic, the psychology of 150 million - who constitute the labour force - were transformed overnight after the pattern of modern industrial nations, India would be covered two decades later with modern mills, power stations and speed high ways and her per capita income would have increased

5. Heggade, O.D., "Industrial Entrepreneurship for Backward Area Development", Sreekantaradhya (Ed.), Regional Dispersal of Industries and Industrial Development, Deep and Deep publications, New Delhi, 1985, p.130.

many times despite scarcity of domestic capital⁶. It appears that the main cause of India's weakness lies in the human factor. Not a lack of innate abilities but a lack of initiative, of interest in improving their economic status, of respect of labour.

Comparing the relative growth rates of countries of South East Asia with more advanced countries, Gunnar Myrdal⁷, has come to the conclusion that what was wrong in the former states was the attitudes towards work and the unwillingness to enforce social discipline. He designated such states as "soft states" as against those willing to take the risks and obligations involved in the growth process. The paradox of the abundance of innate abilities and the lack of enterprising qualities in India is well illustrated by Ram K. Vepa⁸.

As such, of all the attitudes the most important one, from the point of view of industrial development, is the ability to innovate, to take risk and to plan for the future. This is what the entrepreneur does. He is the man who conceives the idea, works it out in detail and sells it to others. He is the one who has the vision, the drive and above all the confidence in himself to attract investment for his project. Finally he is the man who has tenacity to see his project through and make a new product available to the country. He takes calculated risks and is able to achieve success because of his inner resources. He develops skills which are not acquired in the

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6. Wytinsky, India, the Awakening Giant, p.187 Quoted from Vepa, Ram K., Small Industry : Challenge of the Eighties, Vikas publishing House, New Delhi, 1983, pp.139 & 140.
 7. Myrdal, Gunnar, Asian Drama: An Enquiry into the Poverty of Nations, Vol.II, Allen Lane, The Penglun press, London, 1968, p.1148.
 8. Vepa, Ram K., op.cit., pp.138 & 139.

class room, but only with experience and through conscious effort. Ultimately it is the entrepreneur who acts as a "spark plug" to transform the economic scene and brings new sense of dynamism into it⁹.

Entrepreneurs, like any other careerists, are not born, they are made. Entrepreneurs are not only a product of their ambitions, but also those of aspirations of their family members, friends and the nation. Sometimes, certain compulsions also lead them to the entrepreneurial positions. The encouragement and the assistance received from governmental agencies, friends and relatives and the experience gained hitherto either in trading or in employment are some of the important factors influencing the emergence of entrepreneurship. The process of the emergence of entrepreneurship constitutes the core of this chapter.

4.1 Entrepreneurs' Ambitions

Within a period of three decades, Japan rapidly forged ahead in a number of fields, particularly because it was able to evoke the entrepreneurial spirit among the younger generations¹⁰. The biggest obstacle to progress in India is also deemed to be the limited aspirations of her people¹¹. Business spirit is a quality found to be lacking in the population of Kerala. Otherwise Keralites are considered to be a dynamic and enterprising lot. Entrepreneurship can be developed in the State of Kerala

9. Ibid., p.140 .

10. Ibid., p.141.

11. Ibid., p.145.

only with a transformation of the psychological make up of the population¹². Ambitions or aspirations motivate men, activate them, broaden their vision and make life meaningful. Ambition is an index of one's own resourcefulness. From all accounts, it was Jamsetji Tata's extraordinary zeal which led to the creation of the Tata Steel Factory at Jamshedpur against heavy odds. A lesser entrepreneur would have owned defeat¹³. A nation will be rich with this type of entrepreneurs in large numbers in proportion to her total population.

One of the significant studies that have been made in this regard is by Professor David McClelland of the Harvard University¹⁴. He was investigating, why certain communities and states had displayed entrepreneurial spirit to a much greater degree than others which was responsible for their rise to prosperity. It was rather the "need for achievement" which constituted the single biggest driving force for a successful entrepreneur.

Ambition is not something which is akin to greed or windfall. Greed results in disaster and windfall makes one a speculator. Here and there one may come across people making fortunes by acts of greed or windfall. But they do not make ideal propositions. Ambition is not something groping in darkness. Well conceived notions, careful planning, calculated risk taking,

12. Rajeev, P.V., Economic Development and Unemployment, Asia publishing House, New Delhi, 1983, p.109.

13. Gupta, L.C., Growth Theory and Strategy : New Direction, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, 1983, p.12.

14. McClelland, D.C., The Achieving Society, D.Van Norstrand Co. INC. London, 1961.

timely decision making and swift execution make the ambition meaningful and fruitful¹⁵.

As regards the entrepreneurs' ambitions under the present study, the information is obtained by asking them to point out, in the order of importance, any three of the five given ambitions. The ambitions that are put to them are shown in the Table 4.1. They are, to earn money, to gain independent economic status, due to encouragement of father/husband, to gain higher social status and to engage oneself fully. Ambitions pointed out by the entrepreneurs are rated by weighted score.

Nearly 72 per cent (73 out of 102) respondents pointed out that, to gain independent economic status was one of their three ambitions. For 33 of them it is the first ranking ambition, for 32 it is the second ranking ambition and for eight it is the third ranking ambition. This ambition stands first in the overall rating (31.43%) of all the ambitions. But a study of men entrepreneurs in the industrial estates of coastal Andhra, 90 per cent of the entrepreneurs marked, making money as one of their three ambitions. This ambition stands first in the overall rating (31.4%) of all the ambitions¹⁶. Women entrepreneurs are interested in gaining independent economic status while their male counterparts are more interested in earning money. In the Indian social set up the women are not so free to spend the money earned by their husbands. In many cases the employed women have to entrust their money to their husbands.

15. Gangadhara Rao, N., op.cit., p.137.

16. Ibid., p.136.

Table 4.1 Entrepreneurs' Ambitions which Led them to Industry

(N. 102)

Sl. No.	Ambitions	Entrepreneurs' Ranking of Ambitions			Weighted Score	Rating (Per cent)	Rank No.
		Number one	Number two	Number three			
1.	To earn money	34	20	6	148	27.21	2
2.	To gain independent economic status	33	32	8	171	31.43	1
3.	Due to encouragement of father/husband	14	9	6	66	12.13	4
4.	To gain higher social status	1	6	7	22	4.04	5
5.	To engage oneself fully	20	35	7	137	25.18	3
	Total	102	102	34	544	100	

Source: Survey Data

Note: The first ranking ambition earns three points, the second two points and the third one point. On the basis of the percentage of total weighted score for each ambition, overall ranking is made.

To earn money was the ambition of 27.21 per cent of the women entrepreneurs. Thirty-four marked this as their number one ambition, 20 as their number two ambition and six marked it as the third. To engage oneself fully was the ambition of 25.18 per cent of the women entrepreneurs. Only 12.13 per cent of the entrepreneurs entered into industry due to the encouragement of father/husband. To gain higher social status ranked the last (i.e. only 4.04%).

McCrorry's¹⁷ observation that the dream of the entrepreneurs appears to be not to "get rich" but to "get big" is proved here. Ambitions like independent economic status and social prestige are more suggestive of joining higher strata of society than getting rich. Aggregate pull of non-money ambitions is more than thrice that of money ambitions. The study undertaken by the SIET Institute¹⁸ also reveals that "economic gain which is nearer to our money gain, though stands first in the overall ranking of entrepreneurs' reasons for starting the units, it claims only one-third of the total weighted score leaving two-thirds to other reasons".

17. McCorry, James, T., op.cit., p.8.

18. Small Industry Extension Training Institute : Socio-Psychological Factors Influencing the Adoption of the Innovation of Starting a Small Industry, (Hyderabad), 1974, p.14.

4.2 Reasons Compelling Entrepreneurs to Enter Industry

Many a time, it is the compulsion rather than the ambition that leads the man to success. Sometimes the initial ambitions and the opportunities may clash with each other. Then, the destiny is shaped by the compulsion of the situations. In some cases, all of a sudden one may be thrown out of employment and forced to pursue a different occupation. There are cases of people trying their best to seek petty employment positions and as a matter of last resort becoming a petty trader and ultimately entering industry and becoming successful and providing employment to others in thousands. Hence, it is thought appropriate to examine the reasons that might have compelled women to start an industrial unit.

As Table 4.2 shows, unemployment is reported to be the compulsion number one that has driven most of the entrepreneurs to industry. About four-fifth of the entrepreneurs (81 out of 102) mentioned this either as the first, second or third compelling reason. Seventy five of them ranked it to be number one compelling reason, six of them as number two.

Gone are the days when a man could boast of being capable of feeding the whole family. Nearly 40 per cent of our population is living below poverty line. It has, therefore, become a glaring truth in the case of a family to maintain a reasonable standard of living, the income of the family is not going to be adequate at all. The women must supplement it through whatever skill she has acquired.

Table 4.2 Reasons Compelling Entrepreneurs to Enter Industry
(N. 102)

Sl. No.	Compelling Reasons	Entrepreneurs' Ranking of Compelling Reasons			Weighted Score	Rating (Per cent)	Rank No.
		Number one	Number two	Number three			
1.	Unemployment	75	6	-	237	52.20	1
2.	Dissatisfaction with the job so far held/ occupation so far pursued	18	15	1	85	18.72	2
3.	To make use of idle funds	4	19	1	51	11.23	4
4.	Diversification of economic interest	3	25	2	61	13.44	3
5.	Other compelling reasons*	2	7	-	20	4.41	5
Total		102	72	4	454	100	

Source: Survey Data

Note: Same as in Table 4.1

* Includes husband's death, to give employment to members of the family, motivated by radio talk, etc.

Another compelling reason ranked second by the entrepreneurs is dissatisfaction with the job so far held or occupation so far pursued (18.72%). But a few of them (25%) have turned to industry not because they were unhappy with their jobs, but because their aspirations are more than what normal jobs provide. They feel that their abilities are more than what the job requires. Perhaps they intend to capitalise much of their extra abilities by starting enterprises of their own. The third important compelling reason is diversification of economic interest (13.44%) followed by making use of idle funds (11.23%).

4.3 Factors Facilitating Entrepreneurship

Ambitions or compulsion alone may not make an entrepreneur. The encouragement the entrepreneur gets from the family, friends and relatives, the experience one has gained in employment or otherwise, the skills acquired or inherited, the property acquired or inherited, etc. are the factors facilitating entrepreneurship. The factors facilitating the emergence of entrepreneurship among women is taken up for examination in this section.

Encouragement of the members of the family, is rated highest (26.40%) of all facilitating factors. Success stories of entrepreneurs ranked a close second (23.89%) and previous experience in manufacturing or industry ranked a very close third (23.70%). Technical and professional skills, inherited or acquired (16.38%) helped the entrepreneurs much. Property inherited, acquired or husband's ranked the last (9.63%) (Table 4.3). This implies that the entrepreneurs depend so much upon the encouragement of the family

Table 4.3 Factors Facilitating Entrepreneurship

(N. 102)

Sl. No.	Facilitating Factors	Entrepreneurs' Ranking of Facilitating Factors			Weighted Score	Rating (Per cent)	Rank No.
		Number one	Number two	Number three			
1.	Success stories of entrepreneurs	28	16	8	124	23.89	2
2.	Previous experience in manufacturing/industry	31	15	-	123	23.70	3
3.	Property inherited/acquired/husbands	10	10	-	50	9.63	5
4.	Encouragement of family members	21	35	4	137	26.40	1
5.	Acquired/inherited professional and technical skills	12	23	3	85	16.38	4
	Total	102	99	15	519	100	

Source: Survey Data

Note: Same as in Table 4.1

and the least upon the property inherited. But a study on entrepreneurship and growth of enterprise in industrial estates by Gangadhara Rao¹⁹ says that inherited property is rated highest (19.30%) of all facilitating factors.

Table 4.4 shows the attitude of the members of the family towards women entrepreneurs while establishing the unit. Sixty six out of 102 (64.71%) remarked that they got full support and 25 (24.51%) said that they got support. As a whole 89 per cent got support from the family or faced no objection in establishing the units. Only one out of 102 (0.98%) faced tough opposition while establishing the unit. Five out of 102 (4.90%) women entrepreneurs started the unit in the face of opposition.

Table 4.4 Attitude of the Members of the family while Establishing the Unit

(N. 102)		
Attitude	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Full support	66	64.71
Support	25	24.51
Neutral	5	4.90
Opposition	5	4.90
Tough opposition	1	0.98
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

19. Gangadhara Rao, N., op.cit., p.145.

Forty one out of 50 (82%) women respondents, in the study of women entrepreneurs of Delhi, did not face any resistance from their family while establishing the unit, rather their family provided a helping hand and encouraged them in such an endeavour. But 18 per cent reported that they had to face a tough opposition from their family before entering entrepreneurship²⁰.

Nearly 70 per cent (71 out of 102) women entrepreneurs got help in business from their father or husband (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Help of Father/Husband in Business
(N. 102)

Help	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Help	71	69.61
No help	31	30.39
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

20. Vinze, M.D., op.cit., p.208.

Further analysis shows that (Table 4.6) 40.85 per cent of the entrepreneurs (29 out of 71) got valuable advice from their father or husband and 8.45 per cent got only moral support i.e. no advice or financial help. Nearly 24 per cent (17 out of 71) got all help from their father or husband. Only three respondents got physical help from their male counterparts. Financial help is available to 9.86 per cent (7 out of 71), but they are not in receipt of any advice from the money givers. There is another class who are giving advice as well as finance. About 12.68 per cent (9 out of 71) got this particular help.

Table 4.6 The Way in Which Father/Husband help in Business
(N. 102)

Form of Help	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Advice	29	40.85
Moral support	6	8.45
Finance	7	9.86
All help	17	23.94
Advice and finance	9	12.68
Any other [*]	3	4.22
Total	71	100

Source: Survey Data

* Physical help.

4.4 Expectations of Entrepreneurs

Table 4.7 depicts women entrepreneurs' expectations stimulating their desire to enter industry. It is but natural that entrepreneurs expect a lot from the State and other agencies and hope that their expectations will materialise on starting an enterprise. In the case of women entrepreneurs as they are getting encouragement from the family and relatives they can expect financial assistance from them. Whether the expectations get fulfilled or not they perform a useful function in stimulating the desire to set up an enterprise. Despite the fulfilment or non-fulfilment of such expectations the life of the enterprise is derived often from such expectations.

Respondents are given a long list of possible expectations and they are asked to point out every expectation that had stimulated their desire to enter industry, in the order of importance. Expectations of financial assistance from the State government/financial corporations/nationalised banks and other State agencies ranks first having a rating per cent of 51, followed by expectations of financial assistance from family/relatives and friends (11.73%). Securing ancillary relations with a large firm ranked the last in this respect (0.64%). Expectations of assistance from the government agencies in the form of supply of machinery has more stimulating effect (8.35%) than availability of skilled labour (8.14%), financial assistance from the private commercial banks (7.28%) and allotment of plot or shed in the industrial area (5.78%).

Table 4.7 Factors Stimulating Entrepreneurs' Desire to Enter Industry.

(N. 102)

Sl. No.	Entrepreneurs' Expectations	Entrepreneurs' Ranking of Expectations			Weighted Score	Rating (Per cent)	Rank No.
		Number one	Number two	Number three			
1.	Allotment of plot/shed in the industrial area	9	-	-	27	5.78	6
2.	Financial assistance						
	i. State Govt./Financial Corporation/Nationalised Banks/Other State Agencies	73	10	-	239	51.18	1
	ii. Private Commercial banks	6	7	2	34	7.28	5
	iii. Family members/relatives/friends	10	12	1	55	11.78	2
3.	Technical assistance from the govt./non-govt. agencies	1	3	5	14	3.00	7
4.	Assistance from govt. agencies in:						
	i. Supply of machinery	-	17	5	39	8.35	3
	ii. Supply of raw materials	-	4	1	9	1.92	8
	iii. Sale of finished products	-	2	-	4	0.86	10
5.	Securing ancillary relations with a large firm	1	-	-	3	0.64	11
6.	Availability of skilled labour	1	13	9	38	8.14	4
7.	Support of a dependable	-	2	1	5	1.07	9
	Total	101*	70	24	467	100	

Source: Survey Data

Note: Same as in Table 4.1

* One woman entrepreneur had no such expectations stimulating her desire to enter business.

This analysis leads to the following conclusions. State government/ financial corporations and nationalised banks played a dominant role in stimulating entrepreneur's desire to enter industry. Financial assistance from family, relatives or friends have also influenced entrepreneurs desire to enter industry. Expectations of supply of machinery from the government agencies is also considerably significant.

4.5 Entrepreneurs' Choice of Product Lines

Lines of manufacture chosen by the entrepreneurs were discussed in the last chapter. But entrepreneurs' reasons for selecting their line of industry are, therefore, yet to be analysed. Selection of an industry group is no easy task. The ultimate success of an entrepreneur perhaps, depends on this decision. The resourcefulness of an entrepreneur is put to test in such key decisions. The choice of an industry group, the choice of suitable location and determination of the initial size of the enterprise are inter-related issues. Decision making in such matters requires expertise and professional guidance. Small industry is such, where it is impossible to trace back a mistake that is committed once, since small entrepreneur can seldom afford to experiment with alternative ideas or plans.

Women entrepreneurs often get lost while selecting product line because of their ignorance in the matter. Therefore, they tend to select a project which normally everyone selects like traditional papad, pickle, ready-made garments, handicrafts, etc. which in due course of time bring

competition in the market and low marketing potentiality. Subsequently, only a few units can do well, while others slide back in performance. The failure to relate the product to women entrepreneurs' own background is another common error in product selection. A science graduate tends to select high technical product on the basis of her educational background. But later on due to lack of skills, her unit fumbles.

The ease with which an enterprise could be started influenced the entrepreneurs much in their choice of product lines as could be seen from Table 4.8, 66.66 per cent of the entrepreneurs (68 out of 102). In the overall ranking of the reasons, this factor tops the list, rated 35.02 per cent. This is similar to another reason given in the Table i.e. no difficulty in securing technical know-how which is ranked second and rated 23.68 per cent.

Relation to the profession or occupation pursued so far was cited as another important reason by the entrepreneurs for selecting their line of industry (21.86%) followed by lack of competition (11.13%). It is noteworthy that not many of the entrepreneurs are turned by the consideration of high margin of profits which is rated 4.25 per cent and ranked fifth, and existence of similar units in the neighbourhood ranked the last (rating percentage 4.05). Entrepreneurs are not getting tempted by the existence of similar units in the neighbourhood. It may be because they are afraid of competition.

Table 4.8 Entrepreneurs' Reasons for Selecting their Lines of Industry

(N. 102)

Sl. No.	Reasons	Entrepreneurs' Ranking of Reasons			Weighted Score	Rating (Per cent)	Rank No.
		Number one	Number two	Number three			
1.	Easy to set up	39	27	2	173	35.02	1
2.	High margin of profit	4	4	1	21	4.25	5
3.	No competition	8	14	3	55	11.13	4
4.	Related to the profession or occupation pursued so far	26	13	4	108	21.86	3
5.	No difficulty in securing technical know-how	24	19	7	117	23.68	2
6.	Existence of similar industry in the neighbourhood	1	5	7	20	4.05	6
Total		102	82	24	494	100	

Source: Survey Data

Note: Same as in Table 4.1

4.6 Entrepreneurs' Choice of Location

While thinking in line with traditional theory of location, one will be able to say that industries tend to be located on the basis of maximisation of profit and minimisation of cost, especially in private enterprise economy. But there are several other factors which may also have to be taken into consideration. It may be that the locational decisions of many small scale entrepreneurs are not made on a strict calculus of costs and returns. Some may prefer a steady return or high profit. Some others may look for a peaceful industrial atmosphere when compared to high profit. About this phenomenon H.W.Richardson²¹ comments: "Profit maximisation is not consistent with how location decision-makers actually behave. There is increasing evidence, though much of it is impressionistic, that the location decision, more than most managerial decisions, has to take into account 'psychic income' influences and other personal factors, which are not easily compatible with narrow definitions of economic rationality". So before finalising the location every wise entrepreneur tries to assess the magnitude of psychic costs involved in his investment.

Table 4.9 shows the responses of entrepreneurs to reasons for selecting the location of the enterprise. Women entrepreneurs are most interested in locating their units in the home or near the home whether the place is suitable or not. Home town or nearness to native place ranks first (42.18%) followed by nearness to markets (18.02%). Availability of a plot/shed in the industrial estates ranks third. Existence of similar units in the neighbourhood does not attract the entrepreneurs to locate their units. They are least bothered about nearness to raw materials (9.31%).

21. Richardson, H.W., Regional Growth Theory, Macmillan, London, 1973, p.109.

Table 4.9 Entrepreneurs' Reasons for Selecting the Location

(N. 102)

Sl. No.	Reasons	Entrepreneurs' Ranking of Reasons			Weighted Score	Rating (Per cent)	Rank No.
		Number one	Number two	Number three			
1.	Availability of a plot/shed in the Industrial Estates	19	13	1	84	16.63	3
2.	Nearness to raw materials	6	12	5	47	9.31	5
3.	Nearness to market	9	30	4	91	18.02	2
4.	Home town or nearness to native place	57	21	-	213	42.18	1
5.	Existence of similar units in the neighbourhood	10	13	3	59	11.68	4
6.	Others*	1	3	2	11	2.13	6
Total		102	92	15	505	100	

Source: Survey Data

Note: Same as in Table 4.1

* Husband's work place.

A working woman has a double role to play: she is an income earner, but she can't shake off her household duties completely. There are thus competing demands on her time, attention and energy. So she is forced to locate her business near her home or in the house itself. As she is her own master, she can adjust her work schedule and house work better. She can be with her family whenever she wants or is needed. Emergence of nuclear family, non-availability of reliable domestic servants and lack of proper hygienic creches, force women to leave their employment. Therefore more and more women would like to be self-employed or start their own business in their house or nearby places²².

In the initial stages, it is a bit difficult for a woman entrepreneur to find out a building suitable to her liking. So it is natural to locate the business in the house premises or nearby places. If she starts the unit in her own house, she can avoid paying rent which is very burdensome in the initial stages of production. Other members of the family can also take care of the unit.

4.7 Entrepreneurs' Friend, Philosopher and Guide

The entrepreneur might have come forward upon her own or because of somebody's sound advice, motivation, etc. Whoever is so instrumental in making the entrepreneur is described as her friend, philosopher and guide. The meaning of the term is taken in the sense of a motivator or prime mover. The centre of interest is to ascertain the man or woman

22. Panandiker, Surekha, op.cit., p.5.

responsible for instilling the spirit of enterprise in the entrepreneur²³.

Entrepreneurs' responses are shown in the Table 4.10. About 43 per cent (44 out of 102) made no mention of their friend, philosopher and guide. They do firmly believe that they are the product of self-development. About 32.35 per cent (33 out of 102) gave the names of members of the family and relatives as friend, philosopher and guide. But further analysis shows that among them, husbands (80%) of the entrepreneurs played a dominant role in shaping their destiny as an entrepreneur. While discussing with the entrepreneurs, they remarked that their husbands are very co-operative. About 24 per cent of the entrepreneurs had their friend, philosopher and guide from among "others". Others include, Women Industries officers, officers of District Industries Centres, Industries Department, Commissioner of Industries, officers of Block level, KITCO and friends. About 80 per cent of the entrepreneurs in the third category are assisted in becoming entrepreneurs by government officers in charge of industrial promotion among women. The high proportion of entrepreneurs who like to designate themselves as self-developed (43.14%) is a testimony of the resourcefulness of the entrepreneurs, and it is this class of entrepreneurs that is needed most.

23. Gangadhara Rao, N., op.cit., p.163.

Table 4.10 Entrepreneurs' Friend, Philosopher and Guide
(N. 102)

Entrepreneurs' Friend, Philosopher and Guide	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Self-made	44	43.14
Family and relatives	33	32.35
Others *	25	24.51
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

* Includes Women's Industries officers, officers of District Industries Centres, Taluk officers, KITCO and friends.

4.7.1 Entrepreneurship Development Programmes

About 43 per cent (44 out of 102) of the respondents found an opportunity to attend short duration management development programmes. Most of them are conducted by Industries Department and KITCO with the help of IDBI. Majority of the entrepreneurs, who attended management/entrepreneurship development programmes found them useful. Entrepreneurs reasons for not attending management development programmes are given in Table 4.11.

About 43 per cent were not aware of the programme, 37 per cent of them felt it to be inconvenient to take the course and nearly 13 per cent

do not think they are useful. Two entrepreneurs complained that they are very expensive. One entrepreneur has not attended the programmes because she has enough experience in the field.

Table 4.11 Entrepreneurs Reasons for Not Attending Management Development Programmes (N. 102)

Reasons	Frequency
Not aware of the programme	25
Do not think they are useful	8
They are expensive	2
It is inconvenient	22
Any other reason [*]	1
Total	58 ^{**}

Source: Survey Data

* Having enough experience

** The remaining 44 entrepreneurs found an opportunity to attend management development programmes.

4.8 Social Disposition

There are certain other characteristics which may have some effect in instilling the spirit of entrepreneurship among women or as forces behind the coming up of new entrepreneurs. They are sociability character of women, entrepreneurs satisfaction in the present engagement, security feeling, etc.

In order to find out whether these entrepreneurs are sociable or not they are asked to point out the names of women's organisation in which they are members. About 47 per cent (48 out of 102) remarked that they are members of different women's organisations (Table 4.12). This means, that they are in contact with so many people of different set up and aware of changes taking place around them. Their participation in these organisations will help them to think independently and to work for the betterment of their lot.

Table 4.12 Membership in Women's Organisations
(N. 102)

Membership	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Have membership	48	47.06
Do not have membership	54	52.94
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

It is heartening to see that about 85 per cent (87 out of 102) of the respondents are satisfied with the present engagement (Table 4.13). Entrepreneurs' satisfaction in their industrial ventures is an inspiration to other women - who are outside the circle - to start industrial ventures. If the already existing women entrepreneurs are not satisfied, those who are preparing to enter industrial ventures will be frustrated or discouraged and the drop outs from the new generation of women entrepreneurs will be high.

Table 4.13 The Distribution of respondents on the basis of Satisfaction in their Present Engagement (N. 102)

Satisfaction	No. of Entrepreneurs	Per cent
Satisfied	87	85.29
Not satisfied	15	14.71
Total	102	100

Source: Survey Data

About 72 per cent of the women entrepreneurs have domestic help, either from servants or from members of the family. A good number of the women entrepreneurs think that they got security on becoming an entrepreneur. This feeling of security is a must for inspiring the new - comers as well as for the continuation of the existing ones. This is

in conformity with another study²⁴ on women entrepreneurship. "However, they frankly admitted that by entering into entrepreneurship they certainly felt secured. They never depend on their family members for the fulfilment of their necessary requirements. They felt economically secured and independent and socially superior to other women of the society. They got an opportunity in entrepreneurship for development of their personality in their own way".

Thus, in this chapter an attempt has been made to analyse different motivating forces behind the emergence of women entrepreneurship in Kerala. Factors like the desire to gain independent economic status, encouragement of the members of family, expectations of getting financial assistance from State agencies motivated women to start business ventures. Women entrepreneurs prefer to set up the units in the premises of their home and select trade lines which are easy to set up. A good number of them are satisfied with the present engagement.

24. Vinze, M.D., op.cit., p.210.

Chapter 5

PROFILE OF THE UNITS

Having examined the different factors that motivated women to start industrial ventures, an attempt has been made to describe the profile of their industrial units in terms of age, organisational set-up, nature of factory building, employment, capital structure, monthly sales turnover, business conditions and other related characteristics.

5.1 Age-Profile of the Units

Age-profile of the units surveyed is analysed in terms of (1) year-wise distribution of the units and (2) year of commencement of units by trade.

5.1.1 Year-wise Distribution of the Units

Among the 121 units surveyed, there are nine units (7.44%) which were started before 1976, 17 units (14.05%) during 1976-80, 82 units (67.77%) during 1981-85 and 13 units (10.74%) in 1986 and 1987. Highest concentration of the sample units is during the years 1981-85 (Table 5.1).

Further analysis shows that among the 82 units out of 121 established during the years 1981-85, 15 units (18.29%) were in the year 1981, 16 units (19.51%) each in the year 1982 and 83, 20 units (24.39%) in 1984 and 15 units (18.29%) in 1985 (Table 5.2).

Table 5.1 Year-Wise Distribution of the Units
(N. 121)

Year	No. of Units	Percentage
Before 1976	9	7.44
1976 - 80	17	14.05
1981 - 85	82	67.77
1986 onwards	13	10.74
Total	121	100

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.2 Distribution of the Units Established During 1981-85
(N. 121)

Year	No. of Units	Percentage
1981	15	18.29
1982	16	19.51
1983	16	19.51
1984	20	24.39
1985	15	18.29
Total	82	100

Source : Survey Data

The same trend can be seen in Sulochana Nadkarni's¹ study on women entrepreneurs of Pune. She remarks that even in a large city like Pune, entrepreneurship among women is a relatively recent phenomenon.

5.1.2 Year of Commencement of Units : Trade-Wise

The units started before 1981 are mainly of ready-made garments and of printing and book binding. Of the 82 units started during 1981-85, there are 29 for ready-made garments, 14 for printing and book binding, nine for food products, eight for miscellaneous items, four each for candle and rubber products, three each for match dipping, handicraft and clinical laboratory, two for radio assembling, and one each for chemicals, engineering and handloom textiles. Except for chemicals, engineering and handloom textiles, more units were started during 1981-85. (Table 5.3).

5.2 Organisation

Organisational base of women's industrial units in Kerala is studied in terms of trade and year.

5.2.1 Organisational Set-Up

Sole proprietary is the most popular of all forms of organisation as could be seen in Table 5.4. Eighty nine out of 121 (73.55%) are proprietary concerns. Twelve out of 121 (9.91%) are partnership firms. Only one joint-stock company is seen in the sample. On enquiring further, it is found

1. Nadkarni, Sulochana, op.cit.

Table 5.3 Year of Commencement of Units : Trade-Wise
(N. 121)

Trade	Before 1976	1976 - 80	1981 - 85	86 Onwards	Total
Food Industries	1	1	9	1	12
Ready-made Garments	2	5	29	3	39
Printing and Book Binding	1	3	14	-	18
Match Dipping	-	1	3	-	4
Candle	1	-	4	-	5
Chemical Industries	-	1	1	1	3
Handicrafts	-	1	3	-	4
Radio Assembling	2	1	2	-	5
Rubber Industries	-	-	4	1	5
Clinical Laboratories	-	-	3	-	3
Engineering Works	-	-	1	2	3
Handloom Textiles	1	2	1	-	4
Miscellaneous	1	2	8	5	16
Total	9	17	82	13	121

Source : Survey Data

that all partnerships are family partnerships consisting of husbands, brothers and sisters. It is interesting to note that there are 14 (11.57%) charitable institutions and 5 (4.13%) co-operative societies in the sample.

Table 5.4 Organisational Set-up of Units
(N. 121)

Organisational Base	No. of Units	Percentage
Proprietary	89	73.55
Partnership	12	9.92
Joint-Stock Company	1	0.83
Charitable Institution	14	11.57
Industrial Co-operative Society	5	4.13
Total	121	100

Source : Survey Data

5.2.2 Year of Commencement of Units : Organisation-Wise

Sixty nine out of 89 (77.53%) proprietary concerns, six (50%) partnership firms and seven (50%) charitable institutions were started during 1981-85. The only joint-stock company in the study was started in 1986.

The industrial co-operative societies were started before 1981. Among the nine units started before 1976, there were four charitable institutions and

three co-operative societies. During 1976-80, of the 17 units started, 10 are sole proprietary concerns. Eighty two units were started during 1981-85, of which 69 are sole proprietary. During and after 1986, 13 units are started and nine are sole proprietary concerns (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Organisation-Wise Year of Commencement of the Units

(N. 121)

Year	Organisational Base					Total
	Proprie- tory	Partner- ship	Joint- Stock Company	Charita- ble Inst- itution	Industri- al Co-op- erative Society	
Before 1976	1	1	-	4	3	9
1976 - 80	10	2	-	3	2	17
1981 - 85	69	6	-	7	-	82
1986 onwards	9	3	1	-	-	13
Total	89	12	1	14	5	121

Source : Survey Data

5.2.3 Organisational Set-up of Units : Trade-Wise

Among the 89 sole proprietary units, 32 are ready-made garment units followed by printing and book binding (16). Food products take a lead in partnership concerns and the only joint-stock company in the study is engaged in ready-made garments business. While charitable institutions engage more in ready-made garments business (5 out of 14), industrial co-operative societies, (2 each out of 5), are in printing and book binding and radio assembling units.

There are eight units (out of 12) for food products, 32 (out of 39) for ready-made garments, 16 (out of 18) for printing and book binding and three (out of 5) for candles owned and managed by sole proprietors. Two (out of three) chemical units are partnership concerns. The four handicraft units are in sole proprietary and partnership on a fifty-fifty basis. All rubber industrial units and clinical laboratories are sole proprietary concerns. Two (out of three) engineering units, three (out of four) handloom textiles and 11 (out of 16) miscellaneous units are sole proprietary units. Radio assembling units are under the control of charitable institutions and industrial co-operative societies (Table 5.6).

5.3 Nature of Factory Building

Only 9.92 per cent of the women entrepreneurs have land or shed in the industrial estate. Entrepreneurs who are doing business in their own

Table 5.6 Organisational Set-up of Units : Trade-Wise
(N. 121)

Trade	Organisational Base					Total
	Proprietary	Partnership	Joint-Stock Company	Charitable Institution	Industrial Co-operative Society	
Food Industries	8	3	-	1	-	12
Ready-made Garments	32	1	1	5	-	39
Printing and Book Binding	16	-	-	-	2	18
Match Dipping	3	1	-	-	-	4
Candle	3	1	-	-	1	5
Chemical Industries	1	2	-	-	-	3
Handicrafts	2	2	-	-	-	4
Radio Assembling	-	-	-	3	2	5
Rubber Industries	5	-	-	-	-	5
Clinical Laboratories	3	-	-	-	-	3
Engineering Works	2	1	-	-	-	3
Handloom Textiles	3	-	-	1	-	4
Miscellaneous	11	1	-	4	-	16
Total	89	12	1	14	5	121

Source : Survey Data

building and part of the house account for 40.49 per cent of the total. About 39 per cent of the entrepreneurs are doing business in rented buildings. Nearly 11 per cent of the women entrepreneurs have built new buildings suitable for their units (Table 5.7).

Table 5.7 Nature of Factory Building
(N. 121)

Building	No. of Units	Percentage
Newly Built	13	10.74
Owned	24	19.84
Rented	47	38.84
Part of the house	25	20.66
Land or shed in the Industrial Estate	12	9.92
Total	121	100

Source : Survey Data

Three each of rubber and miscellaneous units are functioning in new buildings. Seven ready-made garments, five each from printing and book binding and miscellaneous units are functioning in their own buildings. Eighteen out of 47 units, working in rented buildings, are ready-made

garments. Of the 25 units functioning in a part of the house, there are ten for ready-made garments. Three handloom textiles and two each from food products, ready-made garments, printing and book binding and miscellaneous units are in industrial estates.

About 33 per cent of food products units, 60 per cent of candle and all handicraft units are in a part of the house. Nearly 33 per cent of engineering units and 75 per cent of handloom textiles are in industrial estates. All clinical laboratories, 46 per cent of ready-made garments, 50 per cent of printing and book binding, 66 per cent of chemicals, 60 per cent of radio assembling and 66 per cent of engineering units are functioning in rented buildings (Table 5.8).

5.4 Employment

The employment potential in the women's industrial units is examined by studying (1) Nature of employment in the industrial units (2) Classification of employees according to sex (3) Employment generation in relation to organisational base (4) Trade-wise labour employment (5) Trade-wise distribution of units by employment size and (6) Investment-labour ratio.

5.4.1 Nature of Employment in the Industrial Units

There is a total employment of 1316 persons in the 121 units. About 67 per cent of labourers are permanent employees, 19.15 per cent temporary hands and the remaining are working on a piece rate basis or are

Table 5.8 Nature of Factory Building in Relation to Trade
(N. 121)

Trade	Nature of Factory Building					Total
	Newly Built	Owned	Rented	Part of the House	Industrial Estates	
Food Industries	1	2	3	4	2	12
Ready-made Garments	2	7	18	10	2	39
Printing and Book Binding	1	5	9	1	2	18
Match Dipping	-	3	1	-	-	4
Candle	1	-	1	3	-	5
Chemical Industries	1	-	2	-	-	3
Handicrafts	-	-	-	4	-	4
Radio Assembling	1	1	3	-	-	5
Rubber Industries	3	-	1	1	-	5
Clinical Laboratories	-	-	3	-	-	3
Engineering Works	-	-	2	-	1	3
Handloom Textiles	-	1	-	-	3	4
Miscellaneous	3	5	4	2	2	16
Total	13	24	47	25	12	121

Source : Survey Data

on training (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9 Nature of Employment in the Industrial Units

(N. 121)

Nature of Employment	No. of Units	No. of Labourers Employed	Percentage
Permanent	74	877	66.64
Temporary	34	252	19.15
Others *	13	187	14.21
Total	121	1316	100

Source : Survey Data

* Piece rate and training

5.4.2 Classification of Employees according to Sex

Average labour employed per unit is 10.88, of which men come only to 1.17 (Table 5.10).

5.4.3 Employment Generation and Organisational Set-up

Average labour employment creation per unit is the highest in charitable institutions (36.79) followed by industrial co-operative societies

(17.60) and the least in joint-stock company (3). This rate is 7.22 in the proprietary concerns and 5.58 in the partnership firms (Table 5.11).

Table 5.10 Classification of Employees According to Sex

(N. 121)

Sex	No. of Labourers Employed	Average Employment per Unit
Male	141	1.17
Female	1175	9.71
Total	1316	10.88

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.11 Employment Generation in Relation to Organisational Set-up

(N. 121)

Organisational Base	No. of Labourers Employed	No. of Units	Average Employment per Unit
Proprietary	643	89	7.22
Partnership	67	12	5.58
Joint-Stock Company	3	1	3.00
Charitable Institution	515	14	36.79
Industrial Co-operative Society	88	5	17.60
Total	1316	121	10.88

Source : Survey Data

5.4.4 Trade-Wise Labour Employment

Average per unit employment is the highest in handloom textiles i.e. 55.75, followed by radio assembling (30.8) and the least employment creation is in clinical laboratories (1.67) and candle units (4.8). This rate in the miscellaneous units is 12.38, match dipping ten, ready-made garments 8.74, food products and printing and book binding eight each, engineering works 6.67, rubber industries and handicrafts six each and chemical industrial units 5.33 (Table 5.12).

5.4.5 Trade-Wise Distribution of Units by Employment Size

It is clear from Table 5.13 that the majority (100) of the units are employing less than 10 labourers and only 5 units have employment potential in the range 'above 40 labourers'. One handloom textiles and a radio assembling unit employ 200 and 101 labourers respectively. One miscellaneous unit employs 90 labourers, one ready-made garment unit 50 and one printing and book binding unit 52. There is only one ready-made garments unit in the class interval '30-40 labourers'.

5.4.6 Investment-Labour Ratio

The amount of capital investment* involved in the creation of additional jobs is an important factor to be considered. A trade-wise distribution of the amount of capital employed per labourer is given in Table 5.14.

* Investment includes both fixed and working capital.

Table 5.12 Trade-Wise Labour Employment

(N. 121)

Trade	No. of Labourers Employed	No. of Units	Average Employment
Food Industries	97	12	8.08
Hand-made Garments	341	39	8.74
Printing and Book Binding	144	18	8.00
Shoe Dipping	40	4	10.00
Woolle	24	5	4.80
Chemical Industries	16	3	5.33
Handicrafts	24	4	6.00
Radio Assembling	154	5	30.80
Woolen Industries	30	5	6.00
Chemical Laboratories	5	3	1.67
Engineering Works	20	3	6.67
Handloom Textiles	223	4	55.75
Miscellaneous	198	16	12.38
Total	1316	121	10.88

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.13 Trade-Wise Distribution of Units by Employment Size
(N. 121)

Trade	Number of Labourers Employed					Total
	Upto 10	10 - 20	20 - 30	30 - 40	Above 40	
Food Industries	10	-	2	-	-	12
Ready-made Garments	32	4	1	1	1	39
Printing and Book Binding	17	-	-	-	1	18
Match Dipping	3	1	-	-	-	4
Candle	5	-	-	-	-	5
Chemical Industries	3	-	-	-	-	3
Handicrafts	3	1	-	-	-	4
Radio Assembling	-	4	-	-	1	5
Rubber Industries	5	-	-	-	-	5
Clinical Laboratories	3	-	-	-	-	3
Engineering Works	3	-	-	-	-	3
Handloom Textiles	3	-	-	-	1	4
Miscellaneous	13	-	2	-	1	16
Total	100	10	5	1	5	121

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.14 Investment - Labour Ratio : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	Investment (Rs.)	No. of Labourers	Amount of Ca per Labour employed
Food Industries	13,12,000.00	97	13,525.77
Ready-made Garments	18,15,750.00	341	5,324.78
Printing and Book Binding	26,64,000.00	144	18,500.00
Match Dipping	5,26,000.00	40	13,150.00
Candle	1,48,000.00	24	6,166.67
Chemical Industries	4,75,000.00	16	29,687.50
Handicrafts	90,000.00	24	3,750.00
Radio Assembling	7,22,000.00	154	4,688.31
Rubber Industries	7,63,000.00	30	25,433.33
Clinical Laboratories	57,000.00	5	11,400.00
Engineering Works	8,50,000.00	20	42,500.00
Handloom Textiles	6,40,000.00	223	2,869.95
Miscellaneous	12,49,500.00	198	6,310.61
Total	1,13,12,250.00	1316	8,595.93

Source : Survey Data

The table shows that the average amount of capital employed per labourer in the women's industrial units, works out to Rs.8595.93. With regard to engineering units it is as high as Rs.42,500 followed by chemicals (Rs.29,687) and rubber products (Rs.25,433). Investment-labour ratio is the lowest in handloom textiles (Rs.2869.95) followed by handicrafts (Rs.3750).

Engineering units require Rs.42,500 to employ one labourer, whereas handloom textiles can employ one labourer with an investment of Rs.2869.95. So industries like engineering, chemical and rubber are capital intensive and handloom textiles and handicrafts are labour intensive. Dhar and Lydall (1961)² has already pointed out that traditional or handicraft techniques are highly labour intensive and such units are generally very small. But very small modern factories or workshops may be very capital intensive.

Economists have suggested several efficiency indices to guide the choice of techniques for investment. A simple approach to any allocation problem is to economise the most scarce resource and use the abundant factor more intensively. Underdeveloped countries like India have surplus labour force and serious shortage of capital. Therefore it is often suggested that in such economies, projects which use more of the abundant labour supply and less of the scarce capital should be preferred³. This would imply that the capital used per unit of output and labour, should be the minimum possible.

2. Quoted from Little, I.M.D., "Small Manufacturing Enterprises in Developing Countries", The World Bank Economic Review, Vol.I, No.2, 1987, p.214.

3. Oommen, M.A., *op.cit.*, p.16.

In this respect handloom textiles and handicrafts are best suited for us, due to its low capital intensity, but at the same time capital-output ratio of these labour intensive units are high (See Table 5.26).

According to Lebenstein and Galenson, the most profitable investment is the one with the highest capital-labour ratio⁴. In this respect engineering units, chemicals and rubber products (their capital-labour ratio is the highest in the study) are more advisable. Their sales turnover-labour ratio is also the highest among all other trades (See Table 5.27).

5.5 Capital Structure

Capital structure of women's industrial units is analysed by studying (1) Distribution of investment in relation to ownership/organisational base. (2) Trade-wise investment (3) Trade-wise distribution of units by investment size (4) Trade-wise distribution of loan (5) Trade-wise distribution of subsidy (6) Trade-wise distribution of own capital (7) Percentage distribution of loan to investment and subsidy to investment (Trade-wise).

5.5.1 Distribution of Investment in Relation to Ownership/Organisational Set-up

Total investment in the 121 units is Rs.1,13,12,250. Investment per unit is the highest in industrial co-operative societies i.e. Rs.2,04,000 and the lowest in the joint-stock company i.e. Rs.10,000. Average per unit investment for the proprietary concerns is Rs.87,797.75, for partnership Rs.1,22,375 and

4. Galenson and Leibenstein, "Investment Criteria, Productivity and Economic Development", Quarterly Journal of Economics, August 1955.

for charitable institutions Rs.71,410.71 (Table 5.15).

Table 5.15 Distribution of total Investment in Relation to Ownership/
Organisational Set-up (N. 121)

Form of Organisation	No. of Units	Total Investment (Rs.)	Average Investment Per Unit (Rs)
Proprietary	89	78,14,000.00	87,797.75
Partnership	12	14,68,500.00	1,22,375.00
Joint-Stock Company	1	10,000.00	10,000.00
Charitable Institution	14	9,99,750.00	71,410.71
Industrial Co-operative Society	5	10,20,000.00	2,04,000.00
Total	121	1,13,12,250.00	93,489.67

Source : Survey Data

5.5.2 Trade-Wise Investment

Trade-wise investment of women's industrial units shows that investment per unit is the highest in engineering works (Rs.2,83,333.33) followed by chemicals (Rs.1,58,333.33) and rubber products (Rs.1,52,600). Investment per unit is the lowest in clinical laboratory (Rs.19,000) followed by handicraft (Rs.22,500) and candle units (Rs.29,600) (Table 5.16).

Table 5.16 Trade-Wise Average Investment
(N. 121)

Trade	No. of Units	Total Investment (Rs.)	Average Investment per unit (Rs.)
Food Industries	12	13,12,000.00	1,09,333.33
Ready-made Garments	39	18,15,750.00	46,557.69
Printing & Book Binding	18	26,64,000.00	1,48,000.00
Match Dipping	4	5,26,000.00	1,31,500.00
Candle	5	1,48,000.00	29,600.00
Chemical Industries	3	4,75,000.00	1,58,333.33
Handicrafts	4	90,000.00	22,500.00
Radio Assembling	5	7,22,000.00	1,44,400.00
Rubber Industries	5	7,63,000.00	1,52,600.00
Clinical Laboratories	3	57,000.00	19,000.00
Engineering Works	3	8,50,000.00	2,83,333.33
Handloom Textiles	4	6,40,000.00	1,60,000.00
Miscellaneous	16	12,49,500.00	78,093.75
Total	121	1,13,12,250.00	93,489.67

Source : Survey Data

5.5.3 Trade-Wise Distribution of Units by Investment Size

On the basis of the amount of money invested, units are classified into : units having investment 'below Rs.25,000', between Rs.25,000 and 50,000, Rs.50,000 and 75,000 etc. The highest number (40) i.e. 33 per cent units are seen in the first category (upto Rs.25,000) and the least in the fifth category, where investment range is between Rs.1,00,000 and 1,25,000. Thrity three of the 39 ready-made garments units have investment below Rs.50,000. There are 19 units having investment of more than Rs.1,50,000. Of the 19 units in the investment size 'above Rs.1,50,000', one food product unit has investment about Rs. 6 lakh, one each from engineering, miscellaneous (producing office files, diary cover, plastic foldings, laminated boards, box and gift articles) and printing and book binding has investment about Rs. 5 lakh. One textile industry and one rubber product unit has investment about Rs. 4 lakh each. These are the large industries in this study in terms of investment (Table 5.17).

5.5.4 Loan

5.5.4.1 Sources of Loan

Adequate access to finance, either by equity or credit, is a key requirement for any programme of small industry development. Lack of finance has been a major problem for the small industrialists in the country. India has experimented with an unusually wide variety of financing measures of small industry through specialised agencies. The most important institutions

Table 5.17 Trade-Wise Distribution of Units by Investment Size
(N. 121)

Trade	Investment Range ('000 Rs.)										Total
	Upto 25	25 - 50	50 - 75	75 - 100	100 - 125	125 - 150	Above 150				
Food Industries	5	3	-	1	1	-	-	2	12		
Ready-made Garments	18	15	1	1	-	2	2	39			
Printing and Book Binding	1	-	2	4	3	3	5	18			
Match Dipping	-	-	-	2	-	1	1	4			
Candle	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	5			
Chemical Industries	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	3			
Handicrafts	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4			
Radio Assembling	-	-	-	2	-	2	1	5			
Rubber Industries	1	1	-	1	-	-	2	5			
Clinical Laboratories	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3			
Engineering Works	-	1	-	-	-	-	2	3			
Handloom Textiles	-	1	-	2	-	-	1	4			
Miscellaneous	6	5	1	2	-	-	2	16			
Total	40	30	4	15	4	9	19	121			

Source : Survey Data

financing small scale industries are (1) State Government (2) State Financial Corporations (3) National Small Industries Corporation and (4) Commercial Banks.

Of the 121 women industrial units surveyed 103 have availed themselves of loan facilities. About 26 per cent (27 out of 103) borrowed from Government agencies including Financial Corporation, 63.11 per cent (65 units) from commercial banks and 5.83 per cent (6 units) from both commercial banks and Kerala Financial Corporation. The joint-stock company and charitable institutions received some donations from well wishers, relatives and friends (Table 5.18).

Table 5.18 Sources of Loan
(N. 121)

Sources	No. of Units	Percentage
a) Government Agencies including Financial Corporation	27	26.21
b) Commercial banks	65	63.11
c) Both (a) and (b)	6	5.83
d) Others*	5	4.85
Total	103**	100

Source : Survey Data

* Donations form well wishers, relatives and friends.

** Remaining 18 have not availed loan.

5.5.4.2 Loan to Different Trades

Modern industries like chemicals, engineering and rubber products borrowed more money from financing agencies. Average loan available per unit is the highest in engineering (Rs.1,70,000) followed by chemicals (Rs.1,35,000) and rubber products (Rs.99,000). Average loan availed is the lowest in clinical laboratories (Rs.12,333.33) and handicraft (Rs.17,000) (Table 5.19).

5.5.5 Trade-Wise Distribution of Subsidy

Financing institutions are giving subsidy to women's industrial units in the form of machinery grant, managerial grant, interest subsidy and sometimes ready cash (nearly 10 per cent of the investment). Only 74 (out of 121) units got subsidy from financing institutions. Handloom textiles and radio assembling units are lucky enough to receive more subsidy from the financing institutions. Average per unit subsidy is the highest in handloom textiles (Rs.50,000) followed by radio assembling (Rs.35,000) and the lowest is available to clinical laboratory (Rs.1,100) followed by candle and handicraft units (Rs.4,000 each) (Table 5.20).

5.5.6 Percentage Distribution of Own Capital to Investment : Trade-Wise

Entrepreneurs' own capital invested in the units is calculated by subtracting loan and subsidy from total investment. Percentage of their own capital to investment is the highest in engineering industries (58.59) followed

Table 5.19 Trade-Wise Distribution of Loan
(N. 121)

Trade	Total No. of Units	Loan (Rs.)	No. of Units Availed Loan	Average Loan per Unit (Rs.)
Food Industries	12	7,34,000.00	9	81,555.56
Ready-made Garments	39	9,07,250.00	32	28,351.56
Printing and Book Binding	18	12,23,000.00	18	67,944.44
Catch Dipping	4	3,47,000.00	4	86,750.00
Candle	5	85,700.00	4	21,425.00
Chemical Industries	3	4,05,000.00	3	1,35,000.00
Handicrafts	4	68,000.00	4	17,000.00
Radio Assembling	5	3,01,300.00	4	75,325.00
Rubber Industries	5	4,95,000.00	5	99,000.00
Clinical Laboratories	3	37,000.00	3	12,333.33
Engineering Works	3	3,40,000.00	2	1,70,000.00
Handloom Textiles	4	3,38,000.00	4	84,500.00
Miscellaneous	16	7,10,000.00	11	64,545.45
Total	121	59,91,250.00	103	58,167.09

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.20 Trade-Wise Distribution of Subsidy

(N. 121)

Trade	Total No. of Units	Subsidy (Rs.)	No. of Units Availed Subsidy	Average Subsidy per Unit (Rs.)
Food Industries	12	1,13,475.00	9	12,608.33
Ready-made Garments	39	2,57,623.00	25	10,304.92
Printing and Book Binding	18	2,68,000.00	14	19,142.86
Match Dipping	4	13,145.00	3	4,381.67
Candle	5	16,000.00	4	4,000.00
Chemicals Industries	3	33,000.00	1	33,000.00
Handicrafts	4	12,000.00	3	4,000.00
Radio Assembling	5	70,000.00	2	35,000.00
Rubber Industries	5	51,000.00	5	10,200.00
Clinical Laboratories	3	1,100.00	1	1,100.00
Engineering Works	3	12,000.00	1	12,000.00
Handloom Textiles	4	50,000.00	1	50,000.00
Miscellaneous	16	55,000.00	5	11,000.00
Total	121	9,52,343.00	74	12,869.36

Source : Survey Data

by radio assembling units (48.57) and printing and book binding (44.03). It is the least in chemicals (7.79%) and handicraft units (11.11%). As a whole 38 per cent of investment in women's industrial units is the capital of the entrepreneurs (Table 5.21).

5.5.7 Percentage Distribution of Loan to Investment : Trade-Wise

Percentage of loan to investment is the highest in chemicals (85.26) followed by handicraft (75.56) and match dipping (65.97). Engineering (40) and radio assembling (41.73) units have the lowest percentage of loan to investment. On the whole 52.96 per cent of investment is loan capital (Table 5.22).

5.5.8 Percentage Distribution of Subsidy to Investment : Trade-Wise

Table 5.23 shows the percentage distribution of subsidy to investment among 13 trade lines. It is found that, 8.42 per cent of investment is subsidy. Analysis of percentage of subsidy to investment (Trade-wise) shows that ready-made garments units are (14.19) in a better position followed by handicrafts (13.33) and candle units (10.81). But engineering units and clinical laboratories are in a disadvantageous position having only 1.41 and 1.93 per cent respectively, of subsidy to their investment.

Table 5.21 Trade-Wise Distribution of Own Capital

(N. 121)

Trade	Investment (Rs.)	Loan and Subsidy (Rs.)	Own Capital (Rs.)	Percentage of Own Capital to Investment
Food Industries	13,12,000.00	8,47,475.00	4,64,525.00	35.41
Ready-made Garments	18,15,750.00	11,64,873.00	6,50,877.00	35.85
Printing and Book Binding	26,64,000.00	14,91,000.00	11,73,000.00	44.03
Match Dipping	5,26,000.00	3,60,145.00	1,65,855.00	31.53
Candle	1,48,000.00	1,01,700.00	46,300.00	31.23
Chemical Industries	4,75,000.00	4,38,000.00	37,000.00	7.79
Handicrafts	90,000.00	80,000.00	10,000.00	11.11
Radio Assembling	7,22,000.00	3,71,300.00	3,50,700.00	48.57
Rubber Industries	7,63,000.00	5,46,000.00	2,17,000.00	28.44
Clinical Laboratories	57,000.00	38,100.00	18,900.00	33.16
Engineering Works	8,50,000.00	3,52,000.00	4,98,000.00	58.59
Handloom Textiles	6,40,000.00	3,88,000.00	2,52,000.00	39.38
Miscellaneous	12,49,500.00	7,65,000.00	4,84,500.00	38.78
Total	1,13,12,250.00	69,43,593.00	43,68,657.00	38.62

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.22 Percentage Distribution of Loan to Investment : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	Loan (Rs.)	Investment (Rs.)	Percentage of Loan to Investment
Food Industries	7,34,000.00	13,12,000.00	55.95
Ready-made Garments	9,07,250.00	18,15,750.00	49.97
Printing and Book Binding	12,23,000.00	26,64,000.00	45.91
Match Dipping	3,47,000.00	5,26,000.00	65.97
Candle	85,700.00	1,48,000.00	57.91
Chemical Industries	4,05,000.00	4,75,000.00	85.26
Handicrafts	68,000.00	90,000.00	75.56
Radio Assembling	3,01,300.00	7,22,000.00	41.73
Rubber Industries	4,95,000.00	7,63,000.00	64.88
Clinical Laboratories	37,000.00	57,000.00	64.91
Engineering Works	3,40,000.00	8,50,000.00	40.00
Handloom Textiles	3,38,000.00	6,40,000.00	52.81
Miscellaneous	7,10,000.00	12,49,500.00	56.82
Total	59,91,250.00	1,13,12,250.00	52.96

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.23 Percentage Distribution of Subsidy to Investment : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	Subsidy (Rs.)	Investment (Rs.)	Percentage of Subsidy to Investment
Food Industries	1,13,475.00	13,12,000.00	8.65
Ready-made Garments	2,57,623.00	18,15,750.00	14.19
Printing and Book Binding	2,68,000.00	26,64,000.00	10.06
Match Dipping	13,145.00	5,26,000.00	2.50
Candle	16,000.00	1,48,000.00	10.81
Chemical Industries	33,000.00	4,75,000.00	6.95
Handicrafts	12,000.00	90,000.00	13.33
Radio Assembling	70,000.00	7,22,000.00	9.70
Rubber Industries	51,000.00	7,63,000.00	6.68
Clinical Laboratories	1,100.00	57,000.00	1.93
Engineering Works	12,000.00	8,50,000.00	1.41
Handloom Textiles	50,000.00	6,40,000.00	7.81
Miscellaneous	55,000.00	12,49,500.00	4.40
Total	9,52,343.00	1,13,12,250.00	8.42

Source : Survey Data

5.6 Sales Turnover

Monthly sales turnover of the women's industrial units is taken as the output and analysed in terms of trade-wise sales turnover of the units, sales turnover range, investment-sales turnover ratio. Sales turnover-labour ratio and sales turnover-investment ratio are calculated to reckon productivity in terms of both labour and capital.

5.6.1 Sales Turnover of the Units : Trade-Wise

Monthly sales turnover per unit is the highest in engineering units (Rs.41,333.33) followed by chemicals (Rs.30,000) and food products (Rs.26,608.33). It is the lowest in clinical laboratories (Rs.1,400) and handicrafts (Rs.3,000). As a whole, monthly sales turnover per unit is Rs.13,678.51 and ready-made garments, match dipping, candle, handicraft, radio assembling, clinical laboratory and handloom textiles are below this average. Only the modern industries like chemicals, rubber products, engineering, printing and book binding and food products units with advanced technology have higher monthly sales turnover (Table 5.24).

5.6.2 Size of the Units by Sales Turnover

The women's industrial units are classified by the range of monthly sales turnover and the number of units coming under each category calculated. All the chemical units, 50 per cent of food products, 66 per cent of engineering, 60 per cent of rubber products, 50 per cent of handloom units

Table 5.24 Sales Turnover of the Units : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	No. of Units	Sales Turnover Monthly (Rs.)	Sales Turnover Per Unit (Rs.)
Food Industries	12	3,19,300.00	26,608.33
Ready-made Garments	39	3,57,500.00	9,166.66
Printing and Book Binding	18	2,52,500.00	14,027.77
Match Dipping	4	21,000.00	5,250.00
Candle	5	16,200.00	3,240.00
Chemical Industries	3	90,000.00	30,000.00
Handicrafts	4	12,000.00	3,000.00
Radio Assembling	5	29,500.00	5,900.00
Rubber Industries	5	1,55,000.00	31,000.00
Clinical Laboratories	3	4,200.00	1,400.00
Engineering Works	3	1,24,000.00	41,333.33
Handloom Textiles	4	42,100.00	10,525.00
Miscellaneous	16	2,31,800.00	14,487.50
Total	121	16,55,100.00	13,678.51

Source : Survey Data

are in the monthly sales turnover range 'above Rs.10,000'. No match dipping unit, handicraft and clinical laboratories have monthly sales turnover in the range 'above Rs.10,000'. Ready-made garments units have a lead in the 'upto Rs.2,000', 'Rs.4000-6000', and 'above Rs.10,000' sales turnover range. In the 'Rs.2,000-4,000' range, printing and book binding has a lead, whereas in the case of 'Rs.6,000-8,000' range ready-made garments and printing and book binding and miscellaneous units are in equal position (3 each). There are only 7 (out of 121) units in the 'Rs.8000-10000' range, i.e. two ready-made garments, printing and book binding and match dipping one each and three miscellaneous units (Table 5.25).

5.6.3 Investment-Sales Turnover Ratio

The investment-sales turnover ratio works out to be 6.83 for the units as a whole and goes up as 25.04 in the case of match dipping and radio assembling units (24.47). The investment required to generate a unit of output is very high in trades like printing and book binding, match dipping, radio assembling, clinical laboratories and handloom textiles. Investment-sales turnover ratio is the lowest in food products (4.11) followed by rubber products (4.9) (Table 5.26).

5.6.4 Sales Turnover-Labour Ratio : Trade-Wise

Sales turnover-labour ratio is the highest in engineering units (6200) followed by chemicals (5625) and rubber products (5166.67). It is the

Table 5.25 Trade-wise Distribution of Units by Monthly Sales Turnover
(in '000 Rs.)
(N. 121)

Trade	Monthly Sales Turnover in '000 Rs.										Total
	Upto 2	2 - 4	4 - 6	6 - 8	8 - 10	Above 10					
Food Industries	3	1	1	1	-	6	12				
Ready-made Garments	11	4	11	3	2	8	39				
Printing and Book Binding	2	5	3	3	1	4	18				
Match Dipping	-	3	-	-	1	-	4				
Candle	-	4	1	-	-	-	5				
Chemicals Industries	-	-	-	-	-	3	3				
Handicrafts	2	1	1	-	-	-	4				
Radio Assembling	-	1	3	-	-	1	5				
Rubber Industries	-	1	1	-	-	3	5				
Clinical Laboratories	3	-	-	-	-	-	3				
Engineering Works	-	1	-	-	-	2	3				
Handloom Textiles	1	-	-	1	-	2	4				
Miscellaneous	4	3	1	3	3	2	16				
Total	26	24	22	11	7	31	121				

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.26 Investment - Sales Turnover Ratio : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	No. of Units	Investment (Rs.)	Sales Turnover Monthly (Rs.)	Investment - Sales Turnover Ratio
Food Industries	12	13,12,000.00	3,19,300.00	4.11
Ready-made Garments	39	18,15,750.00	3,57,500.00	5.07
Printing and Book Binding	18	26,64,000.00	2,52,500.00	10.55
Match Dipping	4	5,26,000.00	21,000.00	25.04
Candle	5	1,48,000.00	16,200.00	9.14
Chemical Industries	3	4,75,000.00	90,000.00	5.28
Handicrafts	4	90,000.00	12,000.00	7.50
Radio Assembling	5	7,22,000.00	29,500.00	24.47
Rubber Industries	5	7,63,000.00	1,55,000.00	4.90
Clinical Laboratories	3	57,000.00	4,200.00	13.57
Engineering Works	3	8,50,000.00	1,24,000.00	6.85
Handloom Textiles	4	6,40,000.00	42,100.00	15.20
Miscellaneous	16	12,49,500.00	2,31,800.00	5.39
Total	121	1,13,12,250.00	16,55,100.00	6.83

Source : Survey Data

least in handloom textiles (188.79) and handicraft (500). Sales turnover-labour ratio for the units as a whole is 1257.67. Labour productivity in food products, printing and book binding, chemicals, rubber products and engineering works are comparatively higher than in the other trade lines. The ratios relating to these units are far higher than that for all the units taken together (Table 5.27).

In the trades like chemicals, engineering and rubber products, investment-labour ratio and sales turnover-labour ratio are higher. It shows that higher investment in the modern industries showed invariably higher labour productivity. But in the traditional units, investment per labour as well as sales turnover-labour ratio are the lowest. These units are providing employment at lowest cost just for the sake of employment creation and does not generate any appreciable surplus.

5.6.5 Sales Turnover-Investment Ratio : Trade-Wise

Sales turnover - investment ratio is the highest in food products followed by ready-made garments and rubber products, and the least in match dipping and radio assembling units. This ratio of engineering units is the same for the units as a whole (0.15). When the productivity of investment is measured in terms of monthly sales turnover, it is clear from Table 5.28 that food products, ready-made garments and rubber products have a higher level of productivity compared to the average for all the products.

Table 5.27 Sales Turnover - Labour Ratio : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	Sales Turnover Monthly (Rs.)	No. of Labourers Employed	Sales Turnover- Labour Ratio
Food Industries	3,19,300.00	97	3291.75
Ready-made Garments	3,57,500.00	341	1048.39
Printing and Book Binding	2,52,500.00	144	1753.47
Match Dipping	21,000.00	40	525.00
Candle	16,200.00	24	675.00
Chemical Industries	90,000.00	16	5625.00
Handicrafts	12,000.00	24	500.00
Radio Assembling	29,500.00	154	191.56
Rubber Industries	1,55,000.00	30	5166.67
Clinical Laboratories	4,200.00	5	840.00
Engineering Works	1,24,000.00	20	6200.00
Handloom Textiles	42,100.00	223	188.79
Miscellaneous	2,31,800.00	198	1170.71
Total	16,55,100.00	1316	1257.67

Source : Survey Data

Table 5.28 Sales Turnover - Investment Ratio : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	No. of Units	Sales Turnover Monthly (Rs.)	Investment (Rs.)	Sales Turnover- Investment Ratio
Food Industries	12	3,19,300.00	13,12,000.00	0.24
Ready-made Garments	39	3,57,500.00	18,15,750.00	0.20
Printing and Book Binding	18	2,52,500.00	26,64,000.00	0.09
Match Dipping	4	21,000.00	5,26,000.00	0.04
Candle	5	16,200.00	1,48,000.00	0.11
Chemical Industries	3	90,000.00	4,75,000.00	0.19
Handicrafts	4	12,000.00	90,000.00	0.13
Radio Assembling	5	29,500.00	7,22,000.00	0.04
Rubber Industries	5	1,55,000.00	7,63,000.00	0.20
Clinical Laboratories	3	4,200.00	57,000.00	0.07
Engineering Works	3	1,24,000.00	8,50,000.00	0.15
Handloom Textiles	4	42,100.00	6,40,000.00	0.07
Miscellaneous	16	2,31,800.00	12,49,500.00	0.19
Total	121	16,55,100.00	1,13,12,250.00	0.15

Source : Survey Data

5.7 Business Conditions of Units (Perception of Entrepreneurs)

Out of 121 units surveyed 53 remarked that they were running on profit (43.80%) and 48 (39.67%) on no loss no profit. But 16.53 per cent (20 out of 121) are running on loss (Table 5.29).

Table 5.29 Business Conditions of Units
(N. 121)

Business Conditions	No. of Units	Percentage
Profit	53	43.80
Loss	20	16.53
No profit no Loss	48	39.67
Total	121	100

Source : Survey Data

Of the 53 units running on profit, 41 are sole proprietary. The only joint-stock company is on profit. Of the 20 units running on loss, 12 are sole proprietary and four charitable institutions. Of the 48 units running on no profit no loss, 36 are sole proprietary and six charitable institutions. Not even a single co-operative society is running on profit. Twelve sole proprietary units (out of 89), two partnership units (out of 12), four charitable institutions (out of 14) and two co-operative societies (out of 5) are running

on loss (Table 5.30).

Table 5.30 Business Conditions of Units in Relation to Organisational Set-up
(N. 121)

Organisational set-up	Business Conditions			Total
	Profit	Loss	No profit no Loss	
Proprietary	41	12	36	89
Partnership	7	2	3	12
Joint-Stock Company	1	-	-	1
Charitable Institution	4	4	6	14
Industrial Co-operative Society	-	2	3	5
Total	53	20	48	121

Source : Survey Data

Trade-wise analysis of business conditions of women's industrial units shows that chemicals, rubber products and engineering units are running either on profit or no loss no profit basis. No handicraft, radio assembling and handloom textiles are running on profit (Table 5.31).

Table 5.31 Business Conditions of Units : Trade-Wise

(N. 121)

Trade	Business Conditions			Total
	Profit	Loss	No Profit no Loss	
Food Industries	7	2	3	12
Ready-made Garments	19	4	16	39
Printing and Book Binding	8	3	7	18
Match Dipping	1	1	2	4
Candle	2	1	2	5
Chemical Industries	2	-	1	3
Handicrafts	-	2	2	4
Radio Assembling	-	2	3	5
Rubber Industries	3	-	2	5
Clinical Laboratories	1	1	1	3
Engineering Works	2	-	1	3
Handloom Textiles	-	2	2	4
Miscellaneous	8	2	6	16
Total	53	20	48	121

Source : Survey Data

Family income level of entrepreneurs whose units are in a loss is given in Table 5.32. Of the 14 units (proprietary and partnership) running on loss, 85 per cent of its proprietors hail from low income families - the annual family income from all sources is less than Rs.12,000/-. The reason may be that their financial backwardness forces them to divert money invested in the units to their domestic needs.

Table 5.32 Family Income Level of Entrepreneurs Whose Units are
in a Loss
(N. 102)

Annual Income (Rs)	No. of Respondents	Per cent
Below 12,000	12	85.71
12,000 - 20,000	1	7.14
Above 20,000	1	7.14
Total	14	100

Source : Survey Data

5.8 Related Characteristics

Among the 121 units, 111 work in all seasons and remaining ten work seasonally only. Majority of the units are established under special schemes. Special schemes includes : co-operative sector, charitable act, women's industries programme, unemployment scheme, small scale industrial units (SSI units), self-employment programme, etc. There are eight ancillary units in the sample. Two each from sole proprietary and co-operative societies and four charitable institutions. Khadi Board, Keltron, H.M.T. Indian Transformers, KEL, Toshiba Anand Batteries, etc. are the parent units.

About 13.22 per cent (16 out of 121) women entrepreneurs are of the view that their units are sick (Table 5.33).

Table 5.33 Distribution of Sick Units (Perception of Entrepreneurs)
(N. 121)

Perception	No. of Units	Percentage
Sick	16	13.22
Not sick	105	86.78
Total	121	100

Source : Survey Data

Seventy five per cent of the sick units are sole proprietary concerns and 25 per cent charitable institutions (Table 5.34).

Table 5.34 Organisational Set-up of Sick Units
(N. 121)

Organisational Base	No. of Units	Percentage
Proprietary	12	75
Partnership	-	-
Joint-Stock Company	-	-
Charitable Institution	4	25
Industrial Co-operative Society	-	-
Total	16	100

Source : Survey Data

There are 21 units having sister concerns. Of this 21 units, only one is sick. So there is no relationship between sickness and having sister concerns. From personal discussions with women entrepreneurs it became apparent that a few are ready to convert the units into a 'sick one', hoping to get more monetary benefit. Eventhough their perception is that the units

are unhealthy and likely to be sick in the near future, one does not know clearly the health of the units and the basic causes. So it needs further research and study.

5.8.1 The Emoluments Drawn by the Entrepreneurs as Salary from the Enterprise (Monthly)*

Only 43.14 per cent (44 out of 102) agreed that they are drawing some emoluments as monthly salary from the enterprise. About 34.09 per cent (15 out of 44) draws an amount between Rs.201 and 400 as salary from the unit followed by 25 per cent (11 out of 44) drawing 'Rs.401-600'. About 16 per cent (7 out of 44) takes a salary below Rs.200. There are two entrepreneurs drawing Rs.500 each and another one of Rs.750. Nearly 16 per cent of the women entrepreneurs draws a salary above Rs.1000 from their enterprises (Table 5.35)

5.8.2 Time Devoted to the Enterprise

While analysing the average time devoted to their enterprise by women entrepreneurs, it is clear that 61.76 per cent (63 out of 102) spends more than 8 hours per day in their unit. About 28 per cent (29 out of 102) spends six to eight hours and only 9.8 per cent (10 out of 102) spends less than six hours in the unit (Table 5.36).

* From 5.8.1 to 5.8.4 the analysis is based on only 102 women entrepreneurs. Co-operatives and charitables are managed by paid secretaries/managers.

Table 5.35 The emoluments Drawn by the Entrepreneurs as Salary from
the Enterprise (Monthly)
(N. 121)

Amount (Rs)	No. of Entrepreneurs	Percentage
Below 200	5	11.36
201 - 400	15	34.09
401 - 600	11	25.00
601 - 800	3	6.82
801 - 1000	3	6.82
Above 1000	7	15.91
Total	44*	100

Source : Survey Data

* The remaining 58 entrepreneurs are not drawing money from the enterprise as salary.

Table 5.36 Entrepreneurs' Time Devotion to their Enterprise
(N. 102)

Time devoted (hrs.)	No. of Respondents	Percentage
8 hrs. or more	63	61.76
6 - 8 hrs	29	28.43
Less than 6 hrs.	10	9.80
Total	102	100

Source : Survey Data

5.8.3 Time devoted to the Enterprise in Relation to the Age of Entrepreneurs

Intensive analysis shows that out of 63 women entrepreneurs spending eight hours or more in their units, 16 (25.4%) belong to the age group '36-40', 15 (23.81%) belong to '31-35' group and 14 (22.22%) to the '26-30' age group. There is only one entrepreneur of 'above 45 years' old spending eight hours or more in her unit. Among the 29 women entrepreneurs devoting six to eight hours to their units, 10 (34.48%) belong to 26-30 age group, eight (27.59%) to 31-35 group, six (20.69%) to 36-40 age group, one each from the age group '41-45' and 'above 45 years'. There are ten women entrepreneurs spending less than six hours in their enterprise. Among them 20 per cent (2 out of 10) each belongs to the age group of 36-40 and 'above 45 years' and thirty per cent (3 out of 10) belongs to 31-35 age group (Table 5.37).

Table 5.37 Average Time Devoted to their Enterprise in Relation to

Age of Entrepreneurs

(N. 102)

Age	Time Devoted			Total
	8 hrs. or More	6-8 hrs.	Less than 6 hrs.	
Upto 25	11	3	1	15
26 - 30	14	10	1	25
31-35	15	8	3	26
36-40	16	6	2	24
41-45	6	1	1	8
above 45	1	1	2	4
Total	63	29	10	102

Source : Survey Data

Two entrepreneurs out of four in the age group 'above 45' spend less than six hours in their enterprise. Surprisingly six out of eight women entrepreneurs in the age group '41-45' spend eight hours or more in their enterprise. In the '36-40' age group 66.66 per cent entrepreneurs spends eight hours or more. About 58 per cent who spends eight hours or more in the enterprise belong to the age group of '31-35'. Among the 25 women entrepreneurs in the '26-30' age group 56 per cent spends eight hours or more in their units.

5.8.4 Entrepreneurs' Time Devotion to the Enterprise on the Basis of Domestic Help

Further analysis is made to find out whether there is any relationship between entrepreneurs' time devotion to the enterprise and the domestic help they got either from servants or members of the family.

Among the 74 women entrepreneurs having domestic help 44 (59.46%) spend eight hours or more, 22 (29.73%) spend six to eight hours and eight (10.81%) spend less than six hours in the unit. Among the 28 women entrepreneurs having no domestic help 19 (67.86%) spend eight hours or more, seven (25%) spend six to eight hours and two (7.14%) spend less than five hours in the unit.

In other words, of the 63 women entrepreneurs spending eight hours or more in the units, 44 (69.84%) have domestic help, and 19 (30.16%) have no domestic help. Twenty two out of 29 entrepreneurs spending six to eight hours in the units (75.86%) have domestic help and seven out of

29 (24.14%) have no domestic help. In the third category, ten entrepreneurs are spending less than six hours in the units, eight (80%) have domestic help and two (20%) have no domestic help (Table 5.38).

Table 5.38 Entrepreneurs' Time Devotion to the Enterprise on the Basis of Domestic Help (N. 102)

Time devoted	Domestic Help		Total
	Yes	No	
8hrs. or more	44 (59.46)	19 (67.86)	63
6-8 hrs.	22 (29.73)	7 (25.00)	29
Less than 6 hrs.	8 (10.81)	2 (7.14)	10
Total	74 (100)	28 (100)	102

Source : Survey Data

Note : Figures in brackets denote percentage.

While investigating the profile of the units surveyed, it became obvious that majority of the units are tiny in terms of capital investment, labour employed and sales turnover. A good proportion of the industrial units is running either on profit or on no loss no profit basis. There are only very few industrial units in the modern sense of the term innovative; almost all are imitative and traditional. Product innovation is practically nil. But McGuire⁵ has already remarked that: "A firm may grow especially if it combines a good deal of imitativeness with a little bit of innovation, so that it becomes different and perhaps better than the existing leaders".

5. Quoted from Staley, Eugene and Morse, Richard, Modern Small Industry for Developing Countries, McGraw-Hill, London, 1965, p.130.

Chapter 6

PROBLEMS FACING WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

After describing the profile of the units, this chapter has been devoted to analysing the nature of problems encountered by women entrepreneurs in their day to day business life. The analysis is based on their perception*.

Women entrepreneurs are asked to point out the problems by major heads as, finance, marketing, raw materials, labour, power, technical and managerial guidance. Further, they are required to pinpoint the nature of a particular problem. For example, if the problem is one relating to marketing, the entrepreneur is expected to clearly specify whether it is a problem of competition from small units, competition from large units, slackness in demand, distribution control, problem of transport or something else. There are two questions for their free response. They are : policies of the Government which they think are detrimental to the interest of their enterprise and whether they have any problem as a woman entrepreneur. They were asked to give suggestions also. Thus the enquiry covered all the major problems.

6.1 Analysis of the Problems : Trade-wise

Turning to the problem of finance, 80.17 per cent (97 out of 121) faces the problem. Of the 97 units having the problem, 30 (30.93%) are

* Their perception may be different from the real problems. To find it out, further research is suggested.

ready-made garment units followed by printing and book binding (15 units) and miscellaneous industrial units (12 units). Seventy six per cent of the ready-made garment units are facing the problem. All the match dipping units, clinical laboratories, and engineering works are in acute financial crisis. All the textile units except one suffer from financial problem. Analysis of problems (Trade-wise) shows that no product is free from financial problem.

Seventy four units (61.15%) have marketing problem. Forty seven units (38.85%) are free from this problem. All the radio assembling units and clinical laboratories have no marketing problem. The radio assembling units are ancillaries of 'Keltron'. All the rubber product units and textiles have marketing problem. Fifty per cent of the printing and book binding units have to suffer marketing problem i.e., nine out of 18 units. While 66.67 per cent food processing units are facing the problem of marketing, 62.5 per cent under the category of miscellaneous are in dilemma. Of the three engineering units one is free from this problem. This is an ancillary unit of Hindustan Machine Tools (H.M.T.) and Indian Transformers at Kalamassery. Of the 74 units having the problem of marketing 26 (35.14%) are ready-made garment units.

Nearly 56 per cent (68 out of 121) of the units are facing raw material problems. All the Handicraft units, match dipping units, candle factories and rubber product units face the raw material problem in one way or the other. None of the chemical units have raw materials problem. Above 50 per cent (7 out of 12) food processing units face raw material problem. Nearly

Table 6.1 Major Problems Encountered by the Units at Present : Trade-Wise
(N. 121)

Trade	Problem												Total
	Finance		Marketing		Raw Material		Power		Labour		Technical		
	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	
Food Industries	9	3	8	4	7	5	7	5	1	11	5	7	12
Ready-made Garments	30	9	26	13	19	20	13	26	7	32	6	33	39
Printing & Book Binding	15	3	9	9	9	9	13	5	7	11	3	15	18
Match Dipping	4	-	3	1	4	-	4	-	2	2	2	2	4
Candle	3	2	2	3	5	-	3	2	1	4	-	5	5
Chemical Industries	3	-	2	1	-	3	3	-	1	2	1	2	3
Handicrafts	4	-	4	-	4	-	-	4	-	4	-	4	4
Radio Assembling	3	2	-	5	4	1	2	3	-	5	-	5	5
Rubber Industries	5	-	5	-	5	-	3	2	-	5	-	5	5
Clinical Laboratories	3	-	-	3	1	2	2	1	-	3	1	2	3
Engineering Works	3	-	1	2	1	2	1	2	-	3	-	3	3
Handloom Textiles	3	1	4	-	1	3	2	2	1	3	3	1	4
Miscellaneous	12	4	10	6	8	8	5	11	7	9	4	12	16
Total	97	24	74	47	68	53	58	63	27	94	25	96	121

Source: Survey Data

Note: FP = No. of units facing the problem

N F P = Not facing the problem

49 per cent (19 out of 39) ready-made garment units, 50 per cent of the printing and book binding and miscellaneous units have raw material problem. Of the three engineering units two are free from the problem of raw material.

Fifty eight out of 121 units (47.93%) have problems related to power. All the four match dipping units and three chemical units face power problems. All the handicraft units do not have problem of power because they do not use power. Only one engineering unit out of three, faces the problem of power. About 72 per cent of the printing and book binding units also face this problem (13 out of 18).

Though only 27 units reported the problem of labour, seven each are from ready-made garment units, printing and book binding and miscellaneous group. Handicraft, radio assembling, rubber product, clinical laboratories and engineering works have no labour problems.

Twenty five units have complained of lack of technical and managerial guidance. Chemical industrial units, radio assembling units, rubber products and engineering works have no complaint regarding technical and managerial assistance.

6.2 Organisational Set-up and the Problems

Major problems encountered at present by the units by organisational base is given in Table 6.2. Of the 89 proprietary concerns 71 (79.78%) face financial problems, 58 (65.16%) have marketing problems, 49 (55.06%) suffer from raw materials, 43 (48.31%) complained of power

Table 6.2 Major Problems Encountered at Present by the Units : By Organisational base

(N. 121)

Organisational base	Problem												Total
	Finance		Marketing		Raw Materials		Power		Labour		Technical		
	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	
Proprietary	71	18	58	31	49	40	43	46	23	66	20	69	89
Partnership	12	-	8	4	8	4	7	5	3	9	3	9	12
Joint-Stock Company	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1
Charitable Institution	9	5	6	8	8	6	5	9	1	13	2	12	14
Industrial Co-operative Society	4	1	2	3	3	2	3	2	-	5	-	5	5
Total	97	24	74	47	68	53	58	63	27	94	25	96	121

Source : Survey Data

Note : Same as in Table 6.1

problems, 23 (25.84%) have some complaints about the workers and 20 (22.47%) lacks effective technical and managerial guidance. All partnership units face financial problem. Nearly 67 per cent (8 out of 12) have both marketing and raw materials problems. About 58 per cent (7 out of 12) have some power problem and 25 per cent complained of labour and technical problems.

There is only one joint-stock company in the study and it is free from all problems except finance. There are fourteen charitable institutions in the study. Of this 64.28 per cent (9 out of 14) face problems of finance, 42.86 per cent (6 out of 14) complained of marketing problems, 57.14 per cent (8 out of 14) have raw materials problems and 35.71 per cent (5 out of 14) are worrying about problems of power. Two units complained of technical inefficiency and only one unit has labour problems. The co-operative societies are free from the problems of labour and technical guidance. But 80 per cent (4 out of 5) have financial problems, 40 per cent (2 out of 5) suffers in marketing their products and 60 per cent (3 out of 5) complained that they have raw material problems.

6.3 Occupational Background and the Problems

Table 6.3 relates the problems encountered by the enterprises and the occupational background of entrepreneurs. Out of 102 units analysed for occupational background of entrepreneurs, there are 14 unemployed (13.73%), 56 housewives (54.90%), five daily wage earners (4.90%), 4 business women (3.92%), nine tailors (8.82%) and 14 white-collar workers (13.73%).

Table 6.3 Problems Encountered by the Units at the Present : By Entrepreneurs Occupational Background
(N. 102)

Entrepreneurs' Previous Occupation	Problem												Total
	Finance		Marketing		Raw Materials		Power		Labour		Technical		
	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	FP	NFP	
Unemployed	13	1	6	8	8	6	5	9	3	11	2	12	14
Housewife	45	11	42	14	30	26	30	26	13	43	12	44	56
Daily Wage Earner	5	-	3	2	4	1	3	2	2	3	-	5	5
Business	4	-	2	2	4	-	1	3	3	1	1	3	4
Tailor	9	-	5	4	4	5	3	6	1	8	-	9	9
White-Collar Job	9	5	8	6	5	9	8	6	2	12	5	9	14
Total	85	17	66	36	55	47	50	52	24	78	20	82	102

Source : Survey Data

Note : Same as in Table 6.1

Among the 56 housewives in the study, 45 (80.36%) have problems of finance, 30 (53.57%) have raw material problems, 42 (75%) face marketing problems, 30 (53.57%) have power problems, 13 (23.21%) face labour problems and 12 (21.43%) have technical problems. Above 50 per cent of the entrepreneurs who were previously unemployed have the problem of raw materials and 92.86 per cent of them face financial problems. All the business women have raw material problems. But 50 per cent (2 out of 4) are free from marketing problems. Only 25 per cent (1 out of 4) have some power problems. Seventy five per cent (3 out of 4) of the business women have labour problems and only 25 per cent (1 out of 4) have complained about technical and managerial assistance. All the units managed by daily wage earners, business women and tailors have financial problem.

In the case of women from white-collar jobs, 64.28 per cent (9 out of 14) have financial problems, 57 per cent (8 out of 14) marketing and power problems, and 35.71 per cent (5 out of 14) raw materials problems. With regard to tailors 55.56 per cent (5 out of 9) have reported that they have problems of marketing their products. Daily wage earners and tailors have no technical and managerial problems.

6.4 Finance

Metaphorically, finance is the lubricant of the process of economic growth. When finance becomes available, industrial development is initiated and new investment opportunities arise. The newly developed access to funds

on reasonable terms induces or encourages entrepreneurs to expand their horizon of conceivable opportunities¹.

Finance is the blood stream of any enterprise. One can borrow money from banks, but only on security. Normally women have no personal security. And members of the family do not risk their property in ventures started by women. For them money is hard to find as bankers still have their own reservations about the ability of women to run an industrial unit. If a woman approaches a bank, her husband has to stand guarantee, but if a man asks for a loan, seldom is his wife to be a guarantor. Also there tends to be a little more anxiety on the part of financial institutions as regards the viability of projects started by women. Experience has proved that entrepreneurship is an ordeal for women with regard to formalities and paper work in obtaining financial assistance from banks and financial institutions².

About 80 per cent of the women entrepreneurs are in financial difficulty. Of the 97 units that complained of financial problems (first difficulty), 71 per cent (69 units) suffers from shortage of finance for working capital requirements (Table 6.4). Shortage of finance for fixed capital requirements is a problem to 5.15 per cent (5 out of 97) women entrepreneurs. Seventeen respondents (17.53%) complained of high rate of

1. Cameron, Rando and Patrick, Hugh T. "Introduction", Rando Cameron (Ed), Banking in early stages of Industrialisation, A study in Comparative Economic History, Oxford University Press, 1967, p.2.

2. Rejula Devi, A.K., op.cit., p.20.

interest charged by financing institutions. Only one entrepreneur complained that the assistance from the government is meagre. Five respondents (5.15%) are bothered about the red-tapism in government agencies.

Table 6.4 Problems of Finance Encountered at Present

(N. 121)

Sl. No.	Difficulty	No. of Entrepreneurs for Whom it is Difficult		
		Number One	Number Two	Number Three
1.	Shortage of finance for working capital requirements	69	2	-
2.	Shortage of finance for fixed capital requirements	5	9	-
3.	High rate of interest	17	18	2
4.	Red-tape in government agencies	5	14	7
5.	Meagre assistance from the Government	1	8	6
Total units facing the problem of finance		97	51	15

Source: Survey Data

Fifty one respondents marked second difficulty in financial problem. Of them, 18 (35.29%) complained of high rate of interest charged by financing institutions and 14 (27.45%) of red-tapism in government agencies.

Nine (17.64%) entrepreneurs were worried about shortage of finance for fixed capital requirements. Eight (15.69%) respondents pointed out that the assistance from the government agencies is meagre. Only 15 women entrepreneurs listed their third difficulty in financial matters and a majority were unhappy about the meagre assistance from the government and red-tapism in the government agencies.

Intensive analysis of the problem of finance is done in Table 6.5. Of the 69 units having the shortage of working capital as number one difficulty, about 37 per cent (26 units) are ready-made garments and 13 per cent (9 units) miscellaneous items. All the three chemical units are facing the problem of shortage of working capital. Two units each from printing and book binding and miscellaneous items, and one match dipping unit complained serious fixed capital scarcity. Not even a single unit from chemicals, radio assembling, and engineering works complained about high rate of interest. Two ready-made garment units and one unit each from rubber products, radio assembling and engineering works complained of red-tapism in the government agencies as their number one difficulty.

As it is common to all units, scarcity of capital is the most pestering problem of the woman entrepreneur. The materials for this study has been collected from 121 units and it is found that not even a single trade is spared from the problem of acute shortage of capital. Many of them are worrying about untimely finance and delays in sanctioning loans, grants, subsidies, etc. The units are indebted to those financing institutions who provide them finance.

Table 6.5 Problems of Finance Encountered at Present : Number One Difficulty
(N. 121)

Trade	Number One Difficulty							Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units	Total Units
	Shortage of Finance for Working Capital	Shortage of Fixed Capital Requirements	High Rate of Interest	Red-Tape in Government Agencies	Meagre assistance from the Govt.	Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units			
Food Industries	7	-	1	-	1	-	9	3	12	
Ready-made Garments	26	-	2	2	-	-	30	9	39	
Printing & Book Binding	11	2	2	-	-	-	15	3	18	
Batch Dipping	1	1	2	-	-	-	4	-	4	
Handle	1	-	2	-	-	-	3	2	5	
Chemical Industries	3	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3	
Handicrafts	2	-	2	-	-	-	4	-	4	
Radio Assembling	2	-	-	1	-	-	3	2	5	
Rubber Industries	2	-	2	1	-	-	5	-	5	
Clinical Laboratories	2	-	1	-	-	-	3	-	3	
Engineering Works	2	-	-	1	-	-	3	-	3	
Handloom Textiles	1	-	2	-	-	-	3	1	4	
Miscellaneous	9	2	1	-	-	-	12	4	16	
Total	69	5	17	5	1	97	24	121		

Source : Survey Data

It is widely recognised that the financial problems of small manufacturers are hardly financial. While a certain percentage of well managed, outstandingly promising small firms may be able to benefit decisively from better finances, shortage of finance in most cases is a symptom of other problems - poor planning, out-moded technology, ineffective marketing, bad product design, lack of cost accounting and so on³.

6.5 Marketing

It is found in practice that for a small industry manager (most often entrepreneur manager), marketing poses the biggest problem, once the initial troubles are over. The problems faced by small industries in marketing their products are : lack of standardisation, poor designing, poor quality, lack of control, lack of recession, poor finish, poor bargaining power, lack of service after sales, scale of production, distribution contracts, excessive competition, lack of funds, lack of knowledge of marketing, foreign market intelligence, ignorance of foreign trade procedures and greater risk in export marketing⁴.

The women's Industrial sector is the weakest constituent of the industrial community. It's low competitive strength and weakness is most felt in the field of marketing. The small scale women's Industrial units are dispersed all over the country, often away from the major marketing centres

3. Staley, . Eugene and Morse, Richard, op.cit., p.372.

4. Vepa, Ram, K. op.cit., pp. 250-251.

and they normally do not have the technical firmness in production to face stiff competition from medium and large scale industries. The major activities relating to marketing are product research, planning, pricing, fixing distribution channels, packaging, transporting, advertising and other sales promotion efforts. Women's industries have only meagre financial resources, to implement effective marketing policies. With their limited resources the small scale units are not in a position to spend the money required for proper marketing research or advertising. Leading distributors cannot take up the products of these units because the brands of women's industrial products are not popular, the commission is low and moreover the supply will be irregular because production process may not be smooth due to scarcity of capital and raw materials.

For 74 of the 121 (61.16%) considered, marketing was the first difficulty. For 37 respondents it was the second difficulty and for 12 the third difficulty. Of the 74 who complained about marketing difficulty 36 (48.65%) pointed out that it was because of competition from large units, whereas for 25 (33.78%) it was from small units. For 11 units (14.86%) slackness in demand was the major difficulty in marketing. Only two units (2.70%) mentioned that lack of transportation facilities caused them problems in marketing their products (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6 Problems of Marketing Encountered at Present

(N. 121)

Sl. No.	Difficulty	No. of Entrepreneurs for whom it is Difficult		
		Number One	Number Two	Number Three
1.	Competition from small units	25	13	3
2.	Competition from large units	36	12	-
3.	Slackness in demand	11	5	4
4.	Price control	-	6	3
5.	Problem of transport	2	1	2
Total units facing the problem of marketing		74	37	12

Source : Survey Data

The women's industrial units face tough competition from their fellow units. About 56 per cent of the miscellaneous units (10 out of 16) face stiff competition either from large units or smaller ones (Table 6.7). All except radio assembling units, clinical laboratories and engineering works suffer stiff competition. The consumers are often attracted by fantastic advertisements which involve huge amounts of money and small scale units cannot adopt this tactics. There are large and medium industries which produce the same article that is produced in a small scale unit. As the

Table 6.7 Problems of Marketing Encountered at Present : Number one Difficulty
(N. 121)

Trade	Number One Difficulty							Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units	Total Units
	Competition from small Units	Competition from large Units	Slackness in demand	Problem of Transport	Slackness in demand	Problem of Transport	Competition from large Units			
Food Industries	3	5	-	-	-	-	8	4	12	
Ready-made Garments	8	14	3	1	3	1	26	13	39	
Printing & Book Binding	3	4	2	-	2	-	9	9	18	
Match Dipping	-	2	-	1	-	1	3	1	4	
Candle	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	3	5	
Chemical Industries	-	1	1	-	1	-	2	1	3	
Handicrafts	-	1	3	-	3	-	4	-	4	
Radio Assembling	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	
Rubber Industries	3	2	-	-	-	-	5	-	5	
Clinical Laboratories	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	
Engineering Works	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	2	3	
Handloom Textiles	2	1	1	-	1	-	4	-	4	
Miscellaneous	4	6	-	-	-	-	10	6	16	
Total	25	36	11	2	11	2	74	47	121	

Source : Survey Data

large and medium industries are well equipped with modern sophisticated machines and advanced production system, the cost of production per unit happens to be very low when compared with indigeneous production methods of small scale units. Hence the larger units can sell their products at a lesser price resulting in the ousting of small units from the field.

Among the 11 (out of 74) units that complained of slackness in demand, there are three ready-made garment units, two printing units, one chemical unit, three handicraft units, one engineering works and one handloom textile unit. The reason may be that entrepreneurs plunge into production without looking into the key questions - the size and nature of the market, the demand - supply outlook, location and characteristics of potential customers and the level and nature of promotional efforts to harness the market potential. But Joseph E. Stepanek is of the opinion that, many of the problems of marketing can be solved by the individual entrepreneur manager⁵.

Inspite of Government purchase policy, railways, post and telegraph and state electricity board: enter into contracts with large units, who offer lower price without any negotiations with the small scale units who had quoted against tenders. Women entrepreneurs are of opinion that Government should purchase their products and departmental work should be given to their printing and book binding units.

5. Stepanek, Joseph E., Managers for Small Industry : An International Study, Asia publishing House, New Delhi, 1962, pp. 71-72.

6.6 Raw Materials

Difficulties in getting scarce raw materials is a perennial problem for women entrepreneurs. The non-availability of raw materials both indigenous and imported is a major handicap which has seriously retarded the growth of women's industries in the State. The raw material problems might be on account of scarcity of raw materials or its high price or low quality. Sometimes there may be transport bottlenecks or some other difficulties. It is to be examined which of these difficulties are worrying the entrepreneurs more.

Tables 6.8 and 6.9 show an overview of the problems of raw materials in depth. Of the 68 enterprises out of 121 (56%) marked number one difficulty of raw materials, more than half of them (38 out of 68) were sore at high prices. Another one-third of them (23 out of 68) complained of scarcity. Only three enterprises were critical of the quality of raw material and one enterprise faced transport bottleneck. Another three were worried about the irregular supply of raw materials. Thirty two entrepreneurs mentioned second difficulty in raw materials. Of them, 14 were unhappy about high prices, six of low quality and nine of irregular supply. Three units complained transport bottleneck. Only eight entrepreneurs complained third difficulty in raw materials, where, six units complained of irregular supply.

Altogether 23 units reported to be facing the problem of scarcity of raw materials. Most of these units are either ready-made garments, printing and book binding or miscellaneous industries (4,4 and 6 respectively). Of the remaining nine units, two are candle units, three radio assembling

units and one each from food products, match dipping, handicrafts and engineering works.

Table 6.8 Problems of Raw Materials Encountered at Present

(N. 121)

Sl. No.	Difficulty	No. of Entrepreneurs for Whom it is Difficult		
		Number One	Number Two	Number Three
1.	Scarcity	23	-	-
2.	High prices	38	14	-
3.	Low quality	3	6	1
4.	Irregular supply	3	9	6
5.	Problem of transport	1	3	1
Total units facing the problem of raw materials		68	32	8

Source : Survey Data

High prices of raw materials ranks first in the problem of raw materials encountered at present. Fourteen ready-made garment units i.e. nearly 36 per cent of the total ready-made garment units are worried about high prices. Other units remarked high prices of raw materials as the number one difficulty as follows : six food products units, five rubber products,

Table 6.9 Problems of Raw Materials Encountered at Present : Number One Difficulty
(N. 121)

Trade	Number One Difficulty							Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units	Total Units
	Scarcity	High Price	Low Quality	Irregular Supply	Problem of Transport	Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units			
Food Industries	1	6	-	-	-	7	5	12		
Ready-Made Garments	4	14	-	1	-	19	20	39		
Printing & Book Binding	4	4	1	-	-	9	9	18		
Match Dipping	1	3	-	-	-	4	-	4		
Candle	2	1	1	1	-	5	-	5		
Chemical Industries	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3		
Handicrafts	1	3	-	-	-	4	-	4		
Radio Assembling	3	-	-	1	-	4	1	5		
Rubber Industries	-	5	-	-	-	5	-	5		
Clinical Laboratories	-	1	-	-	-	1	2	3		
Engineering Works	1	-	-	-	-	1	2	3		
Handloom Textiles	-	-	-	-	1	1	3	4		
Miscellaneous	6	1	1	-	-	8	8	16		
Total	23	38	3	3	1	68	53	121		

Source : Survey Data

four printing and book binding units, three each of match dipping and handicraft units, and one each of candle making units, clinical laboratories and miscellaneous units. Keeping aside the problems of high prices and scarcity, other problems of raw materials are few and far between giving no clue for any inferences as such. They are low quality (3 units), irregular supply (3 units) and transport problem (1 unit).

From further analysis, it is clear that all the three chemical units have no raw material problem. All the four match dipping units, five candle units, four handicraft units and five rubber products have raw material problem in one way or the other. Nearly 50 per cent of the ready-made garment units, printing and book binding and miscellaneous units complained of raw material problem. Raw materials poses problems to 56.20 per cent units or 43.80 per cent are free from raw material problem.

There are certain units whose raw materials are scarce in the market. The Government is distributing scarce materials at fair prices to the units. This system is not so effective since no unit can get adequate quantity of raw materials through this fair price system and whatever is distributed do not reach the units in time. Economically well off units can approach the open market for the raw materials but as the price level is so high, the tiny units cannot afford to have it from the open market. Thus the scarcity of raw materials hampers the smooth functioning of the unit. As a result of the scarcity of raw materials coupled with the shortage of capital, many of the units have to be closed down very often.

6.7 Power

So far as power is concerned the problems were fewer compared to finance, marketing and raw materials. But at the time of survey (September-December 1987) there was power scarcity in the State. So it is worth while to look into the different aspects of the problem of power supply. About 47 per cent (58 out of 121) of the units reported number one difficulty of power (Table 6.10). Of the 58 units, 37 (63.79%) complained of uncertainty of power supply, 17 (29.31%) of scarcity of power and four (6.90%) of high cost.

Table 6.10 Problems of Power Encountered at Present
(N. 121)

Sl. No.	Difficulty	No. of Units Facing Problem	
		Number One	Number Two
1.	Scarcity	17	1
2.	Uncertainty	37	10
3.	High Cost	4	2
Total units facing the problem of power		58	13

Source : Survey Data

From Table 6.11 it is clear that among the 37 units that complained of uncertainty of power, there are nine ready-made garment units, seven printing and book binding units, two units each from chemicals, rubber products, clinical laboratory and handloom textiles, one each from engineering works and miscellaneous. Three candle units are worried about power cut. Handicraft and radio assembling units have no complaint about power cut.

Among the 17 units that reported scarcity of power as a major draw back, there are four units each from printing and book binding and miscellaneous, two each from ready-made garments and radio assembling units and one each from rubber products and chemical industrial units. Match dipping, candle, handicraft, clinical laboratory, engineering works and textiles units have no complaint about scarcity of power. Three food products units complained of serious power scarcity. Two units each from ready-made garments and printing and book binding units complained of high cost of power. All match dipping and chemical units are facing power problem in one way or the other.

Only thirteen units reported number two difficulty of power (Table 6.10). Of this 76.92 per cent (10 units) complained of uncertainty of power. The entrepreneurs often complain about undue hardships and difficulties to get power connection for their units. Generally women entrepreneurs are of opinion that electricity may be supplied to them free of cost.

Table 6.11 Problems of Power Encountered at Present : Number One Difficulty

(N. 121)

Trade	Number One Difficulty					Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units	Total Units
	Scarcity	Uncertainty	High Cost					
Food Industries	3	4	-	7	5	12		
Ready-made Garments	2	9	2	13	26	39		
Printing & Book Binding	4	7	2	13	5	18		
Match Dipping	-	4	-	4	-	4		
Candle	-	3	-	3	2	5		
Chemical Industries	1	2	-	3	-	3		
Handicrafts	-	-	-	-	4	4		
Radio Assembling	2	-	-	2	3	5		
Rubber Industries	1	2	-	3	2	5		
Clinical Laboratories	-	2	-	2	1	3		
Engineering Works	-	1	-	1	2	3		
Handloom Textiles	-	2	-	2	2	4		
Miscellaneous	4	1	-	5	11	16		
Total	17	37	4	58	63	121		

Source : Survey Data

6.8 Labour

Kerala is often described as a problem State in respect of industrial relations. It is one of the very few states in India where strongly organised labour unions exist. There seems to be a correlation between trade union growth and the growth of industrial disputes in the State. In a recent report of the High level committee of the State Planning Board (1984)⁶ it is stated : "While employment creation has been slow due to low investment and low rate of growth, especially in industry, trade union movements backed by political parties organised agitations and successfully pushed up the wages and the other emoluments of the labour employed in the organised sector. For many years the labour agitations in the State and the situation created in the industries, as a result of such agitations, was cited as one of the main reasons why industrialist both from within and outside the State were shy to invest in the State".

During 1975-79 Kerala ranked only second to West Bengal in the loss of mandays in the organised sector of the country with an average of 265 days lost for every 100 workers. The figure for West Bengal was 507 and the all India average was 146. In 1981 the position improved to some extent but still the State is ranked third in terms of mandays lost per 100 workers in the organised sector⁷. It was indicated that cheap labour and peaceful atmosphere are the most significant factors influencing the entrepreneurs

6. Report of the High Level Committee on Industry, Trade and Power, op.cit., p.110.

7. Ibid.

decision for locating the units outside Kerala⁸.

In this context, it is worth while to have an indepth study of the problems of labour encountered by the women entrepreneurs in Kerala. Surprisingly, not even a single woman entrepreneur mentioned unionisation of labour and the resultant loss of mandays. In the units surveyed, only 22 per cent (27 out of 121) complained labour as their number one difficulty (Table 6.12). Of this 16 entrepreneurs (59.26%) reported want of trained labour and seven units (25.93%) mentioned the problem of absenteeism and in the case of four units (14.81%) it was labour turnover problem. Trade-wise analysis of the problem (Table 6.13) clearly shows that five ready-made garments units, six miscellaneous units, three printing and book binding units and one each from chemical industry and match dipping units complained want of trained labour. Two ready-made garment units complained turnover problem and four printing and book binding units are worried about absenteeism of labour.

Only six units reported labour as number two difficulty and all of them complained absenteeism of labour (Table 6.12).

8. Oommen M.A., "Mobility of Small Scale Entrepreneurs : A Kerala Experience", Indian Journal of Industrial Relations, Vol. 17, No. 1 July 1981.

Table 6.12 Problems of Labour Encountered at Present

(N. 121)

Sl. No.	Difficulty	No. of Entrepreneurs for whom it is Difficult	
		Number One	Number Two
1.	Training	16	-
2.	Unionisation	-	-
3.	Turnover	4	-
4.	Absenteeism	7	6
Total units facing the problem of Labour		27	6

Source : Survey Data

Absence of unionisation in these units leads to two inferences. One, the predominantly women labourers (75% to 90% are women labourers) are not strong enough to organise strikes for higher wages and better working facilities. They may be afraid of loss of job and the difficulty in getting an alternative employment. In Kerala limited job opportunities and high literacy rates both for men and women, prove a Hercullian task to the unemployed to find out a job, especially for the women folk. They may be forced to work for low wages. Only a very small portion of the employees (1%) get a

Table 6.13 Problems of Labour Encountered at Present: Number One Difficulty
(N. 121)

Trade	Number One Difficulty			Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units	Total Units
	Training	Turnover	Absenteeism			
Food Industries	-	1	-	1	11	12
Ready-made Garments	5	2	-	7	32	39
Printing & Book Binding	3	-	4	7	11	18
Match Dipping	1	-	1	2	2	4
Candle	-	-	1	1	4	5
Chemical Industries	1	-	-	1	2	3
Handicrafts	-	-	-	-	4	4
Radio Assembling	-	-	-	-	5	5
Rubber Industries	-	-	-	-	5	5
Clinical Laboratories	-	-	-	-	3	3
Engineering Works	-	-	-	-	3	3
Handloom Textiles	-	1	-	1	3	4
Miscellaneous	6	-	1	7	9	16
Total	16	4	7	27	94	121

Source : Survey Data

reasonable income that is above Rs.500 per month⁹. Perhaps, women workers think that it is better to have something than nothing. Secondly, the women entrepreneurs may be able to manage the problems of the labourers without the interference of trade unions. Women entrepreneurs today are self-assured and able to withstand all risks and are efficient managers. Inherent qualities of patience and perseverance of women help them in dealing with labour and hence labour troubles are rare in enterprises managed by women¹⁰.

6.9 Technical and Managerial Guidance

Coming to the problem of technical and managerial guidance, altogether 25 (20.66%) units reported that as the number one difficulty (Table 6.14). Of this, twelve units (48%) complained non-availability of skilled workers. This category includes (Table 6.15) four ready-made garment units, three miscellaneous units, two units each from textiles, printing and book binding and one food product unit. Eight units (32%) reported ineffective consultancy services provided by the Government agencies. In this group there are two ready-made garment units and one each from printing and book binding, food products, match dipping, clinical laboratory, handloom textiles and miscellaneous units. One chemical unit criticised the expensive consultancy service provided by the private agencies. Three food product

9. Study on Women's Industrial Programme in Kerala, op.cit., p.13.

10. Vinze, M.D., op.cit. p.116.

units and one match dipping unit complained of non-availability of proficient managers. All the candle units, handicraft units, radio assembling units and engineering works are free from the problems of technical and managerial assistance.

Table 6.14 Problems of Technical and Managerial Assistance Encountered at Present (N. 121)

Sl. No.	Difficulty	No. of Entrepreneurs for whom it is Difficult	
		Number One	Number Two
1.	Ineffective consultancy service	8	-
2.	Expensive consultancy service provided by the private agencies	1	1
3.	Non-availability of skilled workers	12	1
4.	Non-availability of proficient managers	4	1
Total units facing the problem of technical and managerial assistance		25	3

Source : Survey Data

Table 6.15 Problems of Technical and Managerial Assistance Encountered at Present : Number One Difficulty
(N. 121)

Trade	Number One Difficulty					Total Units Facing the Difficulty	No Difficulty Units	Total Units
	Ineffective Consultancy Service	Expensive Consultancy Service provided by the Private agencies	Non-availability of Skilled Workers	Non-availability of Proficient Manager				
Food Industries	1	-	1	3	5	7	12	
Ready-made Garments	2	-	4	-	6	33	39	
Printing & Book Binding	1	-	2	-	3	15	18	
Match Dipping	1	-	-	1	2	2	4	
Candle	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	
Chemical Industries	-	1	-	-	1	2	3	
Handicrafts	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	
Radio Assembling	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	
Rubber Industries	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	
Clinical Laboratories	1	-	-	-	1	2	3	
Engineering Works	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	
Handloom Textiles	1	-	2	-	3	1	4	
Miscellaneous	1	-	3	-	4	12	16	
Total	8	1	12	4	25	96	121	

Source : Survey Data

A large number of respondents pointed out that there is no co-ordination between financing agencies and the assistance does not reach the units in time. The grant, subsidy, loan, etc. which are now being given reach nowhere when compared to their financial commitments. A majority of them demand raising the financial assistance to reasonable level. In short need based finances should be made available to these units at appropriate times. There should be provision for liberal security restrictions to give loans on lower rates of interest and recovery in easy and longer instalments.

Women entrepreneurs are given a tough time by the department of taxation, customs and excise, factory inspectorate, local municipal authorities and other government departments. Harassment of sales tax officials make the entrepreneur step in the concerned offices a dozen times. Many of them complained of unnecessary delay in the government offices with regard to sanctioning the project, power connections, licenses, etc. They also pointed out that no correct information are given from the DIC's. Everybody demanded modification of sales tax rules in favour of women's industries programme : or even sales tax exemption.

A few respondents are of opinion that Entrepreneurship Development Programme (EDP) conducted in Kerala is not satisfactory. EDP consists of only selection of entrepreneurs, imparting training in management, business opportunity guidance and selection of project. But guidance and counselling for financial assistance, getting sanction of loan, selection and securing of suitable location, governmental approvals, registration under various

statutes etc. are not given to the newly emerging entrepreneurs. "For being successful in Indian business environment, what we need is not just a simple two stage EDP model with only the first two stages of pre-training (selection) and training, but an integrated EDP model with three stages, the third stage consisting of follow-up and supportive counselling to ensure that the enterprise actually gets started despite the discouraging socio-economic environment"¹¹.

Though women are no less than men, they need special consideration and assistance as they have to face additional attitudinal problems and have to bear added responsibility of home and children. Many respondents remarked that it is difficult for them to travel around for raw material and marketing as they have to take care of children. So government should help them in procuring scarce raw materials from outside the state and marketing the products. A few entrepreneurs doubt whether they are getting less work because they are women and competition is from units run by men.

Thus, women entrepreneurs face a plethora of problems. The problems may differ from place to place, between one industry group and another, and within one occupational group of entrepreneurs. Even within a specified class of enterprises and entrepreneurs, the problems may differ from enterprise to enterprise or entrepreneur to entrepreneur. The problems may be multi-dimensional relating to finance, raw materials, marketing power, labour, technical and managerial guidance and state policy.

11. Oza, A.N., "Integrated Entrepreneurship Development Programmes, The Indian Experience", Economic and Political Weekly, Vol.XXIII, No.22, May 28, 1988, p. M.75.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

It is widely recognised that industrialisation holds the key to rapid economic development. Industrialisation cannot be achieved without developing entrepreneurship. During the past three decades considerable efforts have been made in India to promote and develop entrepreneurship.

During the plan periods several policy measures were taken by the Central and State Governments to lend active official support to the small industries sector. Promotion and development of small industries involve development of entrepreneurship. The present attempt to study the varied aspects of women entrepreneurship in the industrial manufacturing sector of Kerala has to be seen against this background.

Women in Kerala are generally well educated and emancipated. They have been seeking gainful employment in various fields. Many women have turned to self-employment and entrepreneurship as a means of employment, economic independence, social status and better standard of living. More and more women are entering the industrial scenario and establishing enterprises of their own. The Government has provided a policy frame, established institutions and also activated developmental programmes to identify, train and support promising entrepreneurs. In such a background it was decided to select women entrepreneurs as the subject of this dissertation. Not only that, there are only very few studies on women

entrepreneurship or enterprises in Kerala. Even the available literature does not focus sufficiently on the varied aspects of women entrepreneurship.

In the present study, an attempt has been made to present the origin and growth of women entrepreneurship in Kerala in a historical perspective. The study tries to provide a better understanding of the socio-economic background of women entrepreneurs. A concrete analysis of the different factors motivating them to start industries has also been undertaken on the basis of empirical data. Some specific indices of the economic viability of the units have been worked out and certain problems facing women entrepreneurs are studied.

The emergence of women entrepreneurs in Kerala is an event related to International Women's Year. The international women's decade, 1975-85 witnessed a spurt of women entrepreneurs in Kerala. They have entered into both traditional and modern sectors. There are 1143 women's industrial units in Kerala as on 31st March 1987. Majority of the units are sole proprietary concerns. There are enough institutional network to extend assistance and training to women entrepreneurs.

This is an exploratory study based on sample survey. As secondary source of information is insufficient to explain the different aspects of women entrepreneurship in Kerala, relevant primary data have been collected from 121 selected women entrepreneurs.

7.1 Definitional Problem

There is no clarity of definition of Women's Industrial Units in Kerala (See 1.5). It is necessary to define each category of women entrepreneurs and develop support systems and government assistance for each category, for each group, according to their background and skill. The Government has to chalk out an effective policy regarding the quantum of financial assistance - fixed and working capital - subsidy, technical know-how, skill development, managerial assistance, marketing, etc. This will provide data base for future planning. An advantage of this classification* is that one can differentiate modern small scale industries from the traditional ones. It would be also helpful in finding out the training needs of each category and designing entrepreneurship development programmes.

7.2 Socio-Economic Background of Women Entrepreneurs

7.2.1 Community

In Kerala, there is the co-existence of different communities based on religion and castes. Although Christians constitute only 21 per cent of the population in Kerala, one-third of the women entrepreneurs are drawn from the Christian community. The emergence of SC/ST women as

* There is scope for further study on classification of entrepreneurs and self-employment.

entrepreneurs is a noteworthy trend. Muslim and Brahmin entrepreneurs are comparatively less. It is found that no single community group is engaged in all the different trade lines. During 1981-85 entrepreneurs from different communities and occupations entered into industrial ventures in a big way. But, Christian women entrepreneurs have proved to be more enterprising. The majority of the entrepreneurs is in the age group of 30-40.

7.2.2 Occupation

About 55 per cent women entrepreneurs are housewives. Only four per cent of the women entrepreneurs have business as their previous occupation. Nearly 14 per cent of the women entrepreneurs who were previously white-collar workers entered into industrial ventures. Women entrepreneurs' fathers/husbands are generally found to be white-collar workmen and businessmen. Only very few women entrepreneurs come from agricultural families. Largely, business women in the age group of 36-40 seem to be starting new ventures. Few women who were on business or white-collar jobs entered industry before the age of 25. Housewives have ventured into almost all trade lines except engineering works. Those who were earlier tailors settled themselves in ready-made garments business.

7.2.3 Education

The study indicates that most of the women entrepreneurs are fairly literate. About 37 per cent of the entrepreneurs' fathers/husbands

have higher levels of education. None of the entrepreneurial castes are placed in a disadvantageous position with regard to education. It is interesting to note that even women entrepreneurs coming from relatively underprivileged community groups seem to be possessing a reasonable level of education. Of the eight SC/ST women entrepreneurs in the sample, excepting two, all the others are well educated. The older the units, the lower the educational level of the entrepreneurs. Highly qualified entrepreneurs are mostly seen in 26-30 age groups. Of the entrepreneurs, the technically qualified ones have started units connected with their own fields of education.

7.2.4 Economic Status

The study has further revealed that most of the respondents are from semi-urban background. Generally, women entrepreneurs belong to the broader category of the middle-class. The average annual earnings of 64 per cent of fathers/husbands of women entrepreneurs, at the starting of the unit were less than Rs.12,000/-; only 14 per cent had incomes above Rs.20,000/-. A majority of the women entrepreneurs does not hail from joint families. One-fourth of the women entrepreneurs manages the financial needs of the family exclusively by drawing money from the unit whenever necessary. A good number of the entrepreneurs is satisfied with the present engagement. However, it is worth noting that about 30 per cent of the women entrepreneurs are ready to quit the present engagement if they get a permanent job. As far as the perception of the respondents regarding their

social status as an entrepreneur and their status with men at home in decision making are concerned, they are fairly satisfied.

7.3 Motivating Factors

To have an independent economic status is the foremost ambition which led women to industry. A desire to earn money and to engage oneself fully are also decisive factors. A little more than one-third of the women entrepreneurs firmly believe that they are the product of self-development. Unemployment is reported to be the compelling factor that has driven most of the entrepreneurs to business ventures. Encouragement of the family is rated as the most important factor facilitating entrepreneurship. The influence of the success stories of the entrepreneurs and their own previous experience in manufacturing are also significant. Expectation of financial assistance from the State Government agencies is another important stimulating factor. The ease with which an enterprise could be started influenced much in their choice of trade lines and they prefer to start their units in their home town or near home.

7.4 Profile of the Enterprises

7.4.1 Capital Structure of Units

A majority of the units surveyed is tiny in terms of capital investment, labour employed and sales turnover. Trade-wise average investment per unit is the highest in engineering works and the lowest in

clinical laboratories. Out of the 121 units surveyed, 103 utilised loan facilities provided by State agencies and nationalised banks. The percentage of loan to investment is the highest in chemical units and the lowest in engineering units. While the units are taken together nearly 39 per cent of the total investment comes from the entrepreneurs themselves. Nearly, 61 per cent of the units got subsidy in the form of machinery-grant, managerial salary, interest-subsidy, margin-money etc. Subsidy constitutes only 8 per cent of the total investment in the women's industrial units. The percentage of subsidy to investment is the highest in ready-made garment units and the lowest in engineering units. Very few units have ancillary relationships. Many of the units are working in all seasons. Only one-sixth of the units have sister concerns.

7.4.2 Employment

Of the 121 units studied, 100 firms employ less than 10 workers each. Only five units employ more than 40 persons each. Average employment per unit is the highest in handloom textiles and the lowest in clinical laboratories. Charitable institutions account for the largest quantum of employment per unit and the joint-stock company the smallest. The average employment per unit is 10.88 of which 9.71 are women. Investment labour ratio is the highest in engineering units and the lowest in handloom textiles.

7.4.3 Sales Turnover (Monthly)

Sales turnover-labour ratio is the highest in engineering units. This is followed by chemical and rubber products. Labour productivity in food products, printing and book binding, chemicals, rubber products and engineering works is higher than that in other trade lines. Food products, ready-made garments and rubber products have higher levels of productivity reckoned in terms of investment than the average for all the products. Sales turnover-investment ratio of engineering units is the same for all the units taken together. Sales turnover per unit is the highest in engineering units and the lowest in clinical laboratories. When the investment-sales turnover ratio is considered, the match dipping units rank first and the food products units the last. A good proportion of the firms is running either on profit or on no loss no profit basis.

7.5 Problems Facing Women Entrepreneurs

The individual women entrepreneur faces a number of problems. The problems are multi-dimensional relating to finance, marketing, raw materials, power, labour, technical and managerial guidance and state policy. Trade-wise analysis of the problem shows that no trade is free from financial problems. Eighty per cent of the women entrepreneurs face financial difficulty. About 61 per cent have marketing problems, 56 per cent face raw material problems, 48 per cent have power problems and 20 per cent complained of lack of technical and managerial assistance. Not even a single

women entrepreneur mentioned unionisation of labour in their units and the resultant loss of mandays. Many of them complained of unnecessary delay in the Government offices in sanctioning the project, loans and subsidies and in getting power connections, licences, etc.

Among the suggestions to improve these units, avoiding delay in sanctioning the loans or other financial helps and raising the quantum of such help are the most important. Regarding the raw materials problems, it is suggested that a need based distribution will be more effective. Scarce raw materials of the required quality should be distributed to them at the right time in sufficient quantity and at fair prices. Subsidies for propaganda and advertisement can stimulate the sale of the products. Periodical inspection of the units by the technical staff of the department to give necessary guidance can improve the functioning of the units. Liberal security conditions, interest subsidies for those units who avail of loan at higher rates of interest etc. can go a long way towards the betterment of these units.

There is the need for an integrated scheme for the growth of women entrepreneurship in Kerala. An institution exclusively for women to satisfy their different needs as industrialists, timely and sufficient finance, need based distribution of scarce raw materials, inclusion of more products of women's industrial units under Government's stores purchase programme, a sustained entrepreneurship development programme, liberal security

conditions and easy mode of repayment of loan, etc. can stimulate the growth of women entrepreneurship in Kerala.

The study indicates a number of new areas for further research. The study sheds light on the factors influencing policy formulations pertaining to better organisation of women's enterprises as an effective support system in the process of Kerala's industrialisation.

WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN KERALA

SCHEDULE OF QUESTIONS

Part - I

A. Identification Particulars

1. Name of the Entrepreneur :
2. Name and Address of the Unit :
3. Form of Organisation :
 - a) Sole Proprietorship
 - b) Partnership
 - c) Joint-Stock Company
 - d) Charitable Institution
 - e) Co-operative Society
4. Year of Commencement of Production :

B. Profile of the Entrepreneur

1. Age (at commencement of the enterprise) :
2. Educational Qualifications :
3. Religion & Caste : Christian/Nair/Ezhava/Muslim/Brahmin/SC/ST/Others.

4. Marital Status (at the starting of the unit) :
5. If married, No. of children : Below 5 years Above 5 years
6. Whether you are living in a joint family or an independent family : Joint Family Independent Family
7. No. of family members : Male Female
8. Native Place
- i) If migrated, year of migration :
- ii) Reasons for migration :
9. Previous Occupation :
10. Educational qualifications of your father/husband :
11. i) What is/was the occupation of your father/husband :
- ii) What is/was the annual earnings of your father/husband from all sources : a) Less than Rs.12,000/-
: b) Rs.12,000 - Rs.20,000/-
: c) Above Rs.20,000/-
- iii) Did father's/husband's transfer affect your business : YES/NO
- iv) Do your father/husband help you in business : YES/NO
- v) If 'Yes' in which way : a) Advice
b) Moral support
c) Finance
d) Any other
(Please specify)

12. Did business adversely affect your family life : YES/NO
13. Have you got equal status with men at home in decision making? : YES/NO
14. Do you have domestic help : YES/NO
15. Did you face any resistance from your family members while establishing the unit : a) Full support
b) Support
c) Neutral
d) Opposition
e) Tough opposition
16. Your social status as an entrepreneur : a) Increased
: b) Decreased
c) Same
17. Do you think that you are secure by becoming an entrepreneur : YES/NO
18. Do you think it is better than a permanent job : YES/NO
19. Will you quit this engagement if you will get a permanent job : YES/NO
20. Are you able to manage your unit? : YES/NO
21. Are you satisfied with your present engagement? : YES/NO
22. i) Are you a member of any women's organisations? : YES/NO

- ii) If 'Yes' give the name of :
the organisation
23. How much of your time is : a) 8 hrs. or more
devoted to your enterprise? b) 6-8 hrs.
c) Less than 6 hrs.
24. How much time is devoted to your enterprise by other members of your family? Also give the details of emoluments drawn by them as salary:

Sl. No.	Family Member	Time Devoted	Nature of Duties	Emoluments per Month
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				

25. What are the emoluments (per month) drawn by you as salary from the enterprise? Rs.
26. How do you manage your family?
- a) Out of separate earnings
- b) Out of the earnings of the enterprises drawing a fixed amount
- i) Annually
- ii) Monthly
- iii) Whenever necessary

27. In which income group you belong to :

- a) Lower income group
- b) Middle income group
 - i) Lower middle income group
 - ii) Higher middle income group
- c) Higher income group

C. Motivational and Facilitating Factors

1. Which of the following ambitions influenced you in conceiving the idea to start the industrial unit? Specify not more than three ambitions in the order of importance.

- a) To earn money
- b) To gain independent economic status
- c) Due to encouragement of my father / my husband
- d) To gain higher social status
- e) To engage oneself fully

2. Which of the following compelling reasons influenced you in conceiving the idea? Specify not more than three reasons in the order of importance?

- a) Unemployment
- b) Dissatisfaction with the job so far held/occupation so far pursued
- c) To make use of idle funds

- d) Diversification of economic interest
 - e) Any other compelling reason
(Please specify)
3. Did any of the following factors lead you to the idea of starting the unit? Specify not more than three factors in the order of importance:
- a) Success stories of entrepreneurs
 - b) Previous experience in manufacturing/ industry
 - c) Property - inherited/acquired/husbands
 - e) Acquired or inherited professional and technical skills
 - f) Any other factors (Please specify)
4. Which of the following expectations stimulated your desire to set up the unit? Specify not more than three factors in the order of importance.
- a) Allotment of plot/shed in an industrial area
 - b) Financial Assistance
 - i) The State Govt./Financial Corporations/ Nationalised Banks/Other State Agencies
 - ii) Private Commercial Banks
 - iii) Family members/relatives/friends
 - c) Technical assistance from the Govt./ Non-Govt. agencies
 - d) Assistance from the Govt. agencies in :
 - i) Supply of machinery
 - ii) Supply of raw materials
 - iii) Sale of finished products

- e) Securing ancillary relations with a large firm
 - f) Availability of skilled labour
 - g) Enlisting the support of a dependable
 - h) Any other expectations
(Please specify)
5. Why do you choose this line of industry? Specify three reasons in the order of importance :
- a) Easy to set up
 - b) High margin of profit
 - c) No competition
 - d) Related to the profession or occupation pursued so far
 - e) No difficulty in securing technical know-how
 - f) Existence of similar industry in the neighbourhood
 - g) Any other reasons
(Please specify)
6. Why do you selected this location. (Specify three reasons in the order of importance).
- a) Availability of a plot/shed in the Industrial Estates
 - b) Nearness to raw materials
 - c) Nearness to markets
 - d) Home town or nearness to native place

- e) Existence of similar units in the neighbourhood
- f) Any other reason
(Please specify)

7. Whom do you describe, if any, as your friend, philosopher and guide who shaped your destiny as an entrepreneur?

<u>Name of the Person</u>	<u>Type of Relationship</u>	<u>Nature of Assistance</u>
i)		
ii)		
iii)		

Part - II

Profile of the Unit (Nature of the Unit)

A. Origin and Growth of the Enterprise

1. Whether established under any scheme : YES/NO
If 'Yes', which scheme
2. i) Whether it is an ancillary unit : YES/NO
ii) If 'Yes', mention the name and address
of the parent unit :
3. Nature of enterprise :
 - a) All seasons (ie. throughout the year)
 - b) Seasonal

4. Products Manufactured or Services Rendered :
- | | Main Product | Other products | Processing | Job Working | Repairing Servicing |
|---------------------------------|--------------|----------------|------------|-------------|---------------------|
| i) at the time of establishment | | | | | |
| ii) at present | | | | | |
5. Nature of factory building:
- Newly built
 - Owned
 - Rented
 - Part of a house
 - Plot or shed in the industrial estates
6. Management
- Did you attend any Management Development Programme/Entrepreneur Development Programme? YES/NO
 - Give the details of courses attended :
 - Pre-training
 - Post-training
 - If you have attended, do you think that they are useful to your enterprise in any way? : Very useful/Useful/Not very useful/Not useful/Can't say.

iv) If you have not attended what were the reasons. Rank the reasons:

- a) Not aware of the programme
- b) Do not think they are useful
- c) They are very expensive
- d) It is inconvenient
- e) Any other reasons (Please specify)

v) Experience/Training

	<u>Management</u>	<u>Manufacturing</u>	<u>Marketing/Sales</u>	<u>Accounts</u>
i) Length of experience prior to starting the unit (in months)	_____	_____	_____	_____
ii) Training undergone (in months)	_____	_____	_____	_____
iii) Is there any paid manager?			YES/NO	

7. A. Business Conditions of Units:

- a) Running on profit
- b) Running on loss
- c) Running on no loss no profit

7. B. a) Is it a sick unit? YES/NO
- b) If 'Yes', Are you getting any rehabilitation facility: YES/NO
- c) Are you expecting any rehabilitation facility? YES/NO

8. A. Do you have any other business : YES/NO
(any sister concern)
- B. Size of the Unit
1. Average number of workers :
employed
2. Sex :
No. of Male : No. of Female
3. Nature of Employment
- a) Permanent
- b) Temporary
- c) Any other (Please specify)
4. Total capital invested
(including borrowings) Rs. _____
5. Amount of loan capital Rs. _____
6. A. Sources of loan capital
- a) Govt. agencies including financial
corporation
- b) Commercial banks
- c) Any other agency (Please specify)
6. B. a) Have you got any subsidy? YES/NO
- b) If 'Yes', how much Rs. _____
7. Sales turnover of the firm : Rs. _____
(monthly)
8. Would you be able to repay the
instalment of loan in time : YES/NO

C. Major Problems Encountered

What major problems are faced by your enterprise today? Specify any three of the following reasons in the order of importance under each head : (Rank)

i) Finance

- a) Shortage of finance for working capital requirements
- b) Shortage of finance for fixed capital requirements
- c) High rate of interest
- d) Red-Tape in Govt. agencies
- e) Meagre assistance from the Govt. agencies
- f) Any other problem
(Please specify)

ii) Raw Materials

- a) Scarcity
- b) High prices
- c) Low quality
- d) Irregular supply
- e) Problem of transport
- f) Any other problems (Please specify)

iii) Marketing

- a) Competition from other small units
- b) Competition from large units

- c) Slackness in demand
- d) Price control
- e) Distribution control
- f) Problem of transport
- g) Any other problem (Please specify)

iv) Power

- a) Scarcity
- b) Uncertainty
- c) High cost
- d) Any other problem (Please specify)

v) Labour

- a) Training
- b) Unionisation
- c) Turnover
- d) Absenteeism
- e) Any other problem (Please specify)

vi) Technical and Managerial Assistance

- a) Ineffective consultancy service
- b) Expensive consultancy service provided by the private agencies
- c) Non-availability of skilled workers
- d) Non-availability of proficient manager
- e) Any other problem (Please specify)

vii) Policies of the Government

Describe the policies of the Government which you think are detrimental to the interest of your enterprise.

D. Do you have any problem as a women entrepreneur?

Give suggestions to over come it.

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