

Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal

Submitted to

The office of the Dean

Faculty of Management

Tribhuvan University

Kathmandu

Submitted by

Minu Sigdel

For the Ph. D. degree in Management

August, 2015

Kathmandu

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the present study on “Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal” is based upon my original work. To the best of my knowledge, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. The result presented in the study have not been submitted, either whole or in parts, at any university or elsewhere for the award of any degree.

Minu Sigdel

August, 2015

SUPERVISOR RECOMMENDATION

I certify that the thesis draft entitled “Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal” submitted by Minu Sigdel to the Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University for Doctor of Philosophy, was completed under my supervision and guidance. This thesis is candidate’s original research work. To the best of my knowledge the candidate has also fulfilled all other requirement of the Ph.D program. I am satisfied with the work done and recommend it for approval and award of the Ph. D degree.

.....

Prof. Dr. Srikrishna Shrestha

Thesis Supervisor

VIVA VOCE SHEET

We have conducted the viva voce examination of the thesis

Submitted by

Minu Sigdel

Entitled

Women entrepreneurship in Nepal

And found the same to be original work of researcher and written according to the prescribed format. We recommend that thesis to be accepted as the fulfillment of the requirement for the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D.) in Management.

Viva Voce Committee

Chairperson

Supervisor

External expert

Internal expert.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to take this opportunity to thank all those who have contributed in course of this research.

I am grateful to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Srikrishna Shrestha for his valuable guidance and support provided to complete my research. Without his continuous guidance it would not have been possible for me to complete this work.

I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Puskar Bajracharya for his invaluable support during the research. I would also like to thank Mr. Akshay Gautam and Mr. Shreedip Sigdel for their support in data analysis. I would also like to thank Mr. Shiva Bol Chhetri, and his staff of Industrial Enterprise Development Institute (IEDI) for helping me in my research by extending all the facility available in their institute.

I am also thankful to the research committee and the dean, faculty of management for providing me an opportunity to pursue my doctoral studies.

My appreciation also goes to Rabi Manandhar Sayami (Dean Office) for his invaluable support. I would also like to thank Mr. Prem Prasai, Public Youth Campus for his editorial support.

I am also thankful to previous researchers who have provided me a strong ground to further the field of study. I am also indebted to the women entrepreneurs who provided me with their valuable information to complete my study.

Last but not least; I want to thank my husband Mr. Harihar Sigdel, daughter Deepshikha Sigdel (Yellaram) and son Shreedip Sigdel for their support throughout the long period of study.

Minu Sigdel

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	i	
Supervisor Recommendation	ii	
Viva Voce	iii	
Acknowledgement	iv	
Table of Contents	v	
List of Tables	xi	
CHAPTER- I: INTRODUCTION		
1.1	General Background	1
1.1.1	Entrepreneurship Development in Nepal	3
1.1.2	Women Entrepreneur Development in Nepal	5
1.2	Statement of the Problems	11
1.3	Objectives of the Study	16
1.4	Theoretical Framework	17
1.5	Rational of the Study	20
1.6	Scope and Limitation of the Study	21
1.7	Structure of the Study	21
CHAPTER- II: REVIEW OF LITERATURES		
2.1	Conceptual Review	22
2.1.1	Concept of Entrepreneurship	22
2.1.2	Concept of women entrepreneurship	31
2.1.3	Profile of Nepalese Women	40
2.1.3.1	Socialization Pattern	42
2.1.3.2	Gender division of labor	43
2.1.3.3	Social Attitudes towards Women's Outside Work.	44
2.1.4	Impact of Socio-cultural Norms on Women Entrepreneur Development	45

2.1.4.1	Low value attached to women's work.	45
2.1.4.2	Low level of confidence	46
2.1.4.3	Double Roles and Responsibilities	47
2.1.4.4	Lack of education & training system	48
2.1.4.5	Financial Constraints	52
2.2	Literature Review	55
2.2.1	Characteristics of Women entrepreneurship	55
2.2.2	Motivation and Management factor for women entrepreneur	64
2.2.3	Intricacies of Women Entrepreneur	76
2.2.4	Nepalese Context	96
2.3	Conclusions	109
CHAPTER- III: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		
3.1	Introduction	110
3.2	Research Design	110
3.3	Nature and Sources of Data	111
3.4	Sample Size and the Sampling Frame	112
3.5	The Questionnaire	114
3.6	Pre-test of the Questionnaire	114
3.7	Data processing and analysis	114
CHAPTER- IV: INSTITUTIONAL AND POLICY MECHANISM FOR PROMOTING WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN NEPAL		
4.1.	Industrial policy of Nepal Impact on Women Enterprise Development (WED)	125
4.2	Impact of Women Entrepreneurship Development (WED) Program and service provided by Different Organization	128
4.2.1	Department of Cottage and Small Industries (DCSI)	130
4.2.2	Cottage and Small Industry Development Board (CSIDB)	134
4.2.3	Industrial Enterprise Development Institute (IEDI)	136
4.2.4	Women Entrepreneurs Association of Nepal (WEAN)	138

4.2.5	Federation of Women Entrepreneur's Associations of Nepal, FWEAN	140
4.2.6	WEAN Multipurpose co-operative	141
4.2.7	Women Co-Operative Society (WCS) Ltd.	142
4.2.8	Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF)	143
4.2.9	Micro enterprise Development Program (MEDEP)	145
4.2.10	Federation of Nepalese chambers of commerce and Industry (FNCCI)	148
4.2.11	Federation of Nepal Cottage and Small Industries (FNCSI)	149
4.2.12	Centre for Self-help Development (CSD)	150
4.2.13	Department of Women Development (DWD)	151
4.2.14	Women for Human Right, Single Women Group (WHR)	153
4.2.15	Federation of Business and Professional Women Nepal (FBPWN)	154
4.3	International Organization in Women Enterprise Development in Nepal	155
4.3.1	SNV Nepal	155
4.3.2	HELVETAS Nepal	155
CHAPTER- V: ATTRIBUTES OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN NEPAL		158
5.1	Influence of Personal Characteristics in Women Entrepreneurship	158
5.1.1.	Influences of Age on Type of Ventures Undertaken	159
5.1.2.	Influence of Age on legal ownership status of business	161
5.1.3	Influence of Age on Sources of Startup Fund	163
5.1.4	Influence of Age on Support to initiate business	165
5.1.5.	Influences of Education on Type of Ventures Undertaken	167
5.1.6.	Influences of Education on legal ownership status of business	169
5.1.7.	Influences of Education on Source of Startup Fund	171
5.1.8.	Influences of Education on Support to Initiate Business	172
5.1.9	Influences of Experience on Type of Ventures Undertaken	173
5.1.10.	Influences of Experience on Legal Ownership Status of Business	174

5.1.11.	Influences of Experience on Source of Startup Fund	176
5.1.12.	Influences of Experience on Support to Initiate Business	177
5.1.13.	Influence of Martial Status on Type of Venture	177
5.1.14.	Influence of Martial Status on Legal Ownership of Business	179
5.1.15.	Influence of Martial Status on Source of Startup Funds	180
5.1.16.	Influence of Martial Status on Support to Initiate Business	181
5.1.17.	Influence of Family Size on Type of Venture	182
5.1.18.	Influence of Family Size on Legal ownership of Business	184
5.1.19.	Influence of Family Size on Source of Startup Fund	185
5.1.20.	Influence of Family Size on Support to Initiate Business	186
5.1.21	Influence of Parental Occupation on Type of Venture	186
5.1.22	Influence of Parental Occupation on Legal Ownership of Business	188
5.1.23	Influence of Parental Occupation on Source of Startup Fund	190
5.1.24	Influence of Parental Occupation on Support to Initiate Business	191
5.1.25	Influence of Type of Training Taken on Type of Venture	192
5.1.26	Influence of Type of Training Taken on Legal ownership of Business	194
5.1.27	Influence of Type of Training Taken on Source of Startup Fund	195
5.1.28	Influence of Type of Training Taken on Support to Initiate Business	196

CHAPTER-VI: MANAGERIAL PRACTICES OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

6.1	Management of Assets	200
6.1.1	Managing Land and Building	200
6.1.2:	Managing Machine/ Equipment	201
6.1.3	Manage Working Capital	203
6.2	Mode of Generation of Business Idea	205
6.3	Employees employed and Type of Business Venture	207
6.4	Consultations with different Institutions	208
6.5	Source of Vision to Start Business	212

6.6	Major Information Collective before Starting Business	216
6.7	Purpose of Venture	219
6.8	Major accomplishment to be achieved	223
CHAPTER- VII: INTRICACIES OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS		228
7.1	Problems Encountered by Women Entrepreneur	229
7.1.1	Problems Encountered during Start up of Business	230
7.1.1.1	Age and Problems Encountered during Start up of Business	231
7.1.1.2	Education and Problem encountered during startup	232
7.1.1.3	Training and Problem encountered during startup	233
7.1.1.4	Family Size and Problem encountered during startup	235
7.1.2	Problems Faced after starting the business by Entrepreneurs	236
7.1.2.1	Age and Problems Faced after Starting the Business	237
7.1.2.2	Education and Problems Faced after starting the business	238
7.1.2.3	Training Taken and Problems Faced after starting the business	239
7.1.2.4	Family Size and Problems Faced after starting the business	240
7.2	Business operation Knowledge	241
7.2.1	Knowledge of Different Aspect of Business	241
7.2.1.1	Age and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business	242
7.2.1.2	Education and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business	242
7.2.1.3	Professional Training and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business	243
7.2.2	Understanding of Government Policies	244
7.2.2.1	Age and Understanding of Government Policies	245
7.2.2.2	Education and Understanding of Government Policies	246
7.2.2.3	Training and Understanding of Government Policies	246
7.2.3	Factors Affecting Business Operation	247
7.2.3.1	Age and Factors Affecting Business Operation	248
7.2.3.2	Education and Factors Affecting Business Operation	249

	7.2.3.3 Training and Factors Affecting Business Operation	249
7.2.4	Contacting with different Institutions	250
	7.2.4.1 Age and Contacting with different Institutions	251
	7.2.4.2 Education and Contacting with different Institutions	252
	7.2.4.3 Training and Contacting with different Institutions	253
7.2.5	Factors that were given attention during the Initial Period of Business	253
	7.2.5.1 Age and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business	254
	7.2.5.2 Education and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business	255
	7.2.5.3 Training and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business	256
7.2.6	Use of Managerial Tools	257
	7.2.6.1 Age and Use of Managerial tools	257
	7.2.6.2 Education and Use of Managerial tools	258
	7.2.6.3 Training and Use of Managerial tools	259
	7.2.6.4 Family size and Use of Managerial tools	260
7.2.7	Time allocated in business	260
	7.2.7.1 Age and Time allocated in business	261
	7.2.7.2 Education and Time allocated in business	262
	7.2.7.3 Training and Time Spending by Women Entrepreneurs	263
7.3	Women entrepreneur View on Critical Success Factors	265
	7.3.1 Age and Critical Success Factor	265
	7.3.2 Education and Critical Success Factor	266
	7.3.3 Training and Critical Success Factor	267
	7.3.4 Family Size and Critical Success Factor	268
7.4	Factors Affecting Women entrepreneurship success in Nepla: Regression Analysis	269

CHAPTER- VIII: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

8.1	Summary	274
8.2	Major Findings	277
8.3	Conclusion	281
8.4	Practical Implications	283
8.5	Implications for Further Studies	284
	Questionnaires of Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal	286
	References	294

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Types of training program & services providing by the respondent organization	51
Table 3.1:	Respondent Profile	112
Table 3.2:	On the basis of education	112
Table 3.3:	On the basis of Training Taken	113
Table 3.4:	On the basis of Family Size	113
Table 4.1:	Steps taken by Nepal Government for the Development of Women	123
Table 4.2:	DCSI Gender Wise Training Participants from FY 2059/60 to 2068/69	132
Table 4.3:	Annual Growth of DCSI Gender Wise Training Participants from FY 2059/60 to 2068/69	133
Table 4.4:	Women Entrepreneurs registered in DCSI in Kathmandu Valley	134
Table 4.5:	Progress achieved by CSIDB	135
Table 4.6:	Training Programme conducted by IEDI since FY 2059/60 to FY 2068/69	137
Table 4.7:	Training Programme Conducted by IEDI for other organization	138
Table 4.8:	Training Program held	152
Table 5.1:	Age of Respondent	159
Table 5.2:	Age and Business Type	160
Table 5.3:	Legal Ownership Status of Business of Respondents	161
Table 5.4:	Age and Legal Ownership of Business	162
Table 5.5:	Sources of Startup Fund	163
Table 5.6:	Age and Source of Start up Fund	164
Table 5.7:	Support to initiate business	165
Table 5.8:	Age and Support to Start Business	166
Table 5.9:	Academic Qualification of the Respondents	168
Table 5.10:	Academic Qualification and Type of Venture	168

Table 5.11:	Education and legal ownership status of business	170
Table 5.12:	Education and Source of Startup Fund	171
Table 5.13:	Education and Support to Initiate Business	172
Table 5.14:	Work Experiences of Respondents	173
Table 5.15:	Experience and Legal Ownership Status of Business	175
Table 5.16:	Experience and Source of Startup Fund	176
Table 5.17:	Marital Status of Respondents	178
Table 5.18:	Martial Status and Type of Venture	178
Table 5.19:	Martial Status and Legal Ownership of Business	179
Table 5.20:	Martial Status and Source of Startup Funds	180
Table: 5.21:	Family Size of Respondents	182
Table 5.22:	Family Size and Type of Venture	183
Table 5.23:	Family Size and Legal ownership of Business	184
Table 5.24:	Family Size and Source of Startup Fund	185
Table: 5.25:	Parental Occupations of respondents	187
Table 5.26:	Parental Occupation and Type of Venture	187
Table 5.27:	Parental Occupation and Legal Ownership of Business	189
Table 5.28:	Parental Occupation and Source of Startup Fund	190
Table 5.29:	Parental Occupation and Support to Initiate Business	192
Table 5.30:	Types of Training taken by Respondents	193
Table 5.31:	Type of Training Taken on Type of Venture	194
Table 5.32:	Training Taken and Source of Startup Fund	195
Table 6.1:	Sources of Fund for the Assets (Land and Bulding)	200
Table 6.2:	Influence of Personal characteristics on managing land and building	199
Table 6.3:	Sources of Fund for Machine and Equipment	202
Table 6.4:	Influence of Personal characteristics on managing machinery and equipment	202
Table 6.5:	Sources of Fund for the Working Capital	203

Table 6.6:	Influence of Personal characteristics on managing Working Capital	204
Table 6.7:	Mode of Generation of Business Idea	205
Table 6.8:	Influence of Personal characteristics on Mode of Generation of Business Idea	206
Table 6.9:	Number of employees employed	207
Table 6.10:	Business Type and Number of Employees	207
Table 6.11:	Sources of Employees	207
Table 6.12:	Number and type of Employees	208
Table 6.13:	Consultations with Different Institutions	209
Table 6.14:	Age and various Institution Visited before starting Business	209
Table 6.15:	Training Taken and various Institution Visited before starting Business	210
Table 6.16:	Education level and various Institution Visited before starting Business	211
Table 6.17:	Source of Vision Developed to Start Business	212
Table 6.18:	Age and Source of Vision to start Business	213
Table 6.19:	Education and Source of Vision to start Business	214
Table 6.20:	Training and Source of Vision to start Business	215
Table 6.21:	Major Information Collective before Starting Business	216
Table 6.22:	Age and Major Information collected before starting their business	217
Table 6.23:	Education and Major Information collected before starting their business	217
Table 6.24:	Training Type and Major Information collected before starting their business	218
Table 6.25:	Purpose of Venture	219
Table 6.26:	Age and Purpose of starting a venture	220
Table 6.27:	Education and Purpose of starting a venture	221
Table 6.28:	Training and Purpose of starting a venture	222
Table 6.29:	Accomplishment to be achieved	223
Table 6.30:	Age and Major accomplishment to be Achieve	224
Table 6.31:	Education and Major accomplishment to be Achieve	225

Table 6.32:	Training Type and Major accomplishment to be Achieve	226
Table 7.1:	Problems Encountered during Start up of Business	230
Table 7.2:	Age and Problem encountered during Startup of Business	231
Table 7.3:	Education and Problem encountered during startup	233
Table 7.4:	Training and Problem encountered during startup	234
Table 7.5:	Family Size and Problem encountered during startup	235
Table 7.6:	Problems Faced by Entrepreneur	236
Table 7.7:	Age and Problems Faced after starting the business	237
Table 7.8:	Education and Problems Faced after starting the business	238
Table 7.9:	Training Taken and Problems Faced after starting the business	239
Table 7.10:	Family Size and Problems Faced after starting the business	240
Table 7.11:	Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business	241
Table 7.12:	Age and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business	242
Table 7.13:	Education and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business	243
Table 7.14:	Professional Training and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business	244
Table 7.16:	Understanding of Government Policies	245
Table 7.17:	Age and Understanding of Government Policies	245
Table 7.18:	Education and Understanding of Government Policies	246
Table 7.19:	Training and Understanding of Government Policies	247
Table 7.20:	Factors Affecting Business Operation	248
Table 7.21:	Age and Factors Affecting Business Operation	248
Table 7.22:	Education and Factors Affecting Business Operation	249
Table 7.23:	Training and Factors Affecting Business Operation	250
Table 7.24:	contacting with different Institutions	251
Table: 6.25	Age and Contacting with different Institutions	251
Table 7.26:	Education and Contacting with different Institutions	252
Table 7.27:	Training and Contacting with different Institutions	253
Table 7.28:	Factors that were Given attention during the Initial Period of Business	254

Table 7.29:	Age and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business	254
Table 7.30:	Education and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business	256
Table 7.31:	Training and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business	256
Table 7.32:	Use of Managerial tools	257
Table 7.33:	Age and Use of Managerial Tools	257
Table 7.34:	Education and Use of Managerial Tools	258
Table 7.35:	Training and Use of Managerial Tools	259
Table 7.36:	Family Size and Use of Managerial Tools	260
Table 7.37:	Time Spending by Women Entrepreneurs	260
Table 7.38:	Time Spending by Women Entrepreneurs	261
Table 7.39:	Education and Time Spending by Women Entrepreneurs	263
Table 7.40:	Training and Time Spending by Women Entrepreneurs	264
Table 7.41:	Opinions on Critical Success Factors	265
Table 7.42:	Age and Critical Success Factor	266
Table 7.43:	Education and Critical Success Factor	267
Table 7.44:	Training and Critical Success Factor	268
Table 7.45:	Family Size and Critical Success Factor	269
Table 7.46:	Factors affecting Women entrepreneurship Success in Nepal	270
Table 7.47:	Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficient	271
Table 7.48:	Logistic Regression Analysis Table	272

CHAPTER- I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Entrepreneurship refers to the act of setting up a new business or reviving an existing business so as to take advantage from new opportunity (Bhardwaj et.al, 2011). The Webster Dictionary defines an entrepreneur as a person who organizes and manages his enterprise and assumes the risk in a business. Cantillon (Henry Higgs, ed. and trans. 1959) describes an entrepreneur as a person who pays a certain price for a product to resell it at an uncertain price, thereby making decision about obtaining and using resources while consequently assuming the risks of enterprise. According to Cantillon (Henry Higgs, ed. and trans. 1959) anyone who bought and sold at uncertain prices was an entrepreneur. He illustrated his concept of entrepreneur by taking the case of a farmer. A farmer pays out contractual incomes, which are 'certain' to the landlords and labourers; and sells at prices that are 'uncertain'.

In the same way Oxford English Dictionary defines entrepreneur as "one who undertakes an enterprise, especially a contractor- acting as intermediary between capital and labour" undertaking of an enterprise that involves combining capital and labour for the purpose of production. Anyone who undertakes this task is an entrepreneur.

Entrepreneurship is given the significant importance due to its visible impact in wealth creation and employment generation. It has assumed super importance for accelerating economic growth both in developed and developing countries. It promotes capital formation and creates wealth in the country. It reduces unemployment, poverty and is a pathway to a prosperous life (Bhardwaj et.al, 2011). Entrepreneurship is the process of exploring the opportunities in the market place and arranging resources required to exploit these opportunities for long term gain (Deshpande & Sethi, 2009). Entrepreneurship is a creative and innovative skill. It requires planning and organizing opportunities, assuming risk and adapting to an ever changing political, social and economic environment (Deshpande & Sethi, 2009).

It has been accepted that entrepreneurship is an economic venture which helps to uplift the economic condition of people within a short period of time, especially from the point of view of employment generation (Reddy, 2012). In recent years, Nepal has seen some progress in the field of science and technology. These advancements can have huge influence in the economic growth of the country. However, economic growth can only happen if these technologies are used by the entrepreneurs (Reddy, 2012). Entrepreneurs can use latest technology along with other natural and human resources to become an agent of economic development of a country (Reddy, 2012).

(Rao & Joshi, 2013) stated in their research that there are three factors which motivate a man and woman to become an entrepreneur (i) prime motivators factors (ii) facilitation factors (iii) opportunity factors.

- i. The term prime motivators can be the entrepreneurs themselves or their friend or relatives. The major motives behind starting a new venture are to earn more money, to support family, to continue family business or to achieve higher social status. Other factors that compel a person to start a new business could be unemployment or dissatisfaction with his/her particular job.
- ii. The facilitation factor includes the availability of inherited idle funds at the entrepreneur's disposal and the eagerness to make use of the skills the person has acquired over time.
- iii. Opportunity factors of entrepreneurship are trade information, business contacts, knowledge about sources of raw materials etc. and good education and training.

The success of individual as an entrepreneur depends largely on his or her imagination, vision, innovativeness and risk taking ability (Rao & Joshi, 2013). Thus entrepreneurship is centered on creative thinking and the development of new ideas (Rao & Joshi, 2013).

1.1.1 Entrepreneurship Development in Nepal

It is very difficult to find out the initiation period of industrial activities in Nepal. Before modern civilization, Nepalese people consumed what they produced and bartered goods they had with the goods they needed. A group of scholars opine that the history of industrial activities started around the 4th century B.C. in Nepal. (Pradhan 1984) pointed out that it was started during the period of Lichhavi Kings (496 A.D - 880 A.D). So we can say that the history of industrial activities is as old as civilization itself.

Nepalese history indicates that in ancient period Nepalese peoples were involved in three types of industrial activities.

(i) some were engaged in traditional occupation based on castes such as Kami (Black Smith), Sunar (Gold Smith) and Kumale (Potter), (ii) people in Mountain and Himalaya region were producers and sellers of carpet, paper, woolen cloths, woolen carpets (Radi) etc., (iii) rest of the people were involved in commercial business activities (Thapa et. al, 1997).

In the 7th century, during the rule of king Ansuvarma, Kuti Pass had opened. This Kuti Pass led to the growth in Nepal's trade with Tibet. The development of wood craft, metal craft and handicraft and the fine art of those days can still be seen at different places in Nepal.

The Rana Regime (1846-1950) showed interest in domestic industrial development. As a result, 65 companies were registered between 1939 to 1951 with a combined authorized capital of 70 million in Indian Rupees and 21 million in Nepalese Rupees (Pradhan 1984). The small industries were confined to traditional handicraft and employed about 1% of total labour force. This too suffered from fierce competition from machine made produces of British and Indian manufacturers, which were allowed to enter the country from 1923 (Shrestha and Shrestha, 1989).

The pact between Nepal and British India in 1923 has also affected the protection policy adopted by Nepal, and the free entry of goods from India posed a serious threat to the existence of cottage industry in Nepal (Pradhan 1984). In Rana regime the demand for various luxurious and necessary goods were imported from India and foreign countries which affected the development of home industry (Pradhan, 1984).

In the Nepalese entrepreneurship development history, the year 1935 AD and 1936 AD was a special year. "Udhyog Parishad" was established in 1935 and the initiation of Company Act for industrialization was established in 1936. There were 78 small and large industries with an investment of 70 million Indian Rupees and 700,000 Nepalese rupees in 1935 (2007 B.S.). This shows the feature of our industrial scenario of that period (Adhikari, 1996). Prime Minister Chandra Samsher established a spinning and knitting factory at the central prison during his regime. In 1937 a textile industry named Tri-Chandra Charkha Pracharak Mahaguthi was established. In order to protect and develop traditional skill, the Cottage Industry Skill Popularization Center was established in 1934. (Karki, 2001).

During the reign of P.M. Juddha Samsher, some genuine efforts had been made towards industrial development in the country. In the history of industrial development the period of (1936- 1950) can be taken as a period of substantial achievement (as cited by Shrestha, 2007). PM Juddha Samsher not only launched the programmes of industrialization but also tried to create necessary infrastructure for industrialization. By the influence of British, his first major step was establishment of Udhyog Parishad in 1935 (Giri 1975). The main objective of this Parishad was to promote industrial development in the country, register industries and carry out all related tasks. Not only Udhyog Parishad, Nepali Kapada Ra Gharelu Ilam Prachar Adda 1939 and Khani Adda were established. Tejarath office was established in 1931. Tejarath Adda provided loan facilities to the industries operating in Terai. When Nepal Bank Limited was established in 1937, it took all the banking operation and also central banking operation. Since 1935 the insurance service was also available to protect the trade and industry through the Indian companies (as cited by Shrestha 2007). National Industrial Survey was also attempted through commercial and Industrial Intelligence office for developing the national industrial plans. Besides Industrial survey and Industrialization attempts, necessary laws were also formulated, Nepal company Act 1936 was also formulated. Likewise Nepal private company Act was formulated in 1943 to promote small Industries. Industrial development in this Rana's period took place at a very encouraging pace. Nepal's first joint stock enterprise was a jute Mill, established in 1936. PM Juddha Samsher paved the way for Rana's to get involved in industrial activities. 63 joint stock companies were registered in the period between 1946 and 1951 (Giri, 1975). From this it can be

estimated that there had been a great wave of industrial establishment. But after the second World War most of the industries disappeared (Giri, 1975).

The history showed that in ancient period Nepal was rich in different small and cottage industries as well as trade and commerce (Shrestha, 2007). With the establishment of Nepali Kapada and Gharelu Ilam Prachar Adda in 1939, skill oriented training programme had also been launched. It was turned into the technical training section of the Department Of Cottage and Village Industry in the FY 1965/1966 (2022/023 B.S.). In 1992 (2049 B.S.), His Majesty's Government had renamed Department Cottage and Village Industry into Department of Cottage and Small Industry (Shrestha, 2007).

In a mountainous country like Nepal construction of road and other infrastructure is not only difficult but also expensive (Bajracharya, 2007). Road and other infrastructures can influence almost all measures of economic activities. Production has been adversely influenced by the lack of transportation. Since most of the micro enterprises are located in the rural areas; limited infrastructure contributes to high cost of production. In the same way shortage of power or electricity also hinders those micro enterprises. Despite the ten development plans and three interim plans, the development effect is not visibly seen and felt in the economic well being of the people (Bajracharya, 2007).

The Nepalese economic scenario reveals a predominance of the primary sector, slow growth and mass production. With virtually no modern physical infrastructure in a highly congested and difficult Terrain, limited exploitable natural resources, small skilled labour forces, the options for rapid development have been limited and the choices uncertain. The industrial sector is not developed and is only in the form of smaller scale industries (Bajracharya, 2007).

1.1.2 Women Entrepreneur Development in Nepal

Women entrepreneurship is an act of business ownership and business creation that empowers women economically, increases their economic strength as well as position in the society (Deshpande and Sethi, 2009). A woman entrepreneur is an adult who owns and runs an enterprise, especially a commercial one, often at personal financial risks (Bhuvaneshwari & Annapoorani, 2013).

Woman Entrepreneur is a person who accepts challenging role to meet her personal needs and become economically independent. A strong desire to do something positive is an innate quality of entrepreneurial woman, who is capable of contributing values in both family and social life. With the advent of media women are aware of their own traits, right and also the work situation (Rao, 2011).

In the words of Knight (1921), entrepreneurs are a specialized group of people who bear risks and deal with uncertainty and if a woman takes the same uncertain risk of initiating a business, sustaining it and successfully running it by contributing to the nation's economic development in the form of capital formation, improvement in per capita income and balanced regional development, then she is the real "undertaker of the business" and a successful woman entrepreneur (Reddy, 2012).

In Nepal women entrepreneurship is a new concept and has recently gained recognition. In Developing country like Nepal, micro enterprise make major contribution in the development and most of the women are engaged in micro cottage and small enterprises (MEDEP, 2007). Because these enterprises are the backbone and foundation of economic development where resources are limited, capital and its mobilization position is weak and entrepreneurship cannot be promoted as expected, micro cottage and small enterprises play a vital role in poverty reduction in both rural and urban areas. Women are generally poor with respect to income, asset holding and gender disparities in human development, especially literacy, school enrollment and life expectancy are the major problems (MEDEP, 2010). Women's power in decision making, influence and controlled over resources is also negligible (MEDEP, 2010). Men control over resources and decide its usage as well. Women have no power to invest their resources and raise income. In almost all household, men make decision in the family and men always hold a higher status in the family. Property, expenditure and education are men's business and it is thought that it is not a concerning matter of women (MEDEP, 2010). Women must not only prove her worth to her husband, father, brother and son, they must also prove to themselves that they are capable, resourceful and innovative.

Total population of Nepal is 26,494,504 out of which 48.50% (12,849,041) are male and 51.50% (13,645,463) are female (Census 2011). Most of the women are engaged in household and farming activities and 10% women are economically activated (MEDEP 2010).

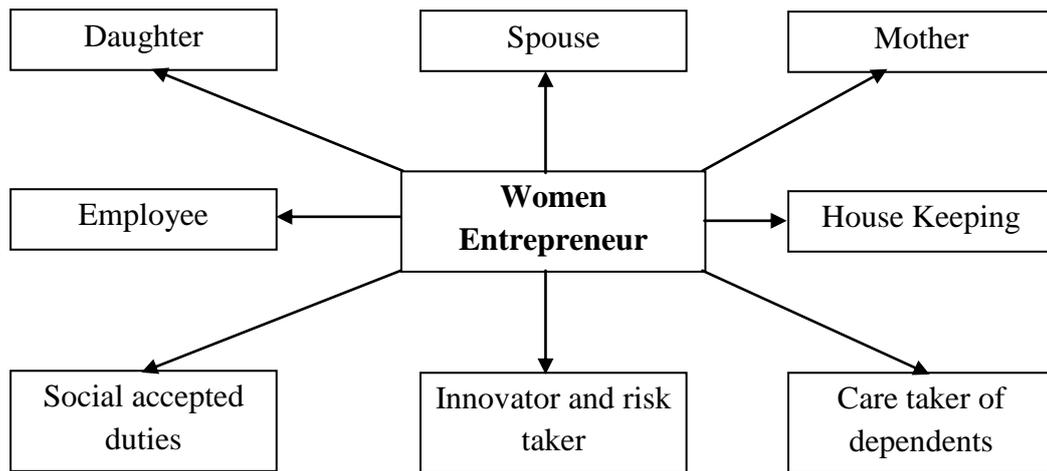
Nepal's economic growth continues to be adversely affected by the political instability and undemocratic rule for long. Nevertheless, GPD growth rate is 4.6% in 2011/2012. This is a considerable improvement for the 3.5 percent GPD in 2010/2011. Nepal exports mainly carpet, clothing, leather goods, jute goods and grain herbs, tea, coffee, steel. Recently European Union has become the largest buyer of Nepali Readymade Garments (NRG). In Nepal 55% goods are exported in India, 10% United States, and German 4.4%. In the same way 51% goods are imported from India, 34% from china (CIA, 2013).

Women status in Nepal in basic needs like education and health is also low. In 1950 the literacy rate of men and women were 8.2% and 0.7% respectively. In 1991 literacy rate of men increased to 55% but that of women has risen only to 25%. In 2001 male literacy rate was 65.5% but female 42.8%. In 2011 male literacy rate was 75.1% and female 57.4% (Census 2011). This shows that literacy rate of women is rising. Nepal government also has launched a number of innovative programmes to enhance female education but the existing infrastructure is still inadequate. A large number of rural girls drop out from schooling at early age because of their household activities or early marriage (Tuladhar, 1996). In the male dominated society like ours, women are encountered with many socio-personal problems. From a very early age it is instilled into girl's mind that their most important duty is to assist their mother in household activities (Ranabhat, 1995). Especially in rural sectors girls can only get primary education and are kept far from advance education. General mentality is that advance education is necessary only for male child (Ranabhat, 1995). Men have more opportunity to start their own business and have more exposure for building confidence. Women's role is only to support male counterpart (Ranabhat, 1995). Most of the women, especially in rural areas, have higher rate of illiteracy, less confidence, little knowledge of their legal rights and are confined to their responsibilities at home (Tuladhar, 1996). Even after marriage, nothing changes; only her work load increases. She work 15 to 16 hours a day but these activities are undervalued mainly because it does not directly generate income. So, all this type of psychological pressure from home and society make women unable to demand her rights (Tuladhar, 1996).

Most of the women in Nepal are involved in agriculture activity (Khatiwada, 2001). Agriculture plays a particular important role in initial stage of economic development. It provides food on the one hand and provides raw material for industry, earns foreign

exchange by exporting agriculture product on the other. Not only this, the role of agriculture is important in our country mainly because it has been creating employment opportunities to the entire agricultural rural communities as well as providing food security (Khatiwada, 2001). Agriculture sector contributes one third gross domestic product (GDP) while two thirds of the country's population is active in this sector. Income contribution of this sector was 34.33% in FY 2011/012 (Economic Survey 2012/2013).

In Nepal women have made a comparatively late entry into the field of economic activities mainly because of the orthodox and socio-cultural environment (Shrestha. B.K, 2000). Nepal's sociological set up has been traditionally a male dominated one. Women are considered as a weaker sex and executor of the decision made by the male member. So, entrepreneurship has been traditionally seen as a male preserve. It is thought that women cannot do it. These prevailing social values, culture and perception to some extent restrain the growth of women entrepreneurs in Nepalese society (Khatiwada, 2001). But there are certain communities, especially the Newars, Sherpas, Gurungs, Thakalis where women are traditionally involved in small business enterprise. It is only within last few decades that the concept of women entrepreneurship has gained some acceptance in Nepalese society. However, it is very difficult for women entrepreneur to meet both of their entrepreneur demand and family responsibility. This has resulted in various conflicts within the family which can sometimes result in many women giving up their entrepreneur role and devoting themselves to family responsibility (Adhikari, 1997). Figure below shows the entrepreneurial women and her multidimensional role. (Mathew and Panchanatham, 2011)



As women constitute around half of the total population so half of the brain power or half of the human resources are unutilized. A country's economic development can be expected through optimum utilization of its human resources in economic activities. Gender equality is an essential factor to achieve the goal of poverty alleviation (Pant, 2013).

The role of women entrepreneur in the process of economic development has been recognized from the 1990s. Today the government of Nepal is more conscious about the development of women (Shrestha, 2007). Women development concept has been accepted since the sixth fifth year plan as a National Policy and several sectoral women development programmes were implemented and institutional development efforts were made (National planning commission, Nepal).

Presently an increased awareness can be observed throughout the world on improving the status of women. Similarly, the United Nations has published the statistics related to women since the declaration of 1975 as the international women's year and 1975-1985 international women's decade (Shrestha, 2007). In accordance with the announcement of the women year, several countries had conducted various programmes giving importance to women development in social, economical and political areas. As a result of this international promotion, our country too has conducted various women development and training programme. Since 1985 various activities to promote the involvement of women in economic activities are being executed from various governmental and non-governmental levels. According to the statistical report of (DCSI 2068/69), the total number of registered women entrepreneurs in 75 districts is 10418. In 1995 government established a separate ministry for women development "Ministry of Women and Social Welfare" in order

to improve the women's status in education, health, credit facilities and employment opportunities and also to enable women to be economically independent. The women entrepreneurship and promotion programmes conducted are some of the significant steps of government and non-government levels to make women capable and economically strong. Improvement after 1986, in the participation of women in economic activities, has shown that the number of women entrepreneurs has increased. The number of women employers too has increased and unemployed women are gradually decreasing in number (Shrestha, 2001). Most of them are engaged in informal sectors and low wages activities. Though women's participation in industrial activities is increasing, their work is limited mostly in knitting, tailoring, textile weaving, wool threading, tea processing and food processing (Pant, 2013). Women in rural areas are mostly involved in cottage industry based on agriculture, forest and animal husbandry. On the other hand women in urban areas, in addition to tailoring, weaving and food processing, are involved in running retail store, beauty parlor, and cottage industry like handicraft, metal-craft production, carpet production, travel agency, hotel and restaurants management. In this way status of women is changing slowly but steadily (Pant, 2013). This has enhanced national productivity, created more employment opportunity for women and has improved women's personal and social capabilities. It has provided them with a sense of achievement and enhanced their self confidence. Women entrepreneurship has also resulted in women being more involved in political activities and taking leadership initiative (Pant, 2013).

A country cannot be developed unless it comes out from the static condition. Poverty, illiteracy, unemployment, ill health, lack of infrastructure, gender inequality etc are the causes of underdevelopment (Adhikari, 1997). To solve these problems economic activities need to be expanded by involving more women in entrepreneurship. It is widely recognized that women entrepreneurship development is important for the economic growth, innovation and job creation in Nepal (Adhikari, 1997).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Entrepreneurship is considered a most important ingredient for economic development. Development of a country is possible only through the promotion of business and industries in a country. Krongkaew (1988) suggested that the small and medium industries have potentiality of absorbing labour from the agricultural sector and creating a more stable industrial base for economic development. It is also supported by the studies of North and Thomas (1973), Rosenberg and Birdzell (1986) and Mokyr (1990), which revealed that entrepreneurship has contributed to economic growth. In the same way entrepreneurial development accounts for most of the new job creations (Birch, 1987; Davidson, 1989; Reynolds, 1986; Larsen and Rogers, 1986). Entrepreneurs help national economy in many ways such as providing jobs, conducting business, creating and participating in entrepreneurial network, investing in priority based projects; Jovanovich (1982) has opined that high unemployment is associated with low degree of entrepreneurship activities. Entrepreneurship also attributes as a major source of economic dynamism within capitalist economies (Morries & Lewis, 1991; Schumpeter, 1934). Not only developed countries but developing countries are also now conscious of the significance of entrepreneurship for economic development.

It is generally realized that merely monetary assistance is not sufficient condition for entrepreneurial growth and that the human factor still remains significant. This is particularly so in industrial progress where the success of scheme largely depends on the person responsible for its implementation (Economic Indicator, 2012/13). The country's economic development can be enhanced through optimal utilization of its human resources in economic activities (Parker S, 2009). Currently human resources development is a key issue in Nepal. There is an urgent need to increase general literacy and technical and managerial skill level of population which is at present growing at a rate of 1.35 percent per annum (Census, 2011). A skilled labour force, whether, it may be men or women, is essential if the economy is to keep pace with the fast growth of the population and provide higher living standards in the future. In Nepal women who constitute more than half of the total population of the country, are less privileged in many instances than men (Tuladhar, 1996). In any country there is the need for gender equality to achieve the goal of economic development and

poverty alleviation. Today national need is to maximize women's participation in economic activities and there by improve the economy of the country (Tambunam, 2009). In both developed and developing countries entrepreneurship is a key to rapid economic development (Halkias et.all, 2011). Developed countries like USA, Germany, UK, Japan etc owe much of their economic development to enterprising people of their respective countries.

The concept of developing women entrepreneurship lays emphasis on the utilization of women labour force productively there by increasing general income and output on the one hand, and alleviating poverty and reducing the negative social effects of underemployment among women and also confining women only to household non-economic activities (Kumbhar, 2013; Das M ,2001). The latter aspect is known as the problem of segregating women through socio-cultural means depriving them of total equality and the fruits of modernization and economic development. The programme for developing women entrepreneurship would make a dent upon seclusion and segregation of women and deprivations of women. Thus the development of women entrepreneurship has enormous implications for combating poverty and deprivations as well as exploitation of women (Das , 2001).

Women entrepreneurship development path is not easy. There are a number of challenges and problems that hinder the path of development. Different women entrepreneurs have various problems in relation to running their business. The National Workshop on "Women in Cottage and Small Industries" held at Kathmandu in 1994 organized by SBPP, has identified the various constraints faced by the women entrepreneurs. These are (a) lack of managerial skill (b) inadequate level of technology (c) lack of skilled labour (d) difficulty in marketing and distribution (e) financial problem (f) difficulty of getting loans/ credit from financial institution.

Actually almost all developing countries' women entrepreneurs usually suffer from these above problems. Studies conducted by Bhattarai (1986), Jha and Upadhyaya (2002) attributed poor loan facilities, changing government policies, (Bhattarai, 1986; K.C., 1989), raw material difficulties (Khhatri-Chhetri & Karmacharya, 2003) to the causes of low business establishment.

Economic and development literature as well as public policies and statistical document have remained extremely unsure of their conceptual footing in relation to the theme of women and work (Heggade, 1998). Women in Nepal, as elsewhere, hold

the triple work responsibility of reproduction, house-holding and employment. However, reproduction is not considered a productive job at least by state organs. Women suffer from discriminating practices in opportunity for education. Personal mobility, which is required among others for skill development and independent decision-making, is highly restricted (Heggade, 1998).

Women contribute a substantial portion of the country's labour forces. The share of women in the total labor is 59% percent (census 2011) which was 45.5 percent in 1991 and 46.2 percent in 1981. Various census and survey reports show a lower rate of participation of women in economic activities compared to that of men. There has been no improvement in the rate of female participation in economic activities through the last decade. There has been a drastic reduction in participation of urban women population in economic activities, falling from 26.4% in 1981 to 23.8% in 1991.

The significance of development of entrepreneurial abilities and skill among women arises due to the need for generating appropriate self-employment opportunities for rising women labour supply (i.e. manual and educated women labour) and to meet the rising socio-economic-cultural expectation of women as a largest population group in a modern age. The growing educated and skilled women labour force like its male counterpart is not able to find equal employment opportunity in the economy. In view of this problem, the government is implementing both women specific and general entrepreneurship development programs in the country. The trained women in self-employment pursuits would only become individual entrepreneurs when they are able to set up income generating productive enterprises. Lack of land and capital is holding women back to establish their own productive enterprise. Micro-credit project for women (MCPW), Rural Development Bank and credit operation of the NGO have been filling these types of gaps by performing the financing and promotional roles to help women set up viable productive units. Various entrepreneurial development activities are conducted by SBPP, IEDI, DCSI, CSCIDB, MEDEP and others INGOs and NGOs. But their efficiency in creating true entrepreneurs is still to be assessed properly. In this perspective the issue emerges, whether women entrepreneurial development efforts are adequate or not? Has it been able to reach all segments and places etc?

Jha & Upadhyaya (2002) have pointed out among various problems, a lack of explicit policy for micro-enterprises and ineffective promotion of micro and small enterprises and entrepreneur (women, youth and socially disadvantaged group). Likewise Khatri-Chhetri and Karmacharya (2003) concluded that micro-enterprises development program should be targeted to uplift the standard of less minority ethnic groups such as Magars and Limbus and the low occupation caste groups.

The general scenario indicates that women's participation in entrepreneurship development is quite low mainly because of socio-economic and cultural structure of the country (Tuladhar, 1996). Exposure of women in Nepal is still not permitted by socio-cultural norms and they are confined in nourishing the domestic activities only. Various studies have shown that women are better managers if they get the opportunity, they can create jobs for themselves and others (Shah, 1991). But it may not be true unless we mobilize and motivate them properly encouraging them to undertake the role of entrepreneurship in economic activities. In this respect, despite negligible exposure in economic activities there are legal obstructions which discourage women's leadership from running the enterprises. Bajracharya (2003) had explicitly stated that acts and policies do not ensure smooth establishment and operation of business if there is lack of clarity and adequate transparency. Bajracharya (2004) had observed that the prevailing policy of the government is not very encouraging to the MSE sector. The laws and regulation generally cover only industrial enterprises and do not cover enterprises in other sectors especially for women entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurship development in Nepal is much slow due to various reasons such as entrepreneurs do not spontaneously respond to opportunities and promotional measures offered by the government and the need of the collateral system. These problems are more pronounced for women entrepreneurs (MEDEP, 2010). The secretary of Central Women Entrepreneur Sub-committee under Cottage Industries Federation opined that development of women entrepreneurship is not an easy task because of the problem of funds and funding agencies. But this case is equally applicable to male entrepreneurs as shown by various studies.

Nepalese women are mostly involved in unpaid household activities (Zivetz, 1992; Shrestha, 2007; Pant, 2013). Their participation in economic activities outside home is also very low, mostly due to their lower educational status and lower marketable skill

along with the deeply rooted tradition of the Nepalese society to discourage women to involve in work outside the home (Zivetz, 1992). Women who are involved in outside works are facing double responsibility of work and home (Shah, 1991). However, neither government nor the society and family have recognized the value and important of women household activity. This kind of discriminating behavior against the female's activities is due to the ignorance of family, society and the policy makers towards women (Sinha, 2007; Bhuvaneshwari & Annapoorani, 2013).

There is growing realization that both quantity and quality of entrepreneurs are of great important for achieving the goal of economic development and enthusiastic entrepreneurs can fully exploit the potentialities of countries available resources like labour, technology and capital (Saini 1996).

In recent years, Nepal has accelerated the pace of entrepreneurship development in the country. Government has established various institutions to impart entrepreneurship and skill development training to potential entrepreneurs. The first major government initiative was establishment of "Ghrelu Ilam Prachar Adda" in 1996 BS (Giri, 1976). Compatible with the time and situation it was restructured and revamped. USAID and SATA were the pioneer institutions who assisted in entrepreneur training and promotion of handicraft and skills (Giri, 1976). At present a large number of institutions and organizations are engaged both in the public and private sectors in conducting varieties of training, research activities directed toward the developing both men and women entrepreneurs.

The political environment is not favorable for industry even though total of 18,008 cottage and small scale industries were registered in FY 2011/2012. Capital investment in industry registered in FY 2011/2012 had reached Rs. 17.27 billions and number of employment generated is 1,20,288 peoples (Economy Survey 2012/2013). Small and cottage enterprise registered in the name of women is 2102 and the number of workers in enterprises is 5633 (Gender Static Report 2069). This indicates that different type of enterprises, run by men and women are created every year and their cumulative impact on employment becomes significant.

Women in Nepal are much less empowered than men in political, economic and professional domains. Women's share of earned income is about half of men, while their participation in the political process is only one fourth. Women are the poorest

of the poor, relatively more deprived segment even among the poor (World Bank 1999).

In Nepal most of the women are marginalized from economic and social opportunities due to their illiteracy, poverty and conservative social taboos. But currently women's participation in economic activities has moved beyond agriculture. In order to earn money and in search for wage and employment, women are moving into small business and self employment ventures and are successful in creating many formal and informal opportunities for work. Women are migrating to urban areas for employment like carpet weaving, textiles and handicraft. 76 percent of women's urban employment in Nepal is in informal sector (ICT 2005) and the number of women entrepreneurs in SME is estimated to be less than 10 percent of the economically active population (MEDEP 2010).

Nowadays, government and general public is realizing that women need to be empowered which is only possible by providing proper education and income earning opportunities. Small and micro – enterprise seems to be the best option to employ women in different activities (MEDEP, 2010). Micro and small enterprise has been a major agent in changing women's role from traditional work to non-traditional work and to change their socio-economic conditions and their access to control over the resources has increased (MEDEP, 2010).

Similarly, it is also essential to assess the financing and promotional role of different institution in developing women entrepreneurship. The support and participation of family members in upbringing women entrepreneurs have to be judged seriously especially in the context of Nepalese socio-cultural structure. In order to sustain the economic activities, the performance of the entities undertaken by women entrepreneurs is to be evaluated in terms of its economic and financial viability. This study is intended to answer the above mentioned questions related to women entrepreneurship development.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The basic objective of this study is to identify the attitudinal, institutional and environmental factors for the promotion and development of women entrepreneurs in Nepal. The following specific objectives are set forth:-

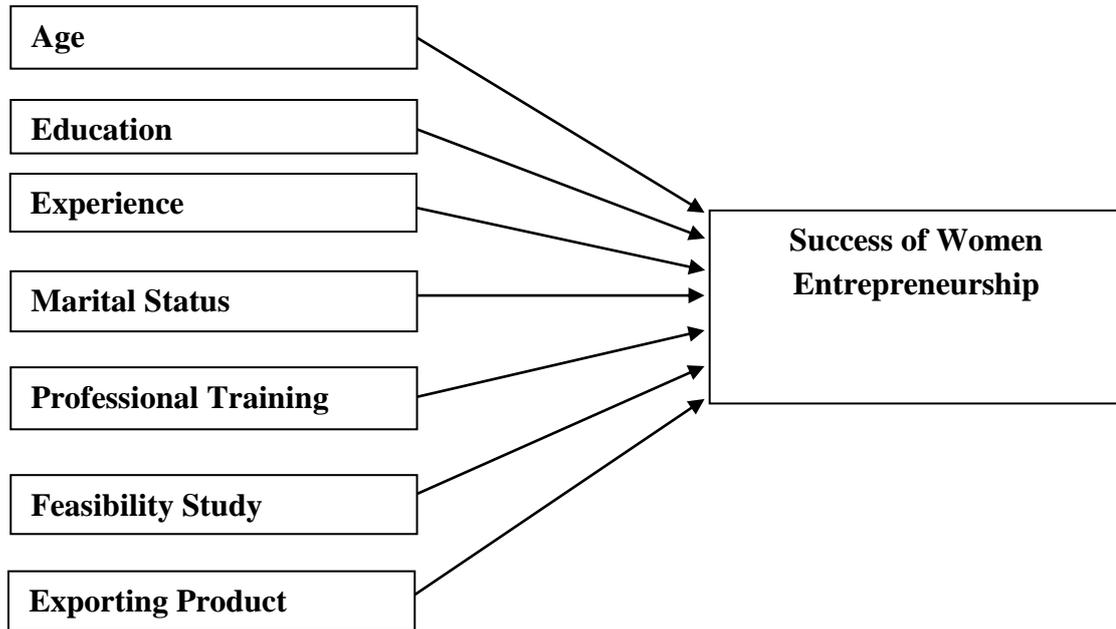
- To examine the institutional mechanism promoting women entrepreneurship in Nepal.
- To assess the attributes of women entrepreneur in development of business venture.
- To examine the influence of attributes in management of business venture.
- To examine the intricacies of successfully running business venture by women entrepreneurs.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

All the developing countries economists have favored the hypothesis that entrepreneurship can develop the rate of capital formation and growth in high level manpower. Entrepreneurial development is essential not only for economic development but also to reduce the acute problem of unemployment, reduce the regional imbalance in development, concentration of economic power and diversion of fund from traditional avenues to productive area, generate more income, increase the export trade and reduce the balance of payment to the possible extent. So an entrepreneurship is considered as a key variable linking socio-cultural situation with the role of economic development as indicated by various social scientists (Cochran, 1965; Cole, 1949; Lumb, 1952 and Williamson, 1966).

Technical progress of a country alone cannot lead to economic development unless the technologies are used by the entrepreneurs. Entrepreneur organizes and uses capital labour and technology. It is true that entrepreneur is an agent of economic development of a country. So there is a need for entrepreneurial awareness among the people. It is to this reason government and other agencies have embarked upon the task of entrepreneurial promotion.

Figure 1.1: Schematic Diagram of Theoretical or Conceptual Framework



It should be understood that setting up a business does not lead an entrepreneur to success. A favorable environment and good operating condition are also very essential. Women entrepreneurship development depends upon different factors. It is viewed that entrepreneurship or women entrepreneurship may emerge from personality factor. The entrepreneurial process starts with an inspiration to do something generally contributed by her family background, self confidence, optimistic, able to take and calculate risks, family, education, work experience, inborn talent, dissatisfied need, unexploited opportunities, ideas etc.

Women entrepreneur can also be developed through management training, skill development training. There are other equally important factors such as favourable government policy, political, economic and social environment. No doubt entrepreneurship may be established in all kinds of situation but a favourable condition must exist to develop, expand, succeed and sustain the entrepreneurship so that it can lead to job creation, poverty alleviation and economic growth of country.

This framework is designed to measure what are the major internal and external factors that contribute towards the success of a women entrepreneurship. Internal factors include the personal factors like age, education, experience, marital status and external factors include trainings, feasibility study and the exporting of the product.

Description of Variables of the Conceptual Framework

	Independent Variable	Variable Description
1.	Age	Age of an entrepreneur can have an impact on a venture as various previous studies had shown that women entrepreneurship is started by women in their thirties.
2.	Education	Formal learning relating to learning through formal courses and informal learning relating to learning through experience and association of people and so forth.
3.	Experience	The experiences during childhood, the impact of family background, and experience in other type of business venture.
4.	Marital Status	The support received externally to the entrepreneur especially obtained by way of family, in laws and husbands.
5.	Professional Training	Training taken by women entrepreneurs before starting their own venture. Training can be anything like business development training, financial management training etc.
6.	Feasibility Study	Entrepreneurs are able to identify the opportunity and decide whether to be involved in traditional or non-traditional business
7.	Exporting Product	Exporting of the manufactured product is a sign of a successful business with long term prospect for either men or women entrepreneur.
	Dependent Variable	Variable Description
7.	Entrepreneurial Success	Women entrepreneur's success is the dependent variable which depends upon the independent variables mentioned above.

1.5 Rationale of the Study

Women entrepreneurship development plays a significant role in country's development because women entrepreneurs have been making a considerable impact in all most all the segments of the economy of a country. Women are an important human resources and country should try to utilize them as mediators of economic growth and development because in our country women constitute more than half (51.41%) of the total population. It means half of the brain power of our country belongs to women but unfortunately women brain power has not been properly utilized and women remain most underutilized resources due to socio-cultural structure and other different problems and causes. Consequently, the country has been unable to produce women entrepreneurs as expected. We know that the pace of development depends on action oriented and effective policy. Significant incentives and motivational factors are needed to upgrade entrepreneurship and productivity. Especially equal opportunity for the overall economic activities without any gender-bias is essential to accelerate economic growth to attain consistent growth for sustainable development.

Currently, an encouraging fact has been noticed. Women entrepreneurs are gradually growing in numbers and some policy instruments have been found helpful to encourage its growth. "Industrial promotion of statistic Report of DCIS" shows that the total number of registered women entrepreneurs in DCIS is 3894 as of 2069 B.S. This report shows that enthusiasm among the women to do something to earn a living seems to be greatly increasing in Nepal despite socio-cultural constraints. Thus, it can be considered as one positive indication of recent development phenomenon. But the rate of their entry in entrepreneurship is still low and those who are already in the forum are facing various constraints including legal ones. In such a scenario, it is necessary to remove obstacles faced by women in building entrepreneurship. Policies have to be remodeled and retouched to remove various hurdles faced by women entrepreneurs. An in-depth study is thus essential to identify such obstacles so that they can be removed. This will create a background for smooth economic development. Thus this study is considered to be one of the constructive steps as well as a very timely one.

1.6 Scope and Limitation of the Study

The study only tries to explore women entrepreneurship development in the country. It does not include male entrepreneurs. It concentrates only in micro and small enterprises run by women. Study will cover only those women entrepreneurs who own, operate and manage industrial entities operational since last 3 years. This study only looks at the personality factors of women entrepreneur and does not do performance evaluation of the enterprises run by women entrepreneur.

1.7 Structure of the Study

The study is divided into chapters. The first chapter starts with the introduction of the subject matter. It includes the general background, conceptual framework, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance, and scope of the study and structure of the study.

The second chapter contains the review of literature related with the subject matter to find out the scope, methodology and the findings of the previous studies and research work in the field. Major studies and research articles also are reviewed.

The third chapter deals with the methodological issues followed during the study. It will cover research design of the study, source of data, sampling framework, data collection procedure, analytic procedure and statistical tools used.

The fourth chapter presents the institutional mechanism for promoting women entrepreneurship in Nepal.

The fifth chapter analyzes the influences of personal characteristics of women entrepreneur in operation of business venture.

The sixth chapter deals with the management style of women entrepreneur.

The seventh chapter analyzes the intricacies of women entrepreneurship.

The eighth chapter presents the summery, conclusion and recommendation.

CHAPTER- II

REVIEW OF LITERATURES

This chapter reviews and presents the different literatures written in the areas of entrepreneurship, women entrepreneurs; women entrepreneurs in SMEs; the problems of entrepreneurship; factors affecting the performance of women entrepreneurs; and the motivational factors of women to start business.

2.1 Conceptual Review

This part of literature review intends to clarify the conceptual and foundational aspects of entrepreneurship on the one hand and to review the national and international studies made on women entrepreneur on the other. Since the dawn of the Industrialization, the issue of entrepreneurship has been gaining attention from different fronts. It has been analyzed from their own perspectives.

2.1.1 Concept of Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship refers to the act of setting of a new business or reviving the existing business so as to take advantage from new opportunities (Bhardwaj et al, 2011). These entrepreneurs shape the economy by creating new wealth and new job and by inventing new products and services (Bhardwaj et al, 2011). It is in reality and attitude to create something new which create value in the entire social eco-system. The concept of entrepreneurship is discussed in different ways. This is because of a number of different ways in which entrepreneurship can be approached. One of the definition of entrepreneurship sees entrepreneur as the self-employed, based on the notion that a person can either be unemployed, self employed or in wage employment. It is measured either statically through the number of self employed or dynamically through the rate of startups (Wennekers and Thukik, 1999). This definition is often used in the economic development literature, due to the fact that in developing countries many formally-registered unemployed or low wage employees in large size enterprises or government department (Formal Sector) seek to survive to increase their income through informal self-employment in small and micro enterprises.

In order to settle the life of an individual they have two ways of earning a living either to search an employment in existing concern or to become an independent person who manages his own venture and takes its full responsibilities and risk. In other words this person is called an entrepreneur. (Das, 2000)

In the early 16th century in France, the term entrepreneur was used for army leader. It was applied in business in 18th century to designate a dealer who buys and sells goods at certain prices (Parrek and Ventreswore, 1978).

In the Middle Ages an entrepreneur was a person who merely managed large projects such as architectural works. It did not involve taking risks but involved using the resources available, Risk became connected with Entrepreneurship in the 17th century when an entrepreneur was viewed as someone who bears the risk at fixed price and contracts with the government. By the mid eighteenth century, it meant a person who bought a commodity or other economic goods at fixed price which could not be determined (Herbert and Link, 1982) Entrepreneurship is one of the four mainstream economic factors: Land, Labour, capital and Entrepreneurship. The word itself, derived from 17th century French "entreprendre" refers to individuals who were "Undertakers" meaning those who undertook risk of enterprises. They were "contractors" who bore the risk of profit or loss, and many early entrepreneurs were soldiers of fortune, adventurers builders, merchants and incidentally, funeral directors (Entrepreneurship new venture creation (Holt, 1998).

In the same way Oxford English Dictionary defines an entrepreneur as "one who undertakes an enterprise, especially a contractor- acting as intermediary between capital and labour" Undertaking of an enterprise involves combining capital and labour for the purpose of production. Anyone who undertakes this task is an entrepreneur.

The word entrepreneur itself derived from French language long before there was any general concept of an entrepreneurial function. In the early 16th century in France, the term entrepreneur was used to those who were engaged in military expeditions. In the 17th century, it was extended to cover civil engineering activities such as construction and fortification (Cochran, 1965). It was only at the beginning of the 18th century that the word was used to refer to economic activities. From this usage, it was easy to move to applying entrepreneur to other types of adventures. About 1700s in France, "entrepreneur" was frequently applied to refer to government road, bridge, harbour

and fortification contractor and somewhat later, to architects. After 1750s it was applied to other types of adventures, mainly civil engineering like construction of wood bridge, harbors and building. Bernard Belidor applied to the function of buying labour and material at uncertain prices and selling the resultant product at a contracted price (Hoselitz, 1951).

Researchers have been inconsistent in their definition of entrepreneurship (Brockhaus & Horwitz, 1986; Wortman, 1987; Gartner, 1989). Definitions have emphasized a broad range of activities including the creation of organization (Gartner, 1989), the carrying out of few combinations (Schumpeter, 1934), the exploration of opportunities (Kirzner, 1973), the bearing of uncertainty (Knight, 1921), the bringing together of factors of production (Say, 1845) and others.

A critical point in Cantillon's argument was that entrepreneurs consciously make decision about resources allocation. Consequently, astute entrepreneurs would always seek the best opportunities for using resources for their highest commercial yields. Cantillon played out his theory in real life, becoming a wealthy arbitrageur investing in European Ventures, dealing in monetary Exchange and Controlling Commodities, such as farm produce to auction in high demand markets. Thus an entrepreneur is the individual who bears uncertainty and takes risk. So, Cantillon regarded everyone, from landowners to salaried workers engaged in economic activity as an entrepreneur. He conceived of an entrepreneur as a bearer of non-insurable risk. According to him, entrepreneurs carry on production and exchange of goods at some risk, facing the possibility of bankruptcy, when the demand for their product is expressed.

The functional analysis of entrepreneurship focuses upon the economic role rather than the individual who performs such role. It comes out as a result of industrialization which occurred throughout the world in the 18th century. Since then, the concept of Entrepreneurship has been associated simply with owing one's own business with innovations and risk to king.

According to Say, "Entrepreneur is the economic agent who unites all means of production, the labour of the one, the capital or the land of the other and who finds in the value of product which result from their unemployment reconstitution of the entire capital that he utilizes and the value of the wages, the interest and the rent which he pays as well as profits belonging to himself". He defined an entrepreneur as the agent who unites all means of production and who finds in value of the products. He may or

may not supply capital but he must have judgment, perseverance and knowledge of the world of business. He must possess the art of superintendence and administration.

Schumpeter (1934) revived the concept of entrepreneurship that specifically addressed entrepreneurship. Schumpeter described entrepreneurship as a force of "Creative destruction" where by established ways of doing things are destroyed by the creation of new and better way to get thing done Entrepreneurship is often a subtle force, challenging the order of society. Through marginal and small change, but in Schumpeter described entrepreneurship as a process and entrepreneurs as innovators who use the process to shatter the status through new combinations of resources and new methods of commerce.

Smith (1776) described to entrepreneur the role of industrialist, but he also viewed the entrepreneur as a person with unusual foresight who could recognise potential demand for goods and services. In Smith's view, entrepreneurs are related to economic change, thereby becoming the economic agents who transform demand into supply.

Baptiste (1803) writes in *Traité de l'économie politique* (Translated into English in 1845 as *A Treatise on Political Economy*), described an entrepreneur as one who possessed certain art and skills of creating new economic enterprises yet a person who had exceptional insight into society's needs and was able to fulfill them Say (1845), therefore, combined the "economic risk taker" of Cantillon and the "industrial manager of Smith into an unusual character. According to Say (1845) entrepreneur influenced society by creating new enterprise and at the same time was influenced by society to recognize need and fulfill them through astute management of resources.

Say (1845) defines an entrepreneur as the most important agent of production who provides continuing management and brings together the factors of productions. His definition associates the entrepreneur with the function of co-ordination, organization and supervision. Say's emphasis is that entrepreneur must have judgment perseverance and knowledge of the world as well as that of business. Say was the first economist to differentiate the function and remuneration of the entrepreneur from those of the capitalist. In order to provide continuing of management, there are three more implicit factors. Firstly, moral qualities for the work that include judgment within when the business is operating, secondly, the prospective entrepreneur should have hold over sufficient capital resources. The third factor refers to the uncertainty of

profits. To overcome this uncertainty element in business he prescribes superintendence and administration as the basic qualities for an entrepreneurship. Say defined entrepreneurship in the most general term. This was a classic definition that survived almost till twentieth century.

Peter Drucker (1985) disagrees with this view of Say (1803) and Cantillon's (Henry Higgs, ed. And trans. 1959) view. According to him successful innovators are not risk taker. They are successful to the extent they define risks and confine risks. According to him successful innovators are conservative. They have to be. They are not risk focused, they are opportunity focused.

Knight (1921) prescribed the theory that entrepreneurs are a specialized group of persons who bear risks and deal with uncertainty. According to him an entrepreneur is the economic functionary who undertakes such responsibility, which cannot be insured or salaried. He also guarantees specified sums to others in return for assignments made to them. The supply of entrepreneurship involves three factors namely ability, willingness and power to extend guarantees about returns to others. Knight also identified the economic, social and psychological factors, which govern the supply of entrepreneurship.

Kilby (1971) emphasizes the role of an imitator entrepreneur who does not innovate but imitates technologies innovated by others, and is very important in developing economies.

Albert Shapero (1975) explains that entrepreneurs take initiative, accept risk of failure and have an internal locus of control.

Howard Stevenson (1975) entrepreneurship is the pursuit of opportunity without regard to resources currently controlled.

Honaldy and Abond (1971) analyzed a number of characteristics which they felt were significantly associated with entrepreneurs. Out of nine characteristics (achievement, autonomy, aggression, support, conformity, recognition, independence, benevolence and leadership), they found need for achievement, support, independence and leadership most significant characteristics.

Singh and Kiran (1971) reported that business entrepreneurs were those with (i) high need for achievement and (ii) who take high risks

Collins and Moore (1964) after interviewing 150 small business entrepreneurs concluded that entrepreneurs can be best described as too restless, too independent, and too creative.

A number of social scientists have prescribed that entrepreneurship is the key variable, which links the socio-cultural milieu with the rate of economic development (Cochran 1949, Cole 1949, Lamb, 1952 and Williamson, 1966). It has been recognized that the entrepreneurial development is essential not only for economic development but also for regional development and capital formation. It solves the problem of unemployment. It is to this reason government and private agencies have embarked upon the undertaking the task of entrepreneurial promotion.

There was an important movement in Austria that subsequently influenced our 20th Century Concept of entrepreneurship (Menger, 1871). In Menger's view, economic change does not arise from circumstances but from an individual's awareness and understanding of those circumstances. The entrepreneur becomes, therefore, the change agent who transforms resources into useful goods and services, often creating the circumstance that leads to industrial growth.

We do not have one indisputable definition of entrepreneurship or entrepreneur. Schumpeter provides us with a framework for understanding both in terms of a process. The entrepreneur seeks to revolutionize the pattern of production by exploiting an invention or, more generally, an untried technological possibility for producing a new commodity or producing an old one in a new way by opening up a new source of supply of materials or a new out let for product. Entrepreneurship essentially consists in doing things that are not generally done in the ordinary course of business routine.

Schumpeter did not equate entrepreneurs with investors, suggesting instead that an inventor might only create a new product, whereas entrepreneur will gather resources, or gain talent and provide leadership to make it a commercial success. Schumpeter view point was mirrored by Drucker (1985) who described at the entrepreneur's role as one of gathering and using resources but he allied that resources to produce result must be allocated to opportunities rather that to problems (Drucker,1985). In Drucker's view entrepreneurship occurs when resources are redirected to progressive opportunities and not used to ensure administrative efficiency. This redirection of

resources distinguished the entrepreneurial role from that of the traditional management role.

Menger (1971) established the subjectivist perspective of Economic in his book "Principles of Economics" In Menger's (1971) view, economic change does not arise from circumstance but from an individual's awareness and understanding of those circumstances. The entrepreneur become, therefore, the change agent who transforms resources into useful goods and services, often creating the circumstance that leads to industrial growth.

In this way evolution of concept has generated many definition of entrepreneurship. But still we can't miss the Ronstadt's definition of entrepreneurs "Entrepreneurship is the dynamic process of creating incremental wealth". This should be increased by individuals who assume the major risks in terms of equity, time and career commitment of providing value for some product or service. This product or service itself may or may not be need unique but value must somehow be infused by the entrepreneur by securing and allocating the necessary skills and resources.

With a definition in mind, we still have difficulty identifying entrepreneurs, finding them or determining what they do. Schumpeter's (1934) viewpoint that "entrepreneurs bring resources to gather in unusual combination to generate profits". Vesper (1980) found that psychologists tend to view entrepreneurs in behavioral terms as achievement oriented individuals driven to seek challenges and new accomplishments Marxist philosophers may see entrepreneurs as exploitative adventures, representative of all that is negative in capitalism (Holt, 2000).

Hornady & Aboud (1971) summarized the list of Successful Entrepreneurs. In their view there are some characteristics of successful entrepreneurs: Self confident and optimistic, able to take calculate risk, respond positively to challenges, flexible and able to adopt, knowledgeable of markets, able to get along well with others, independent minded, versatile knowledge, energetic and diligent, creative, need to achieve, dynamic leader, responsive to suggestion, take initiatives, resourceful and persevering, perceptive with foresight, responsive to criticism. Although this list is supported to highly successful entrepreneurs there is no way of knowing how these traits relate to majority of entrepreneurs. For example, some people may have the creative talent to generate new idea but lack the ability to organize resources, and others may have a compelling need to achieve but lack resources to create a view

venture. Maybe those individuals with a limited profile based on traits will start a new business and succeed.

A successful venture capitalist and author described the entrepreneur as "energetic, single - minded" and having "a mission and clear vision. He or she intends to create out of this vision a product or service in a field that may have determined its importance to improve the lives of millions"(Silver, 1983)

Entrepreneurship has been globally felt as a developmental and progressive idea for business world (Scott, 1986). Therefore, entrepreneurship is considered as vital ingredient for not only globalization but at the same time for creating diverse opportunities for future potential performers, Mitra (2002).Entrepreneurship is not just confined to any one gender rather due to multi-faceted economic pressures women have turned up and realized that the survival of their families and their own potential lies only in working side by side with men (Marlow, 2002).

We come to conclude that entrepreneurs are those whose view changes as the norms. They always search for change, respond to them and exploit them as opportunities. In that sense entrepreneurship is a behavior rather than a personality trait.

Economic development of a country essentially means a process by which the per capita income of that country changes upwards over a period of time. Entrepreneurship plays a vital role in economic development through creation of utilities and generation of employment within a short period. The impetus of entrepreneurial ventures had come from industrialization in developed nations by selling up large technological and sophisticated industries investing huge capital. Particularly, among the Asian countries, the concept of huge capital intensive industry has not only failed to solve their economic problems but also triggered off a spate of human and social problems. Stagnation of economy, widening inequality staggering unemployment and under-employment and a valley of socio-cultural problems associated with urbanization played the Asian countries when they attempted to transplant Euro-American concept of entrepreneurship in their countries. This experience has led these countries to follow the policy of encouraging individual small scale ventures.

Entrepreneurship has assumed super importance for accelerating economic growth both in developed and developing countries. It promotes capital formation and creates

wealth in the country. It reduces unemployment and poverty and it is a pathway to economic development. Entrepreneurship is the process of exploring the opportunities in the market place and arranging resources required to exploit these opportunities for long term gain.

It has been accepted that entrepreneurship is an economic venture by which a lot of people can be changed upward within a short period of time, especially from the point of view of employment generation. Like other developing countries, Nepal has been endowed with abundant natural, biological and human resources. Technical progress of a country alone cannot lead to economic development unless the technologies are used by the entrepreneurs. Entrepreneur organizes and uses capital labor and technology. It is true that entrepreneur is an agent of economic development of a country. Therefore entrepreneurial awareness among the people in general and educated in particular is perhaps an urgent need. In Nepal entrepreneurship will lead to generate more income, reduce the acute problem of unemployment, minimize the incident of poverty, reduce the regional imbalance and increase the export trade and reduce the balance of payments to the possible extent.

In order to understand entrepreneurs better, researchers have sought to define traits common to majority of individuals who start and operate new ventures. Research studies that explore the characteristic and personality traits of and influences on the entrepreneurs have come to differing conclusions. Most of them however, agree on certain consistent entrepreneurial traits and environmental influences. Although certain entrepreneurial behaviors are also dynamic and influenced by environmental factors. In their entrepreneurship research paper, Shane and Venkataraman (2000) argue that the entrepreneur is solely concerned with opportunity recognition and exploitation, although the opportunity that is recognized depends on the type of entrepreneur, while Uchasaran et al (2001) argue there are many different types of contingent upon environmental and personal circumstances.

Jesper Sorensen has argued that some of the most significant influences on an individual's decision to become an entrepreneur are workplace peers and the social composition of the workplace. In researching the likelihood of becoming an entrepreneur is based upon working with former entrepreneurs (Nanda and Sorensen, 2010).

So it is observed that entrepreneurs have some characteristic behaviors which distinguish them from the rest of the population. Since the main objective of entrepreneurship is to contribute to the development of the society by developing persons who perform entrepreneurial roles, efforts are made to promote self-employment among women in many developing countries including Nepal during last two decades. This indicates new awareness on the part of the government and policy maker to recognize the role of women in economic growth and their capacity to alleviate poverty at the household level.

2.1.2 Concept of women entrepreneurship

The term, women entrepreneurship, means an act of business ownership and business creation that empowers women economically, increases their economic strength as well as position in society (Bharadwaj et al, 2011). Hence women entrepreneurs have been making a considerable impact in almost all the segments of the economy. Women are an important human resource of the nation and every state should try to utilize them as mediators of economic growth and development. Encouragement for women entrepreneurship is one of the ways for that. But unfortunately it is seen that traditional mindset of the society and negligence of the state and respective authorities are important obstacles in the women entrepreneurship development (Bharadwaj et al, 2011)

Women constitute around half of the total world population .So is in Nepal also i.e at least half the brain power on the earth belongs to women but unfortunately women remain perhaps the world's most underutilized resources due to the different causes (Goyal et al, 2011).

The emergence of entrepreneurs in a society depends to a great extent on economic, social, religious, cultural and psychological factors prevailing in the society. In many of the advanced countries of the world there is a phenomenal increase in the number of self-employed after the world war. In the USA women own 25% of business even though their sales on an average are less than 2/5th of those of other small business group .In Canada 1/3rd of small business are owned by women and in France it is 1/5th. In the UK since 1980 the number of self employed women has increased 3 times as fast as the number of self employed men (Deshpande, 2009)

Women entrepreneur may be defined as the women or group of women who initiate, organize and operate a business enterprise (Hagargi et al, 2011). Nepalese small and medium enterprises in legal terms are the enterprises which have up to Rs 100 million worth of investment in fixed assets. The government of India has defined women entrepreneur as an enterprise owned and controlled by a woman having minimum financial interest of 51% of the capital and giving at least 51% employment generated in the enterprise to women (Hagargi et al, 2011)

Woman Entrepreneur is a person who accepts challenging role to meet her personal needs and become economically independent. A strong desire to do something positive is an inbuilt quality of entrepreneurial women, who is capable of contributing values in both family and social life. With the advent of media women are aware of their own traits, right and also the work situation (Rao, 2011).

In the words of Knight (1921), entrepreneurs are a specialized group of people who bear risks and deal with uncertainty and if a women takes the same uncertain risk of initiating a business, sustaining it and successful running it by contributing to the nation's economic development in the form of capital formation, improvement in per capita income and balanced regional development, then she is the real "undertaker of the business" and a successful women entrepreneur (Reddy, 2012).

The term women entrepreneurship means an act of business ownership and business creation that empowers women economically increases their economic strength as well as position in society. Hence women entrepreneurs have been making a considerable impact in all most all the segments of the economy (Deshpande & Sethi, 2009).

Deshpande and Sethi (2009) also point out the motivational factors for women entrepreneurship research. According to him in recent years there has been a lot of debate in the print and electronic media, parliament and other forums about the development of entrepreneurship amongst women. Due to various cultural and social reasons, women in different parts have different motive, aspiration, social status, needs and urges. Varied motivation need and interest plunges in women entrepreneurs for establishing an enterprise. Some factors that normally make women to be entrepreneur include:

- Economic need (To earn money),

- As a challenge to satisfy some of their personality needs (Power, Achievement and Novel Experience),
- Educated women utilizing their knowledge gained,
- Family occupation (Second generation entrepreneurs),
- As a leisure time activity.

The United Nations Population Fund defines women's empowerment through five major components: women's sense of self worth, their right to have and determine choices, their right to have access to opportunities and resources, their right to have power to control their own lives both within and outside the home, and their ability to influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order, nationally and internationally (UNDP, 2008)

The role of women entrepreneurs in the process of economic development has been recognized from the 1990s in various parts of the world .Today in the world of business women entrepreneurship has become an essential movement in many countries and has been accepted in all areas of working .The UN's report has also concluded that economic development is closely related to the development of women. In nation where women have advanced, economic growth has usually been steady. By contrast in countries where women have been restricted the economy has been stagnant (Bharadwaj et.al, 2011).

If we look at the developed countries we see that women are actively participative in the business and trade activities including agricultural, without any social or other restriction (Rao, 2011). With the advent of media, women are aware of their own traits, rights and also the work situation. Women are found to be indulged in every type of business from “papad” to power cables. The challenge and opportunities provided to the women of digital era are growing rapidly. Consequently, the job seekers are turning into job creators (Goyal et. all, 2011). They are flourishing as designers, interior decorators, exporters, publishers, garment manufacturers and still exploring new avenues of economic participation. Women owned businesses are highly increasing in the economies of almost all countries. The hidden entrepreneurial potential of women has gradually been changing with the growing sensitive to the role and economic status in the society (Goyal et. all, 2011).

In this 21st century, the status of women has been changing specially in developing countries like India, Nepal, Pakistan, as a result of growing industrialization and urbanization, spasmodic mobility and social legislation over the years. More and more women are going in for higher education, technical and professional education and their proportion in the workforce has also increased (Nachimuthu et.al ,2012). With the spread of education and awareness women have shifted from kitchen, handicraft and traditional cottage industries to nontraditional higher level of activities. Even the government has provided special entrepreneurial training programs to women to enable them to start their own venture (Nachimuthu et.al ,2012). But in Nepal there are still many social and cultural restrictions on women, hence women participation in entrepreneurial activities is less than the requirement. Not only Nepal but also Asian countries have lately but rightly recognized significance of women entrepreneurship in the recent past, however entrepreneurship is still considered a domain associated with the male of any society due to various societal factors and prejudice towards phenomenon of female entrepreneurship (Kote et. all, 2012). Women entrepreneurial, in spite of their significant entrepreneurial existence in developing countries have not been brought under the spotlight by both academicians and the government in these regions of the world. The entrepreneurial world has embedded gender disparity and this gender gap is wider in developing countries that are socially and culturally backward and characterized with social imbalances. In such countries the potential of women are marginalized in every walk of life (Kote et. all, 2012).

Nepal's sociological set up has been traditionally a male dominated one. Women are considered as a weaker sex and always made to depend on men folk in their family and outside throughout their life. They are left with lesser commitments and kept as a dormant force quite a long time. Nepalese culture made them only subordinates and executor of the decision made by other male members in the basic family structure. (Hada and Shrestha, 1992).

The traditional setup is changing in the modern era. The transformation of social fabric of Nepalese society, in terms of increased educational status of women and varied aspirations for better living necessitated a change in the life style of Nepalese women. Women are no longer the fairer or the weaker gender. She has competed with man and successfully stood up with him in every walk of life and women owned business are highly increasing in the economics of almost all countries. The hidden

entrepreneurial potential of women has gradually been changing with growing sensitivity to the role and economic status in the society (Bhardwaj et. al, 2011).

Earning quick money is the main reason for Nepalese women to start entrepreneurship. They have a deep seated need for a sense of independence along with a desire to do something meaningful with their time and to have their own identity instead of remaining closeted behind their husbands' nameplate (Kollan and Parikh, 2005). Women with high education view at entrepreneurship as a challenge, while women with no education background find entrepreneur merely a means for earning money. These women need little pull and push for venturing ahead as their circumstances forced them (Kollan and Parikh, 2005).

The emergence of women entrepreneurs and their contribution to the national economy is quite visible in Nepal. The number of women entrepreneurs has grown over a period of time, especially in the 1990s. Women entrepreneurs need to be applauded for their increased utilization of modern technology, increased investment finding a niche in export market, creating a suitable employment for other and setting the trend for other women entrepreneurs in the organized sector (Sathiabama, 2010). In Nepal women in traditional society are still confined to the four walls of their home, children and family rituals. Woman is a dynamic and dependable worker, who works without pay for 12 to 14 hours a day round the year and yet is made to suffer the humiliating status of subordinate (Tuladhar, 1996). Granting the equality status to the women in Nepal has remained in balance due to social prejudices and also other self factors like lack of education, lack of effective opportunity for employment. In spite of market progress, Nepali women have remained the nation's greatest untapped resources (Tuladhar, 1996).

Despite all the hurdles the modern Nepali women have realized that their neglected power is at the core of their backwardness and hence the women have taken the great step of empowering themselves with available resources to make their own decision. Also women have recognized their importance and the role they have to play in the economic development of the nation which leads to their economic self reliance. Today women are at a historical compulsion to revise and redefine their values and role at home and outside. A new economy, a new social order, and a new way of thinking largely fashioned by science and technology, have emerged. The future belongs only to those who with assurance could shake hand with the widening global

economy and adopt themselves to the faster pace of technology change (Dhakal, 2006)

Since the turn of the century the status of women of Nepal has been changing due to growing industrialization, globalization and social legislations. With the spread of education and awareness, women have shifted from kitchen to higher level of professional activity (Kumbhar, 2013). Entrepreneurship has been a male dominated phenomenon from the very early age, but time has changed the situation and brought woman as today's most memorable and inspirational entrepreneurs. In almost all the developed countries in the world women are taking their steps on a par with men in the field of business (Kumbhar, 2013). The role of women entrepreneurs in economic development is inevitable. Nowadays women enter not only in selected professions but also in profession like trade, industry, and engineering. Women are also willing to take up business and contribute to the nation's growth. Their role is also being recognized and steps are being taken to promote women entrepreneurship. Women entrepreneurship must be molded properly with entrepreneurial traits and skill to meet the changes in trends, challenges, global market and also be competent enough to sustain and strive for excellence in the entrepreneurial arena (Das, 2000)

Specially, in Nepal women have made a comparatively late entry into business scenario mainly due to the orthodox and traditional socio cultural environment in Nepal. Although there are certain communities in the country, especially the Newars, Sherpas, Gurungs, Thakalis women are traditionally involved in the small business enterprise (Tuladhar, 1996). It is only within last two decades that the concept of women entrepreneurship has gained some acceptance in Nepalese society. It has been recognized that women have unique talent for economic activities. In Nepal from very beginning women have been manager of kitchen and have solely dominated the area of household activities. So, in general, attitude of the people about women entrepreneurs is that they are makers of pickles, pappads, masalas and other household goods (Dhakal, 2006). But the economic status of the women is now accepted as an indicator of a society's stage of development and therefore it becomes imperative for the government to frame policies for development of entrepreneurship among women (Dhakal, 2006). The concept of developing women entrepreneurship lays emphases on the productive utilization of women labor force to generate income and to alleviate poverty.

In today's context, both in developed and developing country is the emergence of women entrepreneurs and their contribution to the national economy is quite visible. The number of women entrepreneur has grown over a period of time, especially in the 1990's. United Nation's report has also concluded that economic development is closely related to the advancement of the women. The nation where women have advanced, they are applauded for their business due to their utilization of modern technology, increase investment, finding a niche in the export market, creating an employment for others etc.

As women entrepreneurs have demonstrated their potential, the fact is that they are capable of contribution much more than what they already are. In order to harness their potential and for their continued growth and development, it is necessary to formulate appropriate strategies for stimulating, supporting and sustaining their efforts in this direction (Rao, 2011). A distinguishing feature of a woman entrepreneur is the willingness to work hard. She has to follow the principle that hard work is the key to success (Kumar & Jayachitra, 2013).

Women are experienced in managing one of the most complex organizations the household, with its many human interfaces and interplay between the sexes, different age groups and different stakeholders. Women have learnt over the centuries the art of negotiation and reconciliation and qualities of patience and understanding along with an inherent quality of emotional intelligence. All these transferable skills can be brought to bear upon the workplace making it the richer from these valuable experiences (Parikh, 1999).

Parikh (1999) also points out the women with high education view at entrepreneurship as a challenge while women with no education background find entrepreneurship merely a means for earning money. Those women need little pull and push for venturing ahead as their circumstance forced them. On the other hand, women, coming from good financial background need "pull and push" as at times they themselves are not aware of their own inner strengths and resources.

Women are important human resources of the nation and every state should try to utilize them as mediator of economic growth and development. Encouragement for women entrepreneurship is one of the ways for that (Kumbhar, 2013).As women comprise half of human resources, they have been identified as a key agent of sustainable development, and women's equality is as central to more holistic approach

toward stabilizing new patterns and process of development that are sustainable. While at least half of the brain power on earth belongs to women but women remain perhaps the world most underutilized resource (Goyal & Parakash, 2011). Today, when business is facing a severe crunch in entrepreneurial talent, if women do not play a meaningful role in business then half of the country's potential talent pool will remain underutilized (Bhargava, 2007).

Rao (2011) states in his research that women are considered as a weaker sex and always made to depend on men folk in their family and outside, throughout their life. They are left with lesser commitment and kept as a dormant force for quite long time. They are considered only subordinates and executor of the decision made by other male members. Though women are considered a weaker gender physically and mentally they are more capable and alert in managing things. Women have been managing house in small finances in their best possible way. Women are easily accessible to management technique and they adopt them quickly with utmost sincerity and honesty.

Last couple of decades, there has been a significant growth in female entrepreneurs who are becoming increasingly visible and successful in the professional and public sphere. Evidence is that women entrepreneurs are gradually acquiring the required confidence, leadership and managerial skill for succeeding in business (Rao, 2011)

The role of women in business is taking place primarily due to different factors that can be classified as personal and contextual factors of motivation for women entrepreneurs. The personal factors are that, firstly, with the family structures changing the nuclear families, women perceive themselves to be a significant partner for providing for family, Secondly, with increasing education and competence, the emerging women leaders in business have proven that women can contribute in management and strategy in the same measure as their male counterparts. The two contextual aspects which are impacting the motivation of women entrepreneurs are firstly, business is increasingly becoming gender-neutral and secondly, technological advancement has provided immense flexibility so that women can work from anywhere and at any time when it is convenient to them (Tripathi, 2012).

According to Tripathi (2012) the hidden entrepreneurial potential of women has gradually been changing with the growing sensitivity to the role and economic status in the society. Women are increasingly becoming conscious of their roles, their rights

and their work situation. Today women entrepreneurs represent a group of women who have broken away from the beaten track and are exploring new avenues of economic participation. Among reasons for women to run organized enterprises are their skill and knowledge, their talents, abilities and creativity in business and a compelling desire of wanting to do something on their own.

Hagargi & Rajnalkar (2011) has divided women entrepreneurs in four segments:

- **Self- help groups:** Those who are well served and mentored by microfinance institution. Women make use of funds issued by microfinance cooperation for starting of their business. It is a village-based financial intermediary. Usually composed between 10-20 local women, most self help groups are located in the same local area.
- **Grass root entrepreneurs:** Those who are driven by a need to augment the family's finance. Especially to secure their children's future-tailors, flower sellers, STD booth owners, etc. with turnover aspiration of 5 lakh a year, they are very work focused as they can see any increase their earning as directly impacting their children's lives. They are hungry for formal skill and training and clearly articulate what they want to learn that will help them to earn more. Domestic family support, financial support and better infrastructure and mechanization are what they ask for.
- **Mid-run entrepreneurs:** They are driven by the need to build reputation, become known, improve quality and satisfy creative instincts. Mostly graduates they typically have garment shop, poultry farm, export business handicraft, etc. with the turnover aspiration of Rs. 50 lakhs to 1 crore. Fairly well supported by the family, their biggest challenge is how to take their business to next level.
- **Upper crest:** Drawn from the top most social class, very well-educated with their business like export houses, travel agency, traders in pharmaceuticals, and often adjuncts to their husbands business, they aspire a turnover of more than 5 crore.

2.1.3 Profile of Nepalese Women

In Nepal, women constitutes more than half of the total population out of which 89.9% live in rural area and 17.1% in urban areas (Census 2011). Most of the women are primarily engaged in household and farming activities and have not been able to participate in economic development activities.

Women entrepreneurship, in a formalized sense is relatively new phenomenon in Nepal. However, certain ethnic communities in the country, especially the Newars and Tibeto-Burman, Highland groups such as the Sherpas, Gurungs, Thakalis are known to have a long tradition of women being involved in small business enterprises (CEDA, 1981).

With the growing recognition that women have unique talents which could be harnessed for development and for creating employment opportunities for others who are not suited to an entrepreneurial career, developing women as entrepreneurs has become an important part of national development planning and strategies (Tuladhar, 1996).

Actually speaking gender equality is necessary for economic development. Without gender equality pace of development becomes very slow. In view of this, since the early 1990s the policy makers and planners have become acutely aware of the economic significance of women's productive activities and the nature of their contribution to income generation and poverty alleviation.

It has been firmly established that women in Nepal are vital and productive contributors to the national economy but their access to knowledge, skills, resources, opportunities and power still remain rather low (Shakti, 1995).

After the restoration of multiparty system in the 1990s, policy makers are giving importance to uplift the status of women. A separate ministry to look after the welfare of the women has been established. After the women conference held in Beijing in 1955, more emphasis has been given to women employment. In the conference the question of women employment had been brought to light.

In general sense empowerment refers to empowering women to be self-dependent by providing them with access to all the freedoms and opportunities which they were

denied in the past only because of their being women (Nachinuthu & Gunatharan, 2012)

In today's context, the status of women has been changing due to growing industrialization, organization, globalization and social legislation in the world. Government and non-government organization are also giving special emphasis on conducting special entrepreneurial training program for women to enable them to start their venture. Financial institution and bank have also set up special sell to assist women entrepreneurs. The role of women entrepreneur in economic development is inevitable. Status of women has been changing not only in developed country but also in developing country like Nepal. In Nepal entrepreneurship has been a male dominated phenomenon from the very early age, but time has changed. The situation has made women as today's most memorable and inspirational entrepreneurs. Now, women are entering not only in selected profession but in every field of business activity. They are contributing in economy growth (Dhakal, 2006). Their role is also being recognized and steps are being taken to promote women entrepreneurship. Government and non-government organization has provided special entrepreneurial training programs for women to enable them to start their own venture. Financial institution and bank have also set up special program to assist women entrepreneur in Nepal (Shrestha, 2007). In the same way, micro-credit project for women is one of the government efforts to improve the socio-economic status of women by providing credit facilities. Hence, women's participation in entrepreneurial activities especially in urban areas is less than desirable (Tuladhar, 1996).

Most of the entrepreneurs of Nepal are housewives or fresh graduates with no previous experience of running a business and are involved in traditionally women-oriented business like garments, beauty care and fashion designing which either do not require any formalized training or are developed from a hobby or interest into a business (Tuladhar, 1996).

2.1.3.1 Socialization Pattern

Country's economic development can be expected through optimal utilization of its human resources in economic activities. Women, who constitute more than half of the total population of Nepal, are less privileged in many instances than men. The women who are literate and have formal education, technological know-how and other technical skills are very nominal in number. Most of them are involved in household and agricultural activities. Only a few numbers participate in economic activities (Shrestha, 2007).

Total population of Nepal is 2,64,94,504 out of which the number of female in total population is 13,65,463 (51.41) (Source: Census 2011). In Nepalese society women are given a subordinate position at all level. If we examine a women's life through the various phases of her life cycle it becomes very clear how this societal structure and the concomitant value system has affected women's attitudes. Most of the women are facing the problem of wrong attitude of the society. In a male dominated society, like ours, women are encountered with many socio-personal problems. The entire socialization pattern in Nepalese society is such that the young boys are prepared for the world of productive works and decision-making, while girls are trained to be effective housewives, mothers and service providers. From a very early age it is instilled into girl's mind that their duty lies in providing services to their family and assisting the mother in household responsibilities. In this way society prepares her for the world of caretaking the future generations (Shrestha, 2007). Self-effacement, gentleness, sacrifice, soft spoken and other feminine qualities are encouraged in her upbringing. Decision-making, strength of expression and articulateness, opinion formation, thinking of one's own needs and interests, future career planning etc are given low priority during her socialization process (Tuladhar, 1996). Furthermore, especially in rural areas she is for the most part confined to an inside world and not permitted to interact with the outside world of information and knowledge. They confine themselves in the society as wives, mothers or daughters. The potential roles of wives and mothers keep them far from formal school or advanced education especially in poor household where parents have to make the choice of educating their male children as a security for their old age (Tuladhar, 1996). In Nepal females literacy rate is 57.4 (CBS, 2011) literacy rate of six years and above population. This type of cumulative psychological pressure of social-culture makes women low in

confidence and unable to demand her right. This habit becomes so entrenched that even if opportunities are available, they may not be able to take advantage of them for themselves (Tuladhar, 1996). In our Nepali culture protection and preservation of female sexuality is highly valued. It is to this complex concept, various constraints and restriction on female's life emerges but to some extent women in urban areas have less restrictions and less psychological pressure. These various Psycho-Socio Cultural factors act as barriers for women to entry into entrepreneurship. It is then natural that women are in a more disadvantaged position than men. Women entrepreneurs face certain problems not as an entrepreneur but as a woman (Gautam and Singh, 1994).

2.1.3.2 Gender division of labor

Gender equality is an essential factor to achieve the goal of poverty alleviation. But gender-wise division of labor of job is a traditional feature of Nepalese society. Women's working hours is very long. In rural setting women are involved in cooking and washing, fetching water and firewood, combined with agriculture related activities that engage them for more than ten to twelve hours a day (Gautam and Singh, 1994). In urban setting most working women face double responsibilities of household work as well as the professional demand of their jobs (Tuladhar, 1996). FNCCI 1966 report shows that women work 105 hours a week that means women work 15 hours a day. But these household's activities are not considered as economic activities and have no monetary value. Economic contribution of women in terms of hours of work is much higher than that of men but they lack the appreciation they deserve. Women's contribution is higher not only in terms of time spent on household work but also in terms of overall household income. In fact, women still continue to contribute, but society doesn't ascribe a value to women's contribution (Tuladhar, 1996).

2.1.3.3 Social Attitudes towards Women's Outside Work

Most of the women are facing the problem of wrong attitude of the society in which she has to live and work. There is discrimination against women in Nepal despite constitutional equality. Women do not get equal treatment in male dominated Nepalese society and male ego puts barriers in their progress. Entrepreneurship has been traditionally seen as a male preserve and idea of women taking up entrepreneurial activities is considered as a distant dream. Women have to face role conflict as soon as they initiate any entrepreneurial activities. It is an uphill task for women to face such conflict and cope with the twin roles. A woman working outside the house is considered as a disgrace to the family in some part of the country (Tuladhar, 1996).

Working women have to bear a double work burden which does not attribute any higher status to them. There are many unwritten rules, which the society scrupulously follows. Most of these rules pertain to women and encompass a wide varieties of social activities like women's interaction with unknown male, women's equalities in terms of their employment, hours of work, dress outing etc. Women can interact only with known persons. In business women have to travel away from their homes. Such things are not accepted by the society. The situation is not uncommon even in metropolitan cities of the country. Women find it difficult to have even business relationship with others due to hostile social environment. There may not be any difficulty for women entrepreneurs who operate on a large scale enterprise because they can afford to employ professional executives for taking care of the business operations. Similarly the women entrepreneurs operating at micro levels like street vendors, petty shop owners, tailoring, weaving knitters, vegetables sellers, etc have fewer problems with the society. The society or community does not judge them harshly because of the size of their business and their economic condition. It is only the women at the mid level (economic wise) who faces a lot of problems in their professions or enterprises. Society seems to be very harsh to women at the middle level. Most women do not have their own choice even in the matter of education. A large proportion of rural girls drop out from schooling at their early ages. In case of getting employment men do not have much problem in taking up employment of their choice, however, women in Nepal and other Asian countries too face lot of problems in getting suitable employment. The organizations prefer women to be employed at

the clerical level. Very less number of women are employed at executive level. Moreover women cannot have free mobility to take up employment at faraway places. All these have resulted in a societal belief that women are suitable only for providing service to the man dominated societal systems. These many socio-cultural factors have confined women to traditionally prescribed and socially acceptable roles and without male approval even women's decision becomes non functional. But still now in many cases social or community attitudes towards women are still the same. Women are viewed as weak, passive and obedient. In some cases, society considers weakness in a man if his wife is working outside. Putting aside the few cases of fortunate urban elite women, it must be considered a success for a woman in rural areas to come out from their traditional cocoons. However, these traditional concepts cannot not be resolved in a short period of time. It takes time to realize that women are also a valuable human resources. Government and society have to undertake more concrete efforts in order to change the societal values and traditions with respect to women (Tuladhar, 1996).

2.1.4 Impact of Socio-cultural Norms on Women Entrepreneur Development

2.1.4.1 Low value attached to women's work.

Our societal and cultural and practice has given low value to women's work. They are frequently not even considered as work. Even if it is classified as work, then it is not seen as worthwhile work - it is only supplementary part-time, ad hoc and frivolous work. These are the general comments most of the women entrepreneurs have to face. Thus, these prevailing social values, cultures and perceptions to some extent restrain the growth of women entrepreneurs in Nepalese society. Ranabhat's study (1995) shows that most of the Nepalese Women Entrepreneurs who have family get success. The majority of women entrepreneurs in Ranabhat's study 70.6% live in a joint family and 51.5% of the entrepreneurs have trade and industry as their family background. It clearly indicates that joint family can be supportive to women who want to start their own business. Not only this, it was easier for women to go into business if their family occupation was business, so that they would often be trained in business environment.

2.1.4.2 Low level of confidence

Low level of confidence is one of the most cited problems among women entrepreneurs. As women are accepting a subordinate status, as a result they lack confidence in their own capabilities. Even at home family members do not have much faith in women possessing the ability of decision making. Lack of self confidence, will power, strong mental outlook and optimistic attitude amongst women creates a fear of committing mistake while doing their piece of work. The family members and the society are reluctant to stand beside their entrepreneurial growth (Gautam and Singh, 1994).

A comparative study of entrepreneurial characteristics of men and women in developing countries shows a high level of self confidence in men and medium level of confidence among women. Ranabhat's study (1995) also shows the result that Nepalese women entrepreneurs are more concerned about the high quality of work and efficiency but they were found weak in self confidence persuasion and assertiveness in comparison to male entrepreneurs. Most of the women entrepreneurs think that being hardworking is a characteristic of successful entrepreneurs. It was found that the family also doubt and lose confidence in woman's capability whether it is related to their mobility outsider home or to mortgage as collateral to obtain loans from bank. Such lack of confidence in women's capabilities is evident not only in the family circle, but also in the supporting agencies. In this way lack of family confidence and the negative social perception towards women have had a disabling impact on building up women's confidence (Ranabhat 1995). Lack of experience, lack of adequate technical knowledge, lack of business exposure and conservative attitude toward risk taking are some of the personal problems of women entrepreneurs. Women who are employed at some business enterprises, back home, they have been involved only in activities concerning home making. 29% of the organisation (who are involved in WED Program) mention the lack of confidence in women to carry out entrepreneur decisions (IEDI 2013). A majority of the household do not consult women in major decision as well. This type of situation makes women feel that they can't manage major problems individually. Another related problem of women is the lack of adequate technical knowledge. Women students are not encouraged to take technical courses, because society thinks that it is a subject matter for male. Some physiological problems faced by women can also help reduce women's confidence.

The fragile structure of the body, menstruation, pregnancy, infant caring, household activities, conservative social attitude towards women etc can affect their confidence. There is also a belief that being a weaker sex and subtle, women cannot withstand longer hours of work and works at odd hours. This environment is not congenial to women to take up those entrepreneurial ventures, which demand a lot of their time at odd hours. So generally it is believed that most of the women entrepreneurs operate and get success in feminine types of business such as dress material, beauty parlor, handicraft, management and travel services.

2.1.4.3 Double Roles and Responsibilities

One of the main duties of women in Nepal is to look after the children and their family members. A very little time and energy is left for business activities (Hada and Shrestha, 1992). A married women entrepreneur has to strike a perfect balance between domestic activities and business activities. The women entrepreneur cannot succeed without the support and approval of husband (Shrestha, 2000). Thus, occupational backgrounds of families and education level of husband have a great influence on the growth of women entrepreneurship. Women also face the conflict of performing home role as they are not available to spend enough time with their families. They spend a long hours in business and as a result they find it difficult to meet the demand of their family members and society as well. Their inability to attend to domestic work, time for education of children and personal hobbies and entertainment add to their conflicts (Tuladhar, 1996).

Many socio-cultural factors have confined women to traditionally prescribed and socially acceptable roles. Their primary role is as a helper in husband's occupation and home-maker. They are expected to be in the house, as a house wife or a mother, and men are supposed to be involved in outside activities including income generation. Pregnancy, child-bearing and rearing is purely female work. Household activities and child care activities require more time. This is one of the most important factors which limit women's responsibilities and involvement in activities outside of the household. Balancing time between these double roles and responsibilities is a problem for many women entrepreneurs. (Lathwal 2011) concludes that the business success depends on the support the family members extended to women, in the business process and management. IEDI 2013 survey finds out that 33% of the

organization mention that women entrepreneurs are facing problem of double work load.

2.1.4.4 Lack of education and training system

In our society more importance is being given to a male child as compared to a female child. This mindset results in lack of schooling and necessary training for women. As a result, these activities impede the progress of women and handicap them in the world of work. In this way, education and training are prime factors for personnel development (Hada and Shrestha, 1992). One of the main objectives of training and education for women is that it increases their role and participation in national economy. It helps them to become an entrepreneur by self employment. It also leads to create employment opportunities for others. There are some organizations that are involved and are working in the field of women entrepreneurship development for the economic upliftment of country by providing opportunities and promoting women to engage in economic activities. According to population census 2011 in Nepal only 57.4 percent women aged 6 years and over are literate, females who have ever attended school are 42.9%. Especially among rural elite, statistic shows that female participation in education system declines as the level of schooling goes up indicating a higher tendency of drop-out. This has prevented women from improving their access to successful occupations, career development and higher level of vocational and technical training. The steady increase in overall total literacy rate from 14.3% in 1971, to 23.5% in 1981, to 39.6% in 1991, to 44.1% in 2001, to 65% in 2011, (Census 2011). This shows notable growth and improvement in education. However, women have ranked very low in educational profile throughout 3.7% female vs. 24.7% male in 1971, 11.5% female vs. 34.9 male in 1981, 25.0% female vs. 54.5% male in 1991, 42.8 % females vs. 65.4 % male in 2001, 47.4% female vs. 57.1 male in 2011 (Census 2011).

Nepal Government has launched a number of innovative programmes to increase and enhance equal access for female to education but the existing infrastructure is still inadequate to meet the special need of females. The domestic work burden for women is too great. They are also subject to poor health and nutrition as well as an early marriage. All these make very few economic opportunities open to women (Shrestha, 2007).

Not only education, training is also needed for being an entrepreneur. Training in simple words can be described as arousing an interest, instillation of knowledge, creating awareness and stimulating her to move forward. Women may be trained for entrepreneur career through awareness development, achievement motivation, management skill development etc. Entrepreneurship training aims to effectively change the individual in terms of knowledge, attitude and skills, relevant to the entrepreneurship function (Tuladhar, 1996).

Persons may be trained for entrepreneurial careers so as to increase the level of confidence and achievement orientation. Training creates positive behaviors such as striving for excellence, learning from feedback and moderate risk taking (Gautam and Singh, 1994). It builds up confidence of the individuals to generate alternatives and solve the problem with the adoption of best alternatives. In entrepreneurship training, learning by discovery is usually preferred (Gautam and Singh, 1994). In Nepal there are so many governmental and non-governmental institutes who are launching different women development programs and services. Their programs are focused towards providing business awareness and start up management skill. They also cover area like credit, linkage to market, linkage to credit counseling business education, policy intervention, technical support, information, etc. The organisation involved in women entrepreneurship development programs carry out different types of training programs and services according to need of beneficiaries and empowering women through knowledge and skill. The main program and services provided to women are enterprise development training programs, counseling program, skill development training programs, business management training programs, seminar/workshop, trade fair, exhibition, interaction program, market linkage/networking, micro finance program, industrial visit program etc. The content of the training programs is based on demand and nature of training they conduct. IEDI report 2013 shows that a total number of two lakh sixty one thousand three hundred and sixty (261360) women were trained under different training programs and 100919 of women are trained under enterprise development training. More women have been trained by Micro Enterprise Development Program (MEDEP) 115,510, Centre for Self help Development (CSD) 54,161 and Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF) 47,420 under various WED training Programs."

Governmental and non-governmental institutes provide different type of women entrepreneur development (WED) programs and Services. Some of them are Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF), Micro Enterprise Development Program (MEDEP), Industrial Enterprise Development Institute (IEDI), Netherlands Development Organisation, United Mission to Nepal, Federation of Nepal Cottage and Small Industries (FNCSI), Centre for Self help Development (CSD), Women for Human Right, Single Women Group., Sakriya Sewa Samaj, Helvetas Nepal, Asia Network for Sustainable Agriculture and Bioresearches, Federation of Business and Professional Women Nepal (FBPWN), GTZ/NCLUDE, Cottage and Small Industry Development Board (CSIDB), Department of Women Development (DWD), Federation of Nepalese Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FNCCI), TIPS/ Women into New Network for Entrepreneurial Reinforcement (WINNER), Society of Local Volunteer's Effort (SOLVE), Federation of Small of Medium Enterprise in Nepal (FSMI), Fair Trade Group Nepal, Women Entrepreneur's Association of Nepal (WEAN), WEAN Multipurpose Co-operative, WEAN Co-operative Society Ltd., Chhimeki Bikas Bank Ltd (IEDI survey report, 2013)

All these organisations are continuing the WED program in different regions to uplift the poor, socially and economically deprived women to make them independent by helping them develop enterprising spirit and skill, by supporting women economically to minimize poverty and gender equality and to make them capable of managing business. In order to become a successful entrepreneur, woman needs support and guidance once the training program is over. Supports like EDP training, financial support, credit facility, market linkage, skill training, family Support and Government policy are equally important for a woman to become an entrepreneur. To strengthen the women entrepreneurs economically and socially, support from both government and non-government organisation is needed. Enterprise development trainings like micro enterprise creation start and improve your business, entrepreneurship development, etc. need to be continued. Similarly other skill development training like food processing, goat raising, bead making, vermin compost, mushroom farming, candle making, vegetable farming, handicraft designing, textile, bakery, tailoring, cooking, incense stick making, pig keeping, tika making, papad making, hand knitting, hosiery, block printing, doll making, soap making. etc should also be continued. Bee keeping, carpet weaving, Dalmoth and Potato chips making, dhaka

weaving, dying, fruits and vegetable processing. Beauty parlor, handmade paper and craft, tomato ketchup pickle, wool shal & Sweater Weaving etc should also be continued (IEDI Survey report, 2013).

Seminar/workshop, interaction program, counseling, trade fair, exhibition, market linkage/networking, micro finance, Industrial visit and follow up program are the other programs which have been carried out by the different organizations in the field of women entrepreneurship development.

The types of training programs provided by the respondent organizations for the development of women entrepreneurship are as follows:-

Table 2.1 Types of training programs and services provided by the respondent organization

S.N.	Name of the training programs	Training program duration	Number of organization
1.	Enterprise development training program	3 to 21 days	19
2	Counseling program	Based on case	8
3	Skill development training program	3 days to 6 month	20
4	Business management training program	2 days to 6 month	3
5	Seminar/workshop	1 to 3 days	4
6	Trade fair/Expo/Exhibition	3 to 15 days	5
7	Interaction program	1	4
8	Market linkage/networking	1 to 7 days	14
9	Micro finance program	Based on program duration	7
10	Industrial visit program	2 to 4 days	1
11	Follow up program	1day	3
12	Others (Literacy program social mobilization, secretariat training program and resource management)	3 to 6 months	4

(Source IEDI Study Report, 2013)

IEDI Study Report 2013 shows that 24 respondent organizations, 20 organizations conduct the skill development training, 19 organizations conduct enterprise development training, 14 organisations carry out market linkage/networking, 8 organisations conduct counseling program, 7 organisation have micro finance program, 5 organisations organise trade fair/exhibition, 4 organizations do

seminar/workshop, 4 organisations do interaction program, 4 organisations do other program like literacy program, social mobilization, secretarial training program and resource management, 3 organization conduct business management program, 3 organisations conduct follow up program and 1 organisation has industrial visit programme.

Above table shows that most of the programs are conducted for 1 to 21 days except skill development training like tailoring, hand knitting, hosiery beauty parlor are conducted for 2 to 6 months. Business management training like marketing management training conducted by Federation of Business and Professional Women Nepal is for 6 months, other programs like secretarial training are conducted for 6 months and literacy programs are conducted for 3 to 6 months by Federation of Business and Professional Women Nepal.

2.1.4.5 Financial Constraints

In today's context, there is a need to motivate and maximize women's participation in Economic activities so that it can improve the economy of the country. According to the 2011 population census, only 59% of women, out of the total population are economically active. Some of the factor's hindering the growth of women's participation in economic activities are the family and social cultural environment, gender issues, male-oriented society, dual responsibility, unequal property right low education and negative social belief, etc. It has become important to maximize women's participation in Economic activities in Nepal and many government bodies and NGO's have been prioritizing women related programs. This has resulted in an increased women's participation in economic activities. Over the past few years statistic show that there is an increased women's participation in income generating activities even though most of them are involved only in cottage level economic activities. Their contribution may still be little but their rate of growth is increasing. At present, Nepalese women entrepreneurs are still facing inherent problems. Most of the enterprises run by women are established with low capital investment. Fixed as well as working capital investment are not enough for the smooth running of their business. Lack of access to credit has been an important limitation on women's opportunities to establish enterprise and engage in economic activities. Many studies have repeatedly emphasized that one of the main constraints faced by women is the

lack of financial support for business creation and operation. Various women entrepreneur's workshops have shown that more than 50% of their problems are related to the inadequacy of capital. 70% of the organisations involved in WED program mentioned that women have both capital and financial problem (2013 IEDI). In Nepal, law has provided equal right in property to son and daughter but in practice male is given greater control over his ancestral property. But female in a similar situation is still under male control whether it may be father, brother or son. This problem is not only faced by Nepalese women but also by women in other Asian countries.

Kumbhar (2013) highlights that in Indian families, the degree of financial freedom for women is very poor, especially in lower educated family and rural families. In these families women cannot take any entrepreneurial decisions without the consideration of the family members as well as considering special ethics and tradition. Due to the financial dependency a woman cannot start any business or any economic activities to become independent. Therefore, this has become a vicious circle of dependency for women in India. Kollan and Parekh (2005) conclude that to be women and to do something on their own becomes quite difficult for them because of lack of access to fund as women do not possess any tangible security and credit in the market .Before marriage she has to depend on father and after marriage she has to follow the footsteps of the husband. As such women do not enjoy the right over the property of any form and they have limited access over external sources of fund. Even getting loan from either a bank or financial institution becomes exceedingly difficult.

Tuladhar (1996) highlights that women's right to property depends on the social condition of marriage. A woman can also have her own private property in the form of "Daijo" and Pewa (Daijo or dowry consists of property given to a woman on the occasion of her marriage). This property will not be included in the ancestral property to be shared by the husband's family. Theoretically, the woman has control over her own "daijo" 'Pewa' is any property that a woman owns as a direct, legal gift from her husband, father or brothers or that she has earned herself. She enjoys full ownership over her 'pewa' however these are the only two categories of property over which a woman may have full and independent control. But this much property is not enough to run an enterprise. They do not have easy access to bank loan because of problem like collateral, complicated banking procedures. The family hesitates to provide a

mortgage as collateral to the banks. Even if they do, normally banks ask for guarantees from guardians because bankers have low confidence in worker's capacity to repay. So these things created difficulties for women obtaining loans from banks.

Finance is said to be the "life blood" of every business undertaking whether it may be large, medium or small scale enterprises. Usually women entrepreneurs face the problem of shortage of finance on some important grounds:

- Women do not generally have properties in their own name to use as collateral securities for obtaining from banks and other financial institutions.
- The banks also consider women less creditworthy and discourage women from borrowing on the belief that they cannot repay back the amount of loan.
- Most male members of the family do not want to invest their capital in the business run by women due to lack of confidence in their ability to run venture successfully.
- Complicated procedure of bank loans also creates lot of problem in getting the required finance.
- Women entrepreneurs even face problems in getting requisite working capital financing for day to day business activities. Women entrepreneurs have to depend upon their personal saving and loans from family and friends. Obtaining the support of bankers, managing the working capital, lack of credit resources add to the problem which still remain in the male domain.

Due to lack of capital many women entrepreneurs have been unable to expand their business. There is a big question mark on how to solve the capital problem of women entrepreneurs who have no collateral. The problem can be solved only if women can have the same property rights as enjoyed by men (Tuladhar, 1996). Married women have no right to ancestral property and they cannot claim any property from their husband also. This system of women's property rights leaves them with no capital of their own. This limits their capacity in operating enterprises as self-reliant risk. (GEM report on women entrepreneurs, 2007) highlighted that transparency, the rule of law and well defined property rights promote productive entrepreneurship at all times and places. Equal opportunities policies need to be framed because women entrepreneurs do not act or perform in seclusion from their society and communities.

2.2 Literature Review

A significant body of research has emerged over the last twenty years on the growth and development of women entrepreneurs, their contribution to the economy and why supporting them is of any significance and perhaps the argument to determine that as a group they are an untapped economic resource (Edwards, 2012). Public perception and history would propose that entrepreneurship is naturally the field of businessmen. As in most countries, a significant amount of businesses are owned by men (Dzisi, 2008).

2.2.1 Characteristics of Women entrepreneurship

Rao, Venkatachalm, Joshi (2013) studied “A study on Entrepreneurial characteristics and success of women entrepreneurs operating fashion and apparel business” where focused on analyzing the entrepreneurial characteristics with the success of women entrepreneurs operating micro, small and medium scale fashion and apparel enterprises. A self-administered questionnaire was employed to collect the data from the sample in the study area. The data collected was processed using SPSS software for comparing the means of the entrepreneurial characteristics and success of women entrepreneurs. For the purpose, the women entrepreneurs were classified into four levels of success based on the employment generation and the sales turnover. Cross tabulation is carried out to show the significance of the different entrepreneurial characteristics and the success of women entrepreneurs.

The analysis of the entrepreneurial characteristics in terms of human capital reveals that education, training in the specific sector and the prior experience help in operating the enterprise successfully. The study on the entrepreneurial intensity suggests that the successful entrepreneurs run a considerable amount of risk in operating and expanding the enterprise.

The analysis on the entrepreneurial motivation suggests that irrespective of the success levels most of the women entrepreneurs’ dream and desire motivates them to start the enterprise. This is considered crucial factor in starting and operating the business. According to the literature entrepreneurship is a dynamic concept and there is no single factor that can be attributed to the success. The present study was an

attempt to list the entrepreneurial characteristics that might help in operating the business successfully.

OECD (2012) address two related issues how to distinguish entrepreneurs from other economic agents and how to distinguish women and men enterprises. Apergis et. al (2010) have also argued that female entrepreneurial activity is closely related to social and economic issues, particularly because women focus on their families. Nedelcheva, September (2012) studied on driving factor for women in Denmark to start their companies, their personal backgrounds, financing pattern, balancing work life and family and challenges in doing so. She reported that Personal motivations, business idea, perceptions and characteristics play a critical role in the decision to act entrepreneurially. Further it has been detailed that women use less bank loans compared to men when they have to finance their business. Women who are in their natural environment and have their well-established network are more often pulled to become entrepreneurs, while the international women are exposed to conditions that push them to start their own businesses. Women often have intrinsic motives behind their business activities. Women have preference to start small without making large investments. Business growth is not a priority for the women who put emphasis on work-life balance (Nedelcheva, 2012) .

Ademokun and Ajayi (2012) conducted a study “Entrepreneurship Development, Business Ownership and Women empowerment in Nigeria” among 200 trained women entrepreneurs who have participated in entrepreneurship training at Central Bank of Nigeria (CNB) Entrepreneurship Development Center. The findings from the 200 trainee’s sampled shows that the need for independence is the major reason women start a business.

The broad objective of this study was to investigate the effect of entrepreneurship training on women business activities. However, the study had the following specific objectives:

1. To investigate the factor(s) that motivates women to be entrepreneurial.
2. To investigate the characteristics of women business owners in Nigeria.

Ademokun et.al (2012) used structured questionnaires to gather quantitative data. Questionnaires were distributed using stratified random sampling procedure. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics.

The study showed that majority of the respondents used their personal fund to start their business and operate home based and unregistered business that could hardly pay levy for the operation of their business. Contrary to the traditional buying and selling businesses women did in the past, businesses in the service sector is gradually taking over.

Akingunola and Onayemi (2010) conducted an empirical study in “The Role of Informal Finance in the Development of Women Micro-Businesses in Nigeria. A Case Study of Ogun and Oyo States” by analyzing statistically, both primary and secondary data set collected for the purpose. The objective of this paper was to establish the extent of women accessibility to finance as well as discover the relevance of micro credits in financing businesses owned by women in the informal sector of the economy.

Akingunola and Onayemi distributed questionnaires among 500 women from target audience in five towns of Ogun and Oyo States. Their study focused on household type target that focused on source of credit, assessment of eligibility to access loan, the rate of interest on loan, utilization pattern of credit, etc.

The research concluded that insignificant proportions (respondents) of women entrepreneurs patronized formal commercial banks for loans, implying the need to provide alternatives to formal institutions as well as the increasing need to encourage informal micro-finance groups.

The research further found that formal financial institutions may not really be discriminating against women; rather, they were unable to satisfy their credit needs because of the low-income yielding propensity of their businesses as well as the inability of these women micro-entrepreneurs to provide acceptable collateral securities.

Wube (2010) studied the “Factors affecting the performance of women entrepreneurs in Micro and Small Enterprises”. It also addressed the characteristics of women entrepreneurs in MSEs and their enterprises. A descriptive survey research design was employed in the study to assess the key factors that affect the performance of women entrepreneurs in MSEs in Dessie town. The study has taken the sample of 203 women entrepreneurs engaged in 5 sectors using stratified and simple random sampling. The results of the study indicate the personal characteristics of women entrepreneurs in

MSEs and their enterprise affects their performance .It also shows that lack of own premises(land), financial access, competition, inadequate access to training, access to technology and access to raw materials were the key economic factors that affect the performance of women entrepreneurs in MSEs. The study also found that conflicting gender roles, social acceptability, and network with outsiders were the major social factors that affect these entrepreneurs.

Chotkan (2009) studied in her research a comparison is made between Surinamese female entrepreneurs in Suriname and Surinamese female entrepreneurs in the Netherlands. The factors that were taken into consideration are family support, growth of business, motivation, gender effect. In her study, she found positive influence on their career choice and that the family is supportive towards their choice and size of the firm does not matter but their high level of motivation creates growth automatically. The female entrepreneurs in the Netherlands have a lack of self-confidence when it concerns the growth of their business and women in developed countries like the Netherlands are more often ‘pulled’ into entrepreneurship, whereas women in developing countries as Suriname are more often pushed’ into entrepreneurship due to economical circumstances.

Hackler, Harpel and Mayer (2008) performed a study on finding the relationship between elements of human capital and self employment among women. The study showed that self employed women differ on most human capital variable as compared to the salary and wage earning women. The study also revealed the fact that the education attainment level is faster for self employed women than that for other working women. The percentage of occupancy of managerial job is found to be comparatively higher in case of self employed women as compared to other working women. This study also shed light on similarity and dissimilarity of situations for self employed men and self employed women. Self employed men and women differ little in education, experience and preparedness. However, the main difference lies in occupational and industry experience. The percentage of population holding management occupation is lower for self employed women as compared to self employed men. Also the participation levels of self employed women are found to be less than that of self-employed men in industries like communication, transportation, wholesale trade, manufacturing and construction.

Zein, Widad, Ahmed, and Lorenzl (2008) studied “Women in Food and Beverages Business in Urban Markets of Khartoum State” where they focused on Sudanese women working in food and beverages business in urban markets of Khartoum State. The main objective of the study was to identify the reason behind women’s work in small scale business in urban markets; to figure out the constraining and enhancing factors that affect women’s performance as entrepreneurs; to identify women’s attitude and strategies in dealing with marketing issues; to find out the socio economic impact of working women on their families; and to come up with some strategies that could empower women and minimize the obstacles they face in their business

The study followed the descriptive and analytical approaches making use of both secondary and primary data. Zein, Widad, Ahmed, and Lorenzl (2008) conducted in-depth interviews with fifty business women working in thirteen urban markets in Khartoum State. These women were engaged in trading, production, processing and selling of food and beverages.

The research validated the hypotheses that business women are highly stimulated by their socio-economic conditions and that their work in the market has positively affected their family’s life and their ability to survive. The research concluded that the number of business women providing services in food and beverages will continue to increase as long as there is economic and political stability. Hence, small-scale business women should be offered ample facilities and support.

To sum up, the study is very helpful in understanding the methodologies in conducting researches. The study was analyzed and discussed using various metrics like age, marital status, education, social status, family members support, types of activities, location of business, constraints, etc. The study also provided guidance on analyzing the characteristics of women entrepreneurs and also on explaining the style of business operations by women entrepreneurs. Further, the study also discussed the constraints factors that women of Sudan faced during conducting their business. Few of the constraint were sexual harassment, difficulties in getting fund, illiteracy and lack of knowledge and skills, time constraints, negative stereotyping of women’s market, gender-power relations, and lack of regulatory laws for women. These constraints are no different from what women entrepreneurs in Nepal face. Hence, this study was used as guidance in discussing those in Nepal.

Ranasinghe (2008) identified the factors contributing to women's entrepreneurial success. Findings are drawn from interviews of six successful women entrepreneurs from six different businesses. The findings are captured through qualitative research method according to the conceptual framework developed. The key findings support the factors identified in the framework: early childhood experiences, psychological characteristics, entrepreneurial competencies, formal and informal learning and external support; and an additional factor identified was termed as culture, to contribute to women's entrepreneurial success.

Dabke, Salem, Genaidy, and Daraiseh (2008) conducted research on "Job Satisfaction of Women in Construction Trades". The aim of this study was to assess the perceived importance and satisfaction level associated with work elements for tradeswomen. The objectives of this study were (a) to summarize existing research and literature on women in construction trades and evaluate studies performed on job satisfaction of construction workers in the United States, (b) to determine the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction related to work factors, i.e. "work", "pay", "supervision", "opportunities for promotion", "people on the job", and "job in general," and to analyze the relationships that exist between these satisfaction measures and demographic variables. These variables include age, education, number of dependents, number of trade years, duration of work, and frequency of work outside of the local area.

The first objective was met by conducting a comprehensive online literature review of 12 databases followed by a bibliographical search. To meet the second objective, a questionnaire was developed to collect information about demographics importance, and corresponding satisfaction related to work elements from women working in construction trades in and around the metropolitan areas of Cincinnati, Ohio. Thirty-nine tradeswomen from the Cincinnati area were surveyed to assess their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with construction work.

The study concluded that research on women in construction trades is limited. No study has provided empirical evidence regarding perceptions of tradeswomen about the different elements of construction work. Although a few female workers were surveyed in the past surveys of construction workers, no study has compared their perceptions with those of men. Studies on motivation and job satisfaction of construction workers neither identify nor compare perceptions of tradeswomen about

their work. Results of this exploratory study showed that pay, benefits, and job security are most important to women in their occupation. Although tradeswomen appear to be satisfied with the nature of work in construction trades, this is not the case in terms of pay, benefits, and job security. Demographic variables did not affect the level of job satisfaction for women in construction trades. In order to develop appropriate programs and guidelines to manage a diverse workforce, there is a need to study the perceptions of tradeswomen about their work.

Adeyemi (2004) studied “the characteristics of successful Nigerian Women Entrepreneurs” where he focused on describing the characteristics of Nigerian Women entrepreneur who have been successful in their business venture. This paper attempts to understand who these successful women are and what their trademarks for success are. A questionnaire survey was employed for this study. Results are drawn from 75 respondents who identified themselves as female Nigerian Entrepreneurs, and who have achieved recognized success in their businesses. It provides an insight into the personal and business experiences of these women to give a broad picture of successful women. The study addresses issues such as personal profile, business profile, motivations, problems encountered on their way to success, and the success formulae.

A questionnaire survey was employed for this study. The survey was conducted over a period of six months in 1992/2000. The questionnaire consisted of the following eight sections: 1. Personal Background; 2. family Background; 3. Previous Work Experience; 4. Background on existing Business; 5. Business Experience; 6. Motivation for Starting Business; 7. Problems Encountered; 8. Attitudes toward Success. The questionnaire comprised a total of 37 questions.

Some of the major findings were that successful women entrepreneurs seemed to be better educated than less successful ones. Among the successful entrepreneurs, 70% had a university degree whereas only 23% of the less successful ones were university graduates. Almost two out of five (38% women entrepreneurs owned one business. The rest owned more than one business. 25% owned two businesses, 27% owned three businesses while 10% owned more than three businesses. This worked out to an average of two businesses per entrepreneur. On the whole, 39% of women-owned businesses were in service, 29% were in retail, 21% were in wholesale and 11% were in manufacturing. About two-thirds (64%) of the businesses were private limited

companies; the rest were partnerships (21%), sole proprietorships (14%) and public companies (1%). About two out of five (43%) women entrepreneurs employed family members. The family members included siblings (28%), spouse or fiancé (20%), parents (10%) and children (10%). When asked where their source of financing for starting the business came from, 83% of women entrepreneur indicated that they used their personal savings. Other sources of finance came from family, relatives or friends (50%), banks (28%). The successful women entrepreneurs seemed to be the ones likely to have initiated the idea of starting the business than the less successful one. Among the successful women entrepreneurs, the need to support the family also seemed to be greater than that of the less successful ones. At the launch of the business, the successful entrepreneurs seemed to have faced more social problems than the less successful ones (significant at $P = 0.05$). 67% of the successful women faced this problem compared to 29% of the less successful ones. This meant that at the start-up stage of the business, the successful women felt that they were discriminated against and were also not accepted in the male-dominated business community, probably due to gender prejudice.

Carter et al (2003) conducted a literature review and study of over four hundred academic articles that directly focused on women entrepreneurship. Their studies indicated that the majority of studies include descriptive accounts of the characteristics and motivations of women in business and their experiences. Within more recent studies specialist themes have emerged in areas such as finance, business networks and performance.

Brush (1990, 1992) observed that men and women entrepreneurs differ very little with respect to demographic and psychological variables, while more pronounced differences seem to exist in business goals and management styles. Similarly, Langowitz and Minniti (2005) found that the factors influencing female and male entrepreneurship tend to be the same. In spite of these similarities, women participation rates in entrepreneurship are systematically below than those of men. Greene (2000) provides a possible answer to this puzzle by suggesting the existence of differences in average human and social capital.

Certain studies like Singh and Sengupta (1986) on women entrepreneurs have been on entrepreneurs attending entrepreneurship development programs. The conclusion drawn by Singh and Sengupta (1986) revealed that the profile of a woman

entrepreneur was not dominated by either education or lack of it. Educated women perceived entrepreneurship as a challenge, ambition fulfillment and for doing something fruitful, whereas less educated entrepreneurs had clarity about their projects but needed moral support from males and other family members for setting up their enterprises.

Cooper (1981) proposed that three factors influence entrepreneurship antecedent influences (i.e., background factors such as family influences and genetic factors that affect motivation, skills and knowledge), the "incubator organization" (i.e., the nature of the organization that the entrepreneur was employed in just prior to starting a business, the skills learned there), and environmental factors (e.g., economic conditions access to venture capital and support services; role models).

Research from western nations indicates that women and men differ on some of the above factors. For example, women have greater difficulties in acquiring venture capital, lack financial resources and skills (Aldrich, 1989; Hurley, 1991); have fewer informal support systems and networks (DeWine and Casbolt, 1989), and have less direct, relevant experience than men (e.g., Stevenson, 1986). Other obstacles faced by women entrepreneurs include being accepted as a woman in business, lack of a role model, lack of professional interaction, difficulties in gaining the confidence of their clients and suppliers, lack of adequate training, and lack of related experience (Belcourt, et al, 1991; Collette & Aubry, 1990; Goffee & Scase, 1985; Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Kent, 1988; Lee-Gosselin and Grise, 1990; Timmons, 1986).

While these are important issues, many researchers feel that tension between personal lives and career pursuits is the most significant problem that women entrepreneurs face (e.g., Belcourt, et al, 1991, Lee- Gosseling & Grise, 1990; Neider, 1987). For example, Neider (1987) found in a study on female entrepreneurs in Florida that tension between personal life and career was a major problem for these women. Spouse are generally not very involved in their wives' businesses, are not supportive of them (e.g., Decarlo & Lyons, 1978; Flesher & Hollman, 1980; Goffee and Scasse, 1985) and expect them to continue with their household duties despite the demands of their business (Goffee and Scasse, 1985). This, perhaps, is not surprising for until recently, women were confined to private, domestic roles. The role of the entrepreneur did not conform to the traditional roles that women were expected to play in society. These factors, and others, may result in female owners facing more

workfamily conflicts than their male counterparts. While the major reasons for starting a business are similar for men and women, some differences have also been found. For example, according to Lavoie (1992), potential for financial gain was not the primary motivating factor for women; women were more likely to start a business for the challenge and opportunity for self-fulfillment. Other researchers have suggested that women are more likely to start a business for control over the quantity and quality of work and as an option to limitations in career advancement (Belcourt, et al, 1991; Berard & Brown, 1994; Charest, 1994).

2.2.2 Motivation and Management factor for women entrepreneur

Li, Bao, and Jiang (2013) conducted a study in “Leadership styles of Entrepreneurial Women in Eastern China: Characteristics and Differences”. This study explored the Leadership Style (LS) among entrepreneurial women in eastern Zhejiang Province and Shanghai in China by surveying 225 entrepreneurial women, who were selected randomly from economically developed. The participants were launching or operating their business ventures under the influence of a strong entrepreneurial atmosphere that currently prevails in the developed areas in eastern China, and with the purpose of a better realization of their own value. The women were mostly opportunity based entrepreneurs.

The objective of the survey is to interpret the characteristics of, and differences among, the LS of a group of entrepreneurial women in eastern China. Li, Bao, and Jiang researched a number of studies conducted on entrepreneurship of women ranging from 1970s to 2000s. In order to conduct this study, Li, Bao, and Jiang distributed questionnaires through three channels. First, they surveyed women who were studying the Executive Master of Business Administration program in a Chinese university that was distributed to them by their class teachers. Second, the researchers themselves and their friends and relatives directly distributed questionnaires to their women acquaintances or friends who were entrepreneurs. Third, the researchers sent questionnaires to the class advisors of two primary schools in a city in Zhejiang Province, and women who were entrepreneurs were selected from among the parents of children attending these primary schools.

In order to conduct the study, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was used to interpret the characteristics of the LS of entrepreneurial women. The

questionnaire studies two dimensions of leadership i.e. (i) the extent to which a leader applies management functions to define the roles of leaders and group members, initiates actions, organizes group activities, and establishes well-defined working patterns and (ii) the extent to which a leader exhibits concern and respect for the members of the group. According to how each participants performed in the questionnaire, each individual entrepreneur was categorized into four styles of leadership i.e. directive, participative, supportive, and achievement-oriented. The result concluded that majority of the women adopted an achievement-oriented style of leadership. In addition, there were differences in both initiating structure and consideration leadership styles of the women entrepreneurs according to the length of time that the enterprise in which the women were working had been established. Li, Bao, and Jiang used SPSS 16.0 to do all their statistical analysis.

In summary, the research work of Li, Bao, and Jiang was very useful in understanding the leadership style adopted by the women entrepreneurs. Further, it also confirmed that women could possess both masculine and feminine traits while running their business. In fact, the percentage of women having both masculine and feminine traits was highest among senior female managers.

Mazzarino (2013) authors an article called “Entrepreneurial Women and the Business of Self Development in Global Russia”. She focused on women in small and medium sized business. The article is based on ethnographic fieldwork with women who occupied management positions in St. Petersburg and Moscow firms. In order to understand how women forged social niche for themselves, Mazzarino (2013) conducted nineteen months of field work between 2005 and 2010 with highly education managerial women and their families, spouses, romantic partners, colleagues, and friends.

Research methods included participant observation in professional, domestic, and recreational settings in addition to a series of semi structured interviews with each of the twenty-six women who served as key informants. Most of the women participating in research owned small, service oriented firms in sectors such as tourism, private education, or intercultural communications.

In conclusion, Mazzarino (2013) points out that women’s personalized approaches to change worked against the epistemic violence of their inability to see themselves in Russian politics, the media, or popular culture. It took effort and social collaboration

for them to say that they wanted something for themselves rather than to subscribe to a collective good not of their choosing. Women did not want their interests circumscribed by someone else, whether contemporary political institutions or foreign feminist groups, with their definitions of women's identities and interests.

Nyamwanza et.al (2012) in their paper "Financial Management: Case Study of Gweru Women Entrepreneurs" looked to examine why women driven enterprises in Zimbabwe have shown marginal growth sign. Given the absence of growth amongst women entrepreneurs, research aimed to consider financial management strategies by women entrepreneurs. The study identifies challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in managing business finances. Furthermore, financial management challenges (lack of financial management training, need to cater for family needs, lack of confidence in financial management skills) faced by women entrepreneurs were identified.

The study surveyed 80 female owners of various small and medium enterprises who were randomly selected from the license database of the Gweru City council. A questionnaire was created and distributed among the samples. 53 out of 80 questionnaires were received comprising 66% response rate. Stat 11 software was used to analyze the data. The survey was done to test following hypothesis. Results of the testing are also presented along with the hypothesis.

- H0: Confidence in financial management is not determined by education levels. (Reject null Hypothesis)
- H1: Confidence in financial management is determined by education levels.
- H0: Confidence in financial management is not related to financial management training. (Cannot reject null hypothesis)
- H2: Confidence in financial management is related to financial management training.
- H0: Confidence in financial management is not determined by financial management skills. (Reject null Hypothesis)
- H3: Confidence in financial management is determined by financial management skills.
- H0: Confidence in financial management is not determined by confidence in ability to manage. (Reject null Hypothesis)

H4: Confidence in financial management is determined by confidence in ability to manage.

H0: Financial management responsibility is not determined by work experience.
(Reject null Hypothesis)

H5: Financial management responsibility is determined by work experience.

The study concluded that women entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe have very limited financial management skills which might be the reason behind the inability of their businesses to grow significantly. The study also found out that woman entrepreneurs used very little of the money raised to fund the business and a large proportion for other expenses not related to business. Most women do not have management skills such as bookkeeping, inventory management, personal management, and basic marketing hence most business owners end up losing track of their daily transactions and cannot account for their expenses and profits at the end of the month.

Bhardwaj et.al (2011) conducted a research on "Women Entrepreneurship in India." The purpose of this imperial study is intended to find out various motivating and demotivating internal and external factors of women entrepreneurship. It is an attempt to quantify some for non-parametric factors to give the sense of ranking. These factors also suggest the way of eliminating and reducing hurdles of the women entrepreneurship development in Indian context. The main objective of this study was to identify the reason for women for involving themselves in entrepreneurial activities, to identify the factors of hindrance for women entrepreneurship, to determine the possible success factors for women in such entrepreneurial activities, to make an evaluation of people's opinion about women entrepreneurship. This study was based on primary and secondary data. The secondary data is collected from review of past researchers and other reports. The factors have been identified and then classified into three categories, factors responsible for hindrance, reason for starting the business and reason for success in women entrepreneurship. Eliminating the obstacle for women entrepreneurship requires a major change in traditional attitude and mindset of people in society rather than being limited to only creation of opportunities for women. The basic requirement in development of women entrepreneurship is to make aware the women regarding her existence, her unique identity and her contribution toward the economic growth and development of country. The entrepreneurs should be reaped into the minds of the women from their

childhood. Providing skill training package can pave the way for development of women entrepreneurship and government should also set some priorities for women entrepreneurs. The study tried to find out the difference among various set of people of the crucial factors which are concerned with the women entrepreneurial opportunities at large. It should be cross checked with the real entrepreneurs. The factors may vary but women entrepreneurship is necessary for the growth of any economy whether it be large or small.

Bailey (2011) stated in his research that African American women have the highest percentage of businesses owned by women in the United States. Social barriers and economic challenges unique to African American women make their success in persisting beyond the 5 year start-up average astounding. The purpose of study was to identify the motivational factors that influenced African American women to pursue entrepreneurship. It also explored how Black women business owners use those motivators to lead their organizations.

The methodologies used were four open-ended interview questions. 6 African American women entrepreneur who resided locally were interviewed in her place of business with thier permission. The concluding remark of their research was that driving motivators for entrepreneurship are the pursuit of happiness and passion for the work, ability to achieve work life balance contributes to success as an entrepreneur, community involvement is viewed as a responsibility, reluctance to talk about barriers and education is essential to sustaining business. Jahanshahi et al (2010) support Cassandra L. Bailey (2011) that women most often found businesses in order to meet personal goals, such as gaining feelings of achievement and accomplishment. Sinha (2007) studied the issues, initiatives and experiences in developing women entrepreneurs in South Asia. They focus on women entrepreneurs in the formal sector rather than micro-enterprises and stated that women's family obligations often bar them from becoming successful entrepreneurs in both developed and developing nations.

Similarly, Orsolya (2010) also studied on female entrepreneurs' motivation for starting up and managing small and medium sized businesses but in two Romanian counties, the two administratively identifiable territories of Harghita and Covasna counties. They found that women entrepreneurs from Szeklerland have average education, are more willing to study, to participate in vocational-training, they have

better communicative competence in Romanian language, and many of them speak English as well. For the majority of woman the entrepreneurial activity must be absolutely compatible with family life and mostly everything is in the second place: individual self-fulfillment, professional success and career development. Older women are less risk-taking entrepreneurs, rather organizational ones. Younger women are those who are willing to take on considerable financial risks, they are more flexible, more courageous, and are opened to other kinds of "territories." In terms of entrepreneurship, they are much more dynamic.

Only a small number of women can be called intentional-entrepreneurs: they are the ones whose old dream, desire was to create an individually imagined job, a special working environment. Independence occurs as a very important motivating effect: in those cases, for the non-forced entrepreneurs the most important motivating effects were independence, income and flexible working hours.

Cohoon, Wadhwa, & Mitchell (2010) presented a detailed exploration of men and women entrepreneur's motivations, background and experiences. The study is based on the data collected from successful women entrepreneurs. Out of them 59% had founded two or more companies. The study identifies top five financial and psychological factors motivating women to become entrepreneurs. These are desire to build wealth, the wish to capitalize own business ideas they had, the appeal of startup culture, a long standing desire to own their own company and working with someone else did not appeal to them. The challenges are more related with entrepreneurship rather than gender. However, the study concluded with the requirement of further investigation like why women are so much concerned about protecting intellectual capital than their counterpart. Mentoring is very important to women, which provides encouragement and financial support of business partners, experiences and well developed professional network.

Gadar et.al (2009) conducted a study "The Influence of Personality and Socio-Economic Factors on Female Entrepreneurship Motivations in Malaysia" among 685 Malaysian women to examine the Malaysian women entrepreneurs' background, motivation factors, personal characteristics and perception on entrepreneurial behaviors.

Gadar et.al (2009) collected data by using both interviews and questionnaires. Questionnaires included 76 closed ended questions. The sample of 685 women

covered all 13 countries in Malaysia which were divided into 5 zones. The 685 women were registered members of women entrepreneurs within the Malay Chamber of Commerce, Trade Association of Bumiputra Women and Women Entrepreneur Association in Malaysia.

Analyzing the data showed that a majority of the respondents were Malays, 618 (90%) and more than half of them aged above 40 had 3 children or more. 70% of respondent had secondary qualification, while 10% were university graduates and the remaining 20% had primary education. In terms of family background, almost 50% of the respondent did not come from entrepreneur's family. Majority of respondents were engaged in various business types such as manufacturing, restaurant and café, transportation and business services. The result of the analysis further showed three main findings. First, the correlation analysis shows that entrepreneur's income correlated very weak with both education and experience levels. On the other hand, there is no correlation between entrepreneurial income and age factor. Third, with the exception of age factor, entrepreneur's income differs significantly according to experience and education.

The study found that job dissatisfaction and retrenchment as well as social networking were important factors influencing female entrepreneurship. This study showed that economic environment such as technology and information were the driving force for starting a business which contradicts earlier studies which found economic independence was the most important factor for women to start a business.

Merwe and Lebakeng (2008) investigate women entrepreneurship in Lesotho and make practical recommendations to enhance women entrepreneurship in the country. A survey that included 54 women-owned businesses was conducted. Women entrepreneurs in this study were motivated by pull factors, such as the need for independence, self-fulfillment, work flexibility and a need for a challenge to self-employment. Factors such as dissatisfaction with salaried jobs and insufficient family income pushed them into self-employment. They are currently facing obstacles, such as obtaining finances, work-home conflict, lack of education and training in business and management skills. They, furthermore, indicated financial support, business training and advice, the need to network with other business owners and marketing support as their main support needs. Practical recommendations are suggested to Government and women entrepreneurs to overcome these obstacles and to ensure that

women entrepreneurs can sufficiently contribute to the economy and empower themselves economically.

The analysis of women entrepreneurs by **Goffee and Scase (2008)** shows how business start up enables many women, but not all, to achieve forms of economic and social independence that they would not otherwise enjoy. Further they illustrate ways in which business proprietorship has a wide variety of effects upon individuals, and upon their personal relationships and lifestyles. They refute the notion of a single entrepreneurial experience and argue that the causes and consequences of business start up are highly conditioned by the extent to which women are committed to traditionally prescribed roles and to profitability.

Singh (2008) presents “An Insight into the Emergence of Women-owned Businesses as an Economic Force in India” at a conference held on December 14, 2008. The paper identifies the reasons and influencing factors behind entry of women in entrepreneurship. He explained the characteristics of their businesses in Indian context and also obstacles and challenges. He mentioned the obstacles in the growth of women entrepreneurship are mainly lack of interaction with successful entrepreneurs, social un-acceptance as women entrepreneurs, family responsibility, gender discrimination, missing network, low priority given by bankers to provide loan to women entrepreneurs. He suggested the remedial measures like promoting micro enterprises, unlocking institutional framework, projecting and pulling to grow and support the winners, etc. The study advocates for ensuring synergy among women related ministry, economic ministry and social and welfare development ministry of the Government of India.

Bushell (2008) highlighted that entrepreneurship for women is often seen as a journey out of poverty and a march towards equality. Studies have proven that entrepreneurship, in the form of small and medium sized enterprises, can indeed empower women and through time, fundamentally transform power relations within a society, making it a place where women can lead. However, in the past, women's entrepreneurship in much of the developing world has gone little beyond informal business ventures which ensure daily survival for women and their families. Hertz (2011) and International Finance Corporation (2011) argue that women entrepreneurs are a significant force in the economy generating in the US economy over a trillion

dollars in revenue annually and employing millions of workers and Women entrepreneurs make significant contributions to their economies.

In Nepal, embedded structural and socio-cultural constraints challenge women entrepreneurs and make it hard for them to realize their potential as leaders in business. It suggests policy measures, business and management training, and the promotion of entrepreneurial networking systems, as potential ways to empower women entrepreneurs and create leadership opportunities, in the hopes of bringing women into the mainstream business sector in Nepal.

Aylward (2007) studied on the factors that influence the women to start up the business in a traditional female industry sector or in a more male oriented high technology industry sector. He found that differences do exist between women who own and operate business in traditional industry sectors compared to those in high technology sector. Also the education and educational system has a key role to play in developing technology based entrepreneur. In addition, parental influences are more strongly seen in choice of non traditional careers. It further talks females in traditional industry sectors who are likely to associate themselves with feminine traits like flexibility, quality oriented, customer focused, sympathetic but high technology counterpart associate more with masculine traits.

Mark (2007) describes the experiences, initiatives and obstacles faced at five Nordic countries like Finland, Denmark, Iceland, Norway and Sweden towards women entrepreneurship in “Women Entrepreneurship – A Nordic Perspective”. The objectives of this study are to promote female entrepreneurship, to identify obstacles that prevent women business to grow, to learn from other countries initiatives and their best practices. It broadly identifies few obstacles like financing, lack of knowledge and skills in business life, markets and entrepreneurial activity, work life balance including lack of growth and wishes to grow and most importantly women as other groups are heterogeneous.

The paper concludes that the Nordic countries are somewhat different when it comes to policies and strategies towards women entrepreneurs. The study compares early stage entrepreneurial male & female activity among Nordic countries with that of the USA. It also compares various program and schemes developed by Nordic countries and agencies that provide support to them. OECD and European Commission are focusing on methodologies in analyzing quantitative and qualitative women

entrepreneurship. The Nordic countries need a framework for policy learning develop a proper policy mix towards promoting women entrepreneurship.

Jhlhankangas (2007) & Anwar & Rasid (2006) studied literature around female entrepreneurs, focusing on female entrepreneurship in the developing world and more specifically in Finland respectively. The study has discussed the various pull and push motivational factors to become an entrepreneurs which includes independence, self fulfillment, income, dissatisfaction towards work, age, difficulty in receiving job, etc. The study consists of theoretical research as well as empirical research. They have found that difference exists between male and female entrepreneurs. Females mostly strive to achieve self-fulfillment and accomplishment through self-employment. During study in Ghana by Anwar & Rasid, female respondents ranked self-fulfillment higher than other end results.

Similarly, Heilman & Chen (2003) as well as Botha (2006) argued that various push-and-pull factors exist that can motivate women to start their own businesses. Maas and Herrington (2006) defined push factors as the more negative factors, such as unemployment and retrenchment, which force people to become entrepreneurial in order to survive. They regard pull factors to be the more positive factors, such as government support and role models, which might influence people to choose entrepreneurship as a career option. Ghosh and Cheruvalath, (2007) found that only one-fifth of women are drawn into entrepreneurship by pull factors. The rest are forced into entrepreneurship by push factors

Mohinuddin (2006) women became entrepreneurs due to the following reasons: (a) Economic needs, (b) As a challenge to satisfy some of their personality needs (power, achievement novel experience, etc. (c) Educated women like to utilize their knowledge gained. (d) Family occupation and (e) as leisure time activity women face the same difficulties as those by men.

Orhan and Scott (2001) examined “Why women enter into entrepreneurship: an explanatory model”, using in-depth interviews with 25 successful French women entrepreneurs. The study further investigates why women set up their own firms. It sets out the principal activity of their businesses, the professional sector they operate in, the number of their employees and the geographic area in which they operate and identifies a number of themes within the discussions of why they set up their businesses.

The information was gained from interviews, was analyzed and was then combined with information from previous research in order to develop consolidated model of female entrepreneurial motivation. This research has identified there are a range of reasons why females become entrepreneurs namely “dynastic compliance”, “no other choice”, “entrepreneurship by chance”, “natural succession”, “forced entrepreneurship”, “informed entrepreneur” and “pure entrepreneur”. The findings do not reinforce the assumption that a majority of women become entrepreneurs for reasons of necessity and identified antecedents to the generalized “push”, “pull” and environmental motives. Based on this analysis, develops a typology of women entrepreneurs - dynastic compliance, no other choice, entrepreneur by chance, natural succession, forced entrepreneur, informed entrepreneur and pure entrepreneur, illustrating this with quotes from the interviews.

Kanugo (1998) explained that the development of the country is possible only through the emergence of small-scale and rural enterprises. He believed that this requires building up of wider base of population capable of entrepreneurial behaviour. He took an example of India in the context of development that industrial development took place in urban centres in initial stage and this trickled down to rural communities over time. Development strategy today, however, seeks a more proactive and immediate change in India. Some people believe that enterprise creation as a function of appropriate economic conditions and others has stressed on training and attitudinal change as vital elements. But these interventions are not based on systematic observation and research through which entrepreneurship emerges and sustains itself. So, he stressed that there is a need to develop comprehensive research based models of entrepreneurship in the context of development. Various authors have contributed the articles on different topic like conceptual models, focus on entrepreneur as a person, role of entrepreneurial intentions and motivations in enterprise creation and growth, management skills needed for starting and sustaining small business.

Cromie and Hayes (1991, cited in Haynes and Helms, 2000) and Hisrich and Brush (1985) found factors such as dissatisfaction, frustration and boredom in previous jobs were the most frequently cited reasons for pursuing entrepreneurship. Job dissatisfaction issues were most often cited among female entrepreneurs in the Hisrich and Brush (1985) study. Buttner and Moore (1997, cited in Haynes and

Helms, 2000) examined the primary entrepreneurial motivations within a group of women executives and professionals who had left large organizations to start their own businesses. The potential satisfaction from entrepreneurial opportunities to pursue independent interests and factors related to previous job dissatisfaction were examined. This study found satisfaction with the autonomy and independence of ownership to be the most important determinant of this group of female entrepreneurs. Most of the studies examining the demographic characteristics of female entrepreneurs have done so in comparison to male business owners (see, for example, Hagen, Rivchun and Sexton, 1989; Schiller and Crewson, 1997). While such studies have identified some differences, many of the demographic predictors of entrepreneurship were identical to those of males: age, work experience and years of self-employment were also the dominant predictors of success for female entrepreneurs. In addition, having a parent who was a business owner has been found to increase the likelihood of female entrepreneurship (Herron and Robinson, 1993, cited in Haynes & Helms, 2000).

Shah (1987) study was based on three categories of sample (i) women entrepreneurs of middle and high middle income groups including working women and housewives. (ii) Women entrepreneurs having science and technology background and coming from middle and lower middle income groups and (iii) women entrepreneurs of low income group coming from the lower strata of society. The data analyzed revealed that the distinctive features of women entrepreneurs in all the three categories were needed for achieving self sufficiency in terms of internal and external resource awareness, initiative taking, problem solving and risk taking. Among the motives to become an entrepreneur were economic needs which was an important motive in the low income group, utilization of experience, and education are reported by women with science and technology education. Husband's family support and interest, availability of full time and finance, desire to be independent and personal ego satisfaction of doing something on one's own were expressed by women in all groups.

A survey was developed and administered to a sample of 62 practicing Nigerian female entrepreneurs. The survey was divided into sections that recorded personal demographics, the entrepreneur's perceptions of the business environment and their venture and the motivations and drives that led to the birth of their business. With no or few significant differences shown to exist between male and female business

owners or managers once they have already started an enterprise, there is a strong indication that Africa has sizeable hidden growth potential in its women. From the results presented, it is evident that female entrepreneurship in Nigeria is driven by micro-financing as well as family dynamics that work to shape and influence the birth of a business.

Indeed, although women are still the minority in the business world, they have exhibited entrepreneurial potential and are an important resource in economic growth. In the light of this above statement, women entrepreneurs can influence positive economic growth because employment will be created, standard of living will be improved as income increases. Female entrepreneurship is considered an important tool in enabling female empowerment and emancipation (Anwar & Rashid, 2006).

Bowen and Hisrich (1986) compared and evaluated various research studies done on entrepreneurship including women entrepreneurship. It summarizes various studies in way that female entrepreneurs are relatively well educated in general but perhaps not in management skills, high in internal locus of control, more masculine, or instrumental than other women in their values likely to have had entrepreneurial fathers, relatively likely to have first born or only children, unlikely to start business in traditionally male dominated industries and experiencing a need of additional managerial training. Jahanshahi, Pitamber, and Nawaser (2010) also support Bowen and Hisrich that woman entrepreneurs tend to be highly motivated and self-directed. They also exhibit a high internal locus of control and achievement.

2.2.3 Intricacies of Women Entrepreneur

Lakovleva et.al (2013) conducted a study “Financial availability and government support for women entrepreneurs in transitional economies: Cases of Russia and Ukraine” of 60 Russian and Ukrainian entrepreneurs, bank officers and representatives of government organisations supporting the development of entrepreneurship to investigate the entrepreneurial environment, particularly government support programs and the availability of financial resources, with a focus on women entrepreneurs.

Lakovleva et.al (2013) conducted 60 interviews in Russia and Ukraine to gather information for the study. Study explored the macro/meso environment with reference to entrepreneurs (to obtain insights into challenges of entrepreneurship in emerging

economies), bankers (to investigate financial policy), and support organizations (to examine entrepreneurship programs). The respondents in the sample were reached mainly by virtue of their “accessibility”, using a “convenience approach”. However, prior to the commencement of the research, certain criteria were defined for the selection of interview subjects, including age of the firm and industry. Similar types of entrepreneurs in both countries were selected as well so that the study could explore the same kind of organization. Of the 60 interviews conducted, 42 were in Russia and 18 in Ukraine. In Russia, 21 female and eight male entrepreneurs, nine bank officers from six banks and four officers from support organizations were interviewed. In Ukraine, 13 female entrepreneurs, three bankers, and two officers from support organizations were interviewed.

The study concluded that there is evidence that these 2 former socialist countries have overcome the transition from a command to a market economy and local people are gradually adjusting to the new environment. In Russia several support programs exist and funding is available for entrepreneur. However, according to female interviewers in Russia, they do not use the programs or support activities. This happens because they do not know about such programs or they perceive that obtaining such support is too complex and demanding. However, in Ukraine the situation is opposite. Entrepreneurs do not receive substantial support from the government. They have not heard about government educational and other support programs related to female entrepreneurship. Most entrepreneurs feel that it is easy to start and register one’s own business in Ukraine. This takes only a few days. However, to generate business in Ukraine is difficult, according to the majority of interviewees. First, the supply of goods and services exceeds demand because consumption capacity of the Ukrainian population is low, second business and tax legislation change often over time. Russian and Ukrainian women point out that being an entrepreneur today in these countries requires not only resources and luck, but also knowledge of the “hidden rules of the game”, a deep understanding of the cultural and historical roots of business and being a woman in the post-Soviet context, and a great amount of courage and persistence.

Dabic, Daim, Bayraktaroglu, Novak and Maja Basic, (2012) found that compared to males, female students are less willing to start their own businesses. They state that there are significant gender differences in terms of perceived feasibility and perceived desirability such that although they feel more supported by their families, females are

less self-confident, more tense, reluctant and concerned about entrepreneurship. In terms of entrepreneurial intention, there are fewer gender differences among students; however, differences relating to self-confidence and family support still exist. Furthermore, students cited establishing entrepreneurial mentoring and an appropriate tutoring structure as the most needed entrepreneurial educational activity/program/project at an academic institution; this was rated higher by females compared to males.

Rao and Venakatachalam (2012) study is focused to list the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs with a high value associated with the MSMEs and the potential fashion and apparel sector. A primary test questionnaire was used to identify the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs. The entrepreneurs for the study were classified into four categories of success based on the profit generated. The means were compared to find the most critical challenges faced by women entrepreneurs. The study helps in identifying the variables that are more challenging to the women entrepreneurs which need to be addressed for the sustainable development of the women entrepreneurs of the region. The findings could help the educational institutions to develop an educational strategy for training the women entrepreneurs.

Rao and Venakatachalam (2012) emphasize the following critical problems faced by women entrepreneurs viz. access to finance, problem of labor, lack of relevant education and experience, conflicts between work and domestic commitments and access to training. The results reveal that success of women enterprises depends on the formal education and the training received. Most of the women entrepreneurs surveyed were married women who feel confident in running and expanding the business with the support from the family members. The work-life balance is not given priority as the challenge in establishing or diversifying the business. The important challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in establishing and growing the business were finance, finding the skilled labor and increased competition. Women entrepreneurs also rated the assistance in business planning as a crucial factor for the success of any business growth and expansion. The challenges faced by women entrepreneurs need to be addressed by the educational institutions especially in terms of business planning and inculcation of managerial skills.

Rehman and Roomi, (2012) undertook a research on women entrepreneurs in Pakistan which state that increased participation of women in the labor force creates

challenges for them to balance work and family obligations. The situation becomes more complicated in patriarchal societies such as Pakistan due to women's stereotypical domestic roles, religious prescriptions as well as cultural norms and values. Their study aimed to explore different influencing factors on women's work and family roles in the unique Pakistani socio-economic and cultural environment. Their results showed that among other motivational drivers to start their own businesses, achieving work-life balance was one of the most significant ones. Their own businesses gave them flexibility, control and freedom to juggle with their family and social responsibilities. Lack of sufficient time, gender bias, social and cultural norms as well as family responsibilities were the most significant challenges women face to achieve balance in a patriarchal Islamic society. Strategic planning, organizing and delegating are the most effective strategies women use to cope with competing roles of work and family.

Verma Shefali (2012) carried out a research on "challenges faced by women entrepreneurs in developing economy" where he focused on entrepreneurial problems and mentioned the successful entrepreneurial guidelines. Entrepreneur is the key factor of entrepreneurship and now women have been recognized as successful entrepreneurs as they have qualities desirable and relevant for entrepreneurship development. In the process of entrepreneurship, women have to face various problems associated with entrepreneurship and these problems get doubled because of her dual role as a wage earner and homemaker. Main objective of this research is to ascertain the financial, marketing and production constraints faced by women in their enterprise, assessment of their health status and workplace facility, develop guidelines for becoming a successful entrepreneur. The study was conducted in four zones of Haryana. Random sampling technique was adopted for the selection of study area. A sample of hundred women respondents (25 each from in zone) was taken on the basis of criterion that they should be running their enterprise independently.

And not in partnership enterprise taken up for the study were boutiques, beauty parlors, handloom units, nursing home, P.C.O's, general stores and carpet making units. Interview schedule for collecting primary data by survey method. Women entrepreneurs faced constraints in aspects of financial, marketing, production, workplace, and health problem. Financial problem: non-availability of long term finance, regular and frequent need of working capital. Poor location of shop and lack

of transport facility were major marketing problem. Production problems include the problem of non-availability of raw material. Guidelines framed as a solution to those problems can help women entrepreneurs to deal with those problems effectively.

Nassif, Andreassi, Tonelli, and Fleury (2012) conducted a research on “Women entrepreneurs: Discussion about their competencies”. The objective of the research is to analyze the entrepreneurial competencies that characterize women in the Southeast region of Brazil, with some financial limitations, when responding to quotidian challenges in their businesses, these being the result of their trajectories built throughout their social interactions. It also sought to understand the meaning of the challenges, obstacles and competencies upon which they rely on unexpected circumstances, without concern for enumeration and/or measurement of the events studied nor the generalization of the results.

The research is classified as exploratory, intending to explain the phenomenon studied based on the point of view of the research subjects. Seven female participants were involved in an entrepreneurship program in São Paulo city and financed by an American bank. Data were collected by means of in-depth interviews, followed by a flexible questionnaire. The data analysis was based on the content analysis and classified into three blocks: Category 1 – decisive factors in beginning the business; Category 2 – challenges and obstacles in the entrepreneurial career; Category 3 - competencies developed and under development during the trajectory.

The results reveal that female entrepreneurs have a perception of their potentialities, limitations, desires and concerns within a scope of cognitive and affective competencies. They recognize the importance of developing perception of opportunity, business and applying leadership competencies. Interpersonal skills, commitment and social perception are sets of entrepreneurial competencies that contribute to their businesses. It is evident that although fragmented in theory, cognitive and affective aspects are, in practice, inseparable.

Edwards (2012) examines the current literature on Women Entrepreneurs and their access to financial resources. It goes on to review what are the challenges faced in acquiring these resources and the current gaps that exist in the research, particularly in the developing world. The key themes that emerge from the literature are that women entrepreneurs face challenges in accessing finance and particularly debt and equity

due to the type of business and industry. Additionally, the challenges include the age, size, risk, potential, financial savvy and networks that women businesses possess.

Additionally there are areas such as angel financing, bootstrapping and funds from family and friends which have not been studied in detail despite the fact that many women use these types of funds to start and grow their firms.

Women continue to face challenges in accessing debt finance. This has been shown to be more of a challenge for women who start or are involved in low growth businesses within industries, which are either small or stagnant. The size and growth potential of the firm also plays a significant part in determining whether the entrepreneur is easily able to access debt finance. Equity financing for women entrepreneurs appears to be even more challenging to obtain. Brush et al (2001) and Brush et al (2004) have argued that women are willing to access and obtain equity financing both through equity and angel funding. They also suggest that the difficulties exist due to the myths which include women's unwillingness to own high growth businesses and don't have the financial savvy or network to start these high growth businesses that attract equity funding. Further research is recommended on the supply side of the equity industry to determine, like with banks, whether there are factors which affect the supply of venture capital to women entrepreneurs.

Mitchell (2011) conducted research on "Overcoming the Gender Gap: Women Entrepreneurs as Economic Drivers". The paper explores the intersection of two issues that often are thought of separately: the need for sustained economic recovery in the United States and the status of women's entrepreneurship. The paper focuses on following themes:

- While every entrepreneur, big or small, helps the economy, the emphasis here is on those who start high-growth companies, which help the most.
- More women's startups need to be aimed at growth targets far above the oft-cited benchmark of \$1 million in revenues. There is a particular need for innovative, transformative new firms that can grow to serve global markets.
- Many (though not all) high-growth firms are built around new science and technology. With more women than ever entering these fields, the upside potential for women's tech startups is huge.

- What it takes to succeed in business is not necessarily the same as what it takes to succeed in *starting* a business. While women have made great strides in breaking through the proverbial —glass ceiling‡ to advance to high rank within corporations, few have made similar strides in breaking out laterally—through what might be called the —glass walls‡—to start their own high-growth firms.
- What it will take‡ to have more high-impact women entrepreneurs includes all of the following: what women themselves might need to do, what men might do, and what might be done collectively in the way of public policies or private initiatives.
- Finally, to reiterate the main point: It is essential to see women’s entrepreneurship as an economic issue, not a gender-equity issue. When new companies and industries flourish, everyone benefits. And the returns will increase when more women contribute to the process by bringing their ideas to market and building high-growth firms around them.

The report concluded that Not-for-profit initiatives advancing opportunities for high-growth women entrepreneurs need greater funding and skin in the game from women executives, philanthropy leaders, and industry. Further, successful women entrepreneurs or inventors should make themselves visible and available.

International Finance Corporation (2011) provides evidence and recommendations on expanding the ability of women entrepreneurs to pursue economic opportunities, invest additional capital, hire more employees, and grow their businesses. Women entrepreneurs make significant contributions to their economies. Women-owned businesses appear restricted in their growth paths. Women’s entrepreneurship is largely skewed towards smaller firms. Women entrepreneurs are also more likely than their male colleagues to be in the informal sector, running smaller firms mainly in service sectors and thus operating in lower value added sectors. In addition, they operate more home-based businesses than do men. Across regions, women entrepreneurs have lower access to finance than do male entrepreneurs. This is particularly problematic for women entrepreneurs who want to grow their businesses.

Women are particularly disadvantaged in financial markets due to their lower asset ownership and property rights. Women generally have fewer years of work experience and less control over their earnings, and typically earn less than men. This

directly affects their ability to save and build assets. Human capital is a strong predictor of entrepreneurial activity, but women still have lower measures of human capital. However increasing women's education, skills, and experience would further enhance their financial access opportunities.

Cham (2011) carried out a study to find out the challenges faced by female entrepreneurs within Accra and Ghana. Females have been identified as individuals that encounter more obstacles in starting and growing their businesses as compared to their male counterparts especially within informal small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) where they are pre-dominantly employed. Thus, female entrepreneurs in Danquah Circle were participants of the study in that women who owned and managed businesses in the saloon industry were interviewed to further find out the constraints they encounter in starting and growing their business. Data was gathered for this research using secondary and primary data.

Most of the saloon owners completed high school and furthered their education by doing their tertiary education in universities and polytechnics while others completed diploma courses such as the Higher National Diplomas (HNDs). However, there were few women whose educational levels were at Senior Secondary School (SSS) but attended vocational schools where they learned about hair and other beauty related courses. The researcher found that there are two major reasons for being entrepreneur that is personal motivation and financial motivation. Women especially those in Ghana, are driven by self-fulfillment and achievement because in the Ghanaian society, women are given little respect for their accomplishments and abilities. But what they found was financial motivation was not the major reason to start their business; though it is a motivating factor because of the rewards in that it generates income. The most common challenge faced by Ghanaian women while starting up their business was access to credit and human capital problems; mainly management and technical skills and the hiring and training of competent staffs during growth phase.

Halkias, Nwajiuba, Harkiolakis and Caracatsanis (2011) performed study on "Challenges facing women entrepreneurs in Nigeria". The study examines the business and social profiles of 67 women entrepreneurs in three regions of Nigeria in order to identify patterns of entrepreneurship and social and economic challenges facing women business owners in Nigeria. The study aims to support and encourage sustainable small-scale economic development activities by Nigerian women and

determine ways to integrate these small businesses into existing urban economic development projects and strategies for poverty alleviation, expand understanding of the business and social profiles of women entrepreneurs in Nigeria, examine the contextual influences on their work, raise the level of awareness of women entrepreneurs amongst all economically active agents and researchers, influence social and economic policy addressing issues of women entrepreneurs.

A survey was developed and administered to a sample of 62 practicing Nigerian female entrepreneurs. The survey was divided into sections that recorded personal demographics, the entrepreneur's perceptions of the business environment and their venture and the motivations and drives that led to the birth of their business. The study found that with no or few significant differences shown to exist between male and female business owners or managers once they have already started an enterprise, there is a strong indication that Africa has sizeable hidden growth potential in its women. From the results presented, it is evident that female entrepreneurship in Nigeria is driven by micro-financing as well as family dynamics that work to shape and influence the birth of a business.

Thakral (2010) conducted research on “Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs in a Developing Economy” on hundred women entrepreneurs selected from four zones in Haryana. Poor location of unit, tough competition from larger and established units, and lack of transport facility, lack of rest and sleep, and non-availability of raw materials were the significant problems faced by entrepreneurs. The objectives of the study were to ascertain the financial, marketing and production constraints faced by women in their enterprise; assessment of their health status, work place facilities, and to develop guidelines for becoming a successful entrepreneur.

The study adopted random and snowball sampling technique for selection of 100 women for four zones of Haryana. Enterprises chosen for the study were boutiques, beauty parlors, handloom units, nursing homes, P.C.O's, general stores and carpet making units. The data were analyzed using tabular analysis techniques i.e. percentage, standard deviation, coefficient of variation, chi-square test, analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The study concluded that women entrepreneurs faced constraints in financial sector, marketing production, work place facility, and health problems. Guidelines framed as a solution to these problems can help women entrepreneurs to deal with these

problems effectively. Thus, in order to harness women entrepreneurs potential and for their continued growth and development, it is necessary to formulate appropriate strategies for simulating, supporting and sustaining their efforts in this direction.

Mordi, Simpson, Singh & Okafor, (2010) conducted a study on challenges faced by female entrepreneurs in Nigeria". The main purpose of their study was to examine the challenges female entrepreneurs faced in the development of their business in the context of Nigeria. They argue that in so doing, the study addresses a gap in the literature on the experiences of female entrepreneurs in a non-Western context and acknowledges the contribution that women make in this area of work. The results of their study indicated that female entrepreneurs were generally confident and resourceful and that they enjoyed the challenge of entrepreneurial activity. As in the West, they experienced difficulties relating to family commitments and access to finance – as well as problems gaining acceptance and accessing networks.

Bhardwaj, Parashar, Pandey and Sahu, (2011) intended to find out various motivating and de-motivating internal and external factors of women entrepreneurship. It will also suggest the way of eliminating and reducing hurdles of the women entrepreneurship development in Indian Context. The research is based on secondary and primary data. It's an exploratory and descriptive in nature. The entrepreneurial process is same for men and women. Successful men and women entrepreneurs undergo similar motivations and thus achieve success in largely same way under similar challenges. However, in practice most of the upcoming women entrepreneurs face problems that are of different dimensions and magnitudes than that faced by their male counterparts. The major hurdles that the women face during starting and running a company generally come from financing and balancing of life. The balancing of life is caused due to lack of family support for the women. The other hindering external factors include gender discrimination, inaccessibility to information, training opportunities, infrastructure, etc. Some internal factors like risk aversion by women, lack of confidence, lack of vision of strategic leader etc. can also create obstacles for the women entrepreneurship development.

Jamali (2009) examines the relationship between constraints and opportunities affecting female entrepreneurship in developing countries. It integrates salient micro- and macro-level perspectives and provides a rounded account of opportunities and constraints as part of a holistic interdependent system. He adopts an integrative multi-

level research design and an interpretive research methodology, capitalizing on in-depth interviews with ten women entrepreneurs to explore their perceptions and interpretations of constraints and opportunities facing female entrepreneurship in the Lebanese context. The findings illustrate the relevance of micro-, meso-, and macro-level factors in entrepreneurship research and the usefulness of integrating multiple lenses and units of analysis to capture the complexity of the women entrepreneurship experience in any particular context.

Nawaz (2009) aims to analyze the critical factors of women entrepreneurship development in rural Bangladesh. The analysis is based on recent theoretical ideas that have been supported by empirical research findings. Nawaz depicted an analytical framework based on institutional theory, which focuses on three kinds of factors: regulative, normative, and cognitive. Regulative factors refer to different rules and regulations of the Government that facilitate women entrepreneurship development in rural Bangladesh. Normative and cognitive factors include norms, rules, regulation, and values of society. Based on the analysis of these factors it provides many significant policy implications on how to improve women entrepreneurship development in rural Bangladesh. The services of Government are available in urban areas, whereas rural entrepreneurs continue to be victims of deprivation. In spite of having access to various micro credits, rural women receive almost no training from development organizations, which adversely affects their efficiency and performance. Widespread illiteracy, lack of basic education, training and experience remain serious obstacles in rural women's entrepreneurship development. Besides the lack of awareness, social superstitious and the absence of the rule of law also affect the rural women's participation in economic activities outside the family.

Tambunan (2009) conducted research on "Women entrepreneurship in Asian developing countries: Their development and main constraints" that focused mainly on women entrepreneurs in small and medium enterprises based on data analysis and review of recent key literature. This paper focuses only on women entrepreneurs in small and medium enterprises (SME). Specifically, this paper addresses three research questions. First, how important are SMEs in the region? Second, how representative are women entrepreneurs in SMEs in the region? Third, what are the main barriers facing women to become entrepreneurs or existing women entrepreneurs to sustain or grow in the region?

Methodologically, this study is based on a review of key literature and a descriptive analysis of secondary data, from government sources as well as from International Labour Organization (ILO), or from individual case studies, on women entrepreneurs in Asian developing countries.

The findings of this study show three main important facts. First, SMEs are of overwhelming importance in the region, as they account, on an average per country, for more than 95% of all firms in all sectors, thus the biggest source of employment, providing livelihood for over 90% of the country's workforce, especially women and the young. Second, the representation of women entrepreneurs is still relatively low which can be attributed to factors such as low level of education, lack of capital, and cultural or religious constraints. Third, most of women entrepreneurs in SMEs are from the category of "forced" entrepreneurs seeking for better family incomes. This suggests that when women are better educated and have better paid employment opportunities increase for women, the participation of women as entrepreneurs in SMEs may decline.

Kirkwood, (2009) in his study he found that men tend to have higher self-confidence than women and that this affects their entrepreneurial intentions. However, little is known about how self-confidence affects entrepreneurs in their start-up decision, and even less is understood about how it affects entrepreneurs' decisions and actions in their ongoing business. The purpose of her study was to meet these two objectives by using a gender comparative approach. The findings of her study concluded that women exhibit a lack of self-confidence in their own abilities as entrepreneurs compared to men. This finding parallels results of prior research. Once in an established business, women relate to entrepreneurship less than men and do not feel comfortable calling themselves entrepreneurs. For some women, entrepreneurial self-confidence grew over their time in business. For other women, it appears to continue to act as a constraint – affecting their ability to access finance and curtailing their growth aspirations.

Women's Enterprise Taskforce (2009) studied whether it is true that women are charged more for loan finance than men, and whether women are being disadvantaged when it came to access to finance. The research is set in a context of the economic downturn and financial crisis which have intensified the debate around small and medium sized business finance generally and women's access to finance in particular.

It includes an analysis of whether or not women find it disproportionately more difficult than men to raise money from banks and some insights into whether or not women are charged differential rates to men for any bank lending. There is currently a general understanding that women's start-ups are smaller than men's, undercapitalized, less likely to want to take on debt finance, locally based, young i.e. less than three years old and operating in sectors where growth might be limited. Banks are more likely to loan to women than to men, women are still more likely to perceive access to finance as a barrier. There is therefore a need for changing these perceptions and increasing the confidence of female entrepreneurs in their ability to finance and grow their businesses. Women need better access to finance in order to contribute to the economic upturn by fulfilling their growth potential.

Chamlou (2008) wrote a report on “The Environment for Women’s Entrepreneurship in the Middle East and North Africa Region” about how women entrepreneurs could contribute more to the quality and direction of economic and social development in the Middle East and North Africa region. The objective of the report was to provide a better understanding of barriers to investment and doing business that might be common to all investors and those that affected women entrepreneurs disproportionately. This report offers guidance for policymakers and stakeholders contemplating reforms to the investment climate.

The report examined newly available data from over 5100 surveyed firms in the formal sector in eight Middle Eastern countries (Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Gaza and the West Bank, and the Yemen). The intent of the report was to provide an overview of the characteristics of female-owned firms in the region; analyze gender-specific barriers that exist across the region or within countries; and identify other factors outside the business environment that might affect women’s entrepreneurship

The report concluded that all entrepreneurs in the region face highly binding barriers in the investment climate, with few differences between male and female entrepreneurs. Even so, some elements of the investment climate are gender differentiated and women seem to face hurdles outside the investment climate—hurdles that hold them back from participating in the formal economy. The report finishes with policy recommendations on how to reduce the identified barriers and create a level playing field for women entrepreneurs. The report acknowledges

limitations from the availability and depth of data. It does not attempt to answer every question about women's entrepreneurship in the Middle East and North Africa. Indeed, it may raise more questions than it answers. The hope is to spur greater interest in the topic among researchers and policymakers.

Lall and Sahai (2008) conducted a comparative assessment of multi-dimensional issues and challenges of women entrepreneurship, and family business. The study identified Psychographic variables like, degree of commitment, entrepreneurial challenges and future plan for expansion, based on demographic variables. Through stratified random sampling and convenience sampling the data have been collected from women entrepreneurs working in urban area of Lucknow. The study identified business owner's characteristics as self perception self esteem, Entrepreneurial intensity and operational problem for future plans for growth and expansion. The study suggested that though, there has been considerable growth in number of women opting to work in family owned business but they still have lower status and face more operational challenges in running business.

Malach-Pines and Schwartz, (2008) find out women entrepreneurs have accelerated radically in recent years, the rates of women entrepreneurs remain significantly lower than men's. Research has shown that subjective perceptual variables have a crucial influence on the entrepreneurial propensity of women and account for much of the gender differences in entrepreneurial activity. Their study aimed to describe three studies that addressed gender differences in entrepreneurial perceptions, testing predictions derived from Schneider's Attraction Selection Attrition (ASA) model. The results of their first study showed few gender differences in entrepreneurial traits and values. The results of the second study showed large gender differences in the willingness to start a business among management students and smaller differences among students who intend to start a business. Gender differences were far smaller among actual business owners. Alone and together the three studies support Schneider's ASA model.

Singh and Belwal, (2008) have conducted a study on "Entrepreneurship and SMEs in Ethiopia". They attempt to identify the problem areas and developmental issues attached to women's entrepreneurship related to small medium enterprises (SMEs) particularly in Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia. It also attempted to devise certain stratagems for ensuring women's entrepreneurial growth and SMEs'

advancement in the region. The focused interview identified problems in the areas of securing finances for establishing and running SMEs, lack of entrepreneurial and management competence and exposure, problems in finding the markets and distribution networks; limited opportunities for promotion and participation; limited amount of government and institutional support; absence of technological know-how and integration mechanism; and rampant corruption in an undisguised or disguised form, as major bottlenecks.

Jalbert (2008) and Jahanshahi et. al (2010) undertook a study to explore the role of women entrepreneurs and issues and challenges faced by Woman's entrepreneurs in global scene, especially in Indian Woman's entrepreneurship in a global economy. Jalbert examined how women's business associations can strengthen women's position in business and international trade. The analysis is performed on the basis of facts and data collected through fieldwork (surveys, focus groups and interviews) and through examining the existing published research. The study has shown that the women business owners are making significant contributions to global economic health, national competitiveness and community commerce by bringing many assets to the global market. As per the analysis of the research study, women entrepreneurs have demonstrated the ability to build and maintain long-term relationships and networks to communicate effectively, to organize efficiently, to be fiscally conservative, and to be aware of the needs of their environment and to promote sensitivity to cultural differences. Researchers contend that women business owners possess certain specific characteristics that promote their creativity and generate new ideas and ways of doing things. These characteristics include focus, high energy level, personal motivations, self employed father, social adroitness, interpersonal skills etc.

Allen, Elam and Dean (2007), Parker (2009) and Verheul and Thurik (2001) show that women are overrepresented in the consumer oriented, retail, service and personal services sector, where men mostly have their own businesses in the manufacturing, the financial and the construction sector. Reasons for these differences are factors like education, job experience and start-up capital. These factors do not only have an impact on the type of industry that women want to engage in, but it also influences the decision of becoming an entrepreneur.

Damward (2007) describes the experience, initiatives and obstacles faced at five Nordic countries like Finland, Denmark, Iceland, Norway and Sweden toward women

entrepreneurship. It broadly identifies few obstacles like financing. Lack of knowledge and skill in business life, markets and entrepreneurial activity, work life balance including lack of growth and wishes to grow and most importantly women as other groups are heterogeneous. The study compares early stage entrepreneurial male and female activities among Nordic countries with the same of the U.S.A. It also compares various programme and schemes developed by Nordic countries and agencies that provide support to them. OECD and European commission are focusing on methodologies in analyzing quantitative and qualitative women entrepreneurship. The Nordic countries need a framework for policy learning and developing for promoting women entrepreneurship.

Richardson, Howarth, Finnegan (2004) conducted a study on “The Challenges of Growing Small Businesses: Insights from Women Entrepreneurs in Africa”. The report provided a synthesis of the findings from the Jobs, Gender and Small Enterprises in Africa – a Study on Women’s Enterprise Development (the WED study), which was carried out in Ethiopia, Tanzania, and Zambia throughout 2002. The objective of the study was to identify ways in which Governments, the ILO (International Labor Organization), donors, NGOs and the private sector can improve the prospects for women’s entrepreneurship in the three designated countries and enhance the contribution of women entrepreneurs to the creation of meaningful and sustainable employment opportunities and poverty alleviation.

The WED study involved interviewing 379 women business owners (123 surveyed plus 5 case studies in Ethiopia, 128 surveyed and within these 15 case studies in Tanzania and 118 surveyed plus 5 case studies in Zambia). The study aimed to capture the detail surrounding successful women entrepreneurs’ aspirations, motivations and experiences as regards survival and growth, as well as the issues surrounding their business transition from informal to formal operations.

In summary, the research shows that the majority of the women entrepreneurs had grown or developed their business in some way, and that there was a significant increase in the number of employees from start-up. Significantly, the findings also show that most of those employed were on permanent contracts.

Sinha (2003) conducted a study on “Women Entrepreneurship in The North East India: Motivation, Social Support and Constraints” among 400 men and women entrepreneurs to examine the impact of motivation and social support on enterprise

creation and hence women entrepreneurship. The research revealed that money was the main motivating factor to start an enterprise. The objectives of the study were to ascertain the motivating factors in the emergence of men and women entrepreneurship; to examine the attitudes of family, developmental and promotional agencies towards men and women entrepreneurs; to examine difficulties faced by men and women entrepreneurs; and to suggest measures for promotion of women entrepreneurs.

Sinha administered questionnaires to a sample of 400 men and women entrepreneurs who had already set up their enterprises in Northeast India. These samples were selected randomly by using stratified random sampling, and socio economic status of both groups was matched.

The study concluded that there were no significant differences between men and women entrepreneurs on motivating factors to start the enterprise i.e. both groups wanted to start their unit to earn money. It is important to note that majority of men and women entrepreneurs reported that there was no other option for them but to take up entrepreneurial career because they were not much qualified. The study also revealed that majority of women entrepreneurs seek guidance from their parents or husbands to start a business while majority of men took guidance from other entrepreneurs or took decision themselves to start a business. Both men and women received abundant social support from their family and financial agencies. However, women felt that they were overloaded with domestic role as well as enterprise role. According to the study, traditional activities such as handicrafts and handloom were still predominated activities undertaken by the women entrepreneurs. However, inadequate income generation was still a problem among men and women entrepreneurs and thus, they had to manage finance through their own sources. Several constraints like lack of business ideas and lack of systematic knowledge, shyness, lack of confidence, etc were the major weaknesses for women entrepreneurs. Despite all these hurdles and constraints the study concluded that women of North East region have enough potential to take up entrepreneurship as a career.

To sum up, the research work of Sinha was very useful in understanding the perception of current women entrepreneurs' state in developing country like India. The study shows the unequal treatment of men and women in our society, where women entrepreneurs have to balance work and home while men entrepreneurs are

not surrounded by those constraints. Thus, from this study we can gather the importance of motivating the family members of the women entrepreneurs to help in domestic work. The study also provides a list of suggestions, which, if undertaken by developing countries like ours might encourage women entrepreneur to reach newer heights.

Greene et.al (2003) evaluates the research & publication contribution in the area of women entrepreneurship. The study categorized various journal & resources of research on the basis of certain parameters concerned with women entrepreneurship like gender discrimination, personal attributes, financing challenges, business unit, context and feminist perspectives.

Carter et. al (2003) conducted a study “Women entrepreneurs who break through to equity financing: the influence of human, social and financial capital” of 235 US women business owners to systematically study attributes of women business owners and their equity financing strategies. The study explored the factors associated with the use of equity capital in women led firm.

Carter et.al (2003) used a survey method to administer a questionnaire with “closed” response to women business owner via a telephone interview. Potential respondents for this study came from a survey of US women business owners conducted by the National Foundation for Women Business Owners (NFWBO) in 2000. Since women who seek and/or acquire equity capital appear to be few, a sampling procedure was adopted to maximize the probability of finding representatives of this elusive population. Respondents were women who owned firms identified by Dun and Bradstreet and who met one or more of the following criteria: business operated within an industry associated with venture capital; located in one of the top states for venture capital activity (CA, MA, PA, TX, DC); or showed 15% or more revenue growth over each of the past three years.

The main characteristics of respondents were as follows. Almost 40% of the women were between 45 and 54 years of age, and few were non-white; approximately two-thirds (64%) of the businesses operated in the service sector. The majority of the businesses reported annual revenues of less than \$250000 (62%), and less than 18% reported sales totaling \$1 million or higher. Nearly 45% indicated they had 10 or fewer full-time employees and 41% reported less than \$50000 capital available in their businesses.

Analysis of data showed only graduate education significantly influenced the odds of using outside equity financing. Social capital had no direct effect on increasing likelihood of using equity but influenced the use of bootstrapping techniques. Network diversity was positively related to the use of personal sources of funding, while professional advisor relationships were negatively related to personal sources of financing. Our research suggests women obtaining higher levels of education may increase their likelihood of obtaining funding. Further, during the bootstrap phase, utilizing social capital is an asset.

Goheer (2003) conducted a report on “Women Entrepreneurs in Pakistan” that aimed at obtaining a better understanding of Pakistani women entrepreneurs and their problems. This report is based on a survey of 150 women entrepreneurs in Pakistan, and covered the three major cities of Islamabad, Lahore and Rawalpindi. The sample was comprised of women entrepreneurs from a variety of sectors. In constructing the sample, the women entrepreneurs had to meet specific criteria: the women had to already be in business, they had to be operating from dedicated business premises outside of the home, and they had to be employing a minimum of 5 persons. In the study, efforts were made to determine the attitudes and commitment of the women to growing and expanding their enterprises. The report also describes the barriers and constraints, as well as the support and opportunities facing these women entrepreneurs. In addition to the quantitative findings, the report provides a brief pen picture of 20 of the women entrepreneurs. It provides updates based on an ILO conference held in February 2002 at which the preliminary findings were discussed and a set of recommendations formulated. Based on this information, a summary of project proposal has been prepared by the ILO, and this is also included in the report.

Das (2000) conducted a study on women entrepreneurs of SMEs in two states of India, viz, Tamilnadu and Kerala. The initial problems faced by women entrepreneurs are quite similar to those faced by women in western countries. However, Indian women entrepreneurs faced lower level of work-family conflict and are also found to differ from their counterparts in western countries on the basis of reasons for starting and succeeding in business. Similar trends are also found in other Asian countries such as Indonesia and Singapore. Again the statistics showed that the proportion of business setup and operated by women is much lower than the figures found in western countries.

Study by Das (2000) shows that more than 50 per cent of the women used their own funds or funds borrowed from their spouse or family to set up their business. Another such study done among women entrepreneurs in Coimbatore District, Tamil Nadu points out financing the enterprise as major problem faced by the women entrepreneurs (Mangai et.al, 1992). Most of the entrepreneurs rely on family finance or at the maximum on partners and friends. Lack of access to capital has been a primary obstacle for women entrepreneurs. Research suggests that the primary source of funding for women has been through family loans, personal savings, credit cards and home equity loans.

According to Kuratko and Welsch (1994) women entrepreneurs have long felt that they have been victims of discrimination. Various studies examined the types of discrimination and some have been attempted to document them. This argument is supported by Bruin, Brush, and Welter (2007) Researchers Sexton and Bowman-Upton suggest that female business owners are subject to gender-related discrimination. In addition, Abor and Biekpe, (2006) emphasize that this discrimination against women seems to be even worse in sub-Saharan African countries, such as Ghana, where the financial sector is male oriented. The argument is further supported by Marlow (1997) who commented that discrimination remains a problem for women in self-employment, for example, they experience particular difficulties in gaining bank finance for their ventures.

Challenges to women entrepreneurs cover a wide spectrum, including level of education, inter-role conflicts emanating from greater parenting responsibilities, a dearth of financial assistance and socio-cultural constraints (Ghosh and Cheruvalath, 2007). Although men and women both experience personal problems, women recorded more difficulties. This is especially true with regard to a lack of self-confidence and not being taken seriously by providers of funds when applying for funds (Bridge, O'Neill and Cromie, 2003). It is widely acknowledged that African women have access to fewer resources than men. For example, relative to men, they tend to have lower access to land, credit facilities, education and training facilities (Katepa-Kalala, 1999).

Furthermore, in many African countries, women have fewer inheritance rights either by law or obstacles preventing women from realizing their economic potential as well as constraining economic development (Ong, 2008). Downing and Daniels (1992)

argue that growth-oriented donors have promoted investment strategies in Africa that typically exclude women, due to the commonly held view those women enterprises are concentrated in undynamic sub-sectors that have little potential for contributing to the growth of the economy.

2.2.4 Nepalese Context

IEDI 2013 conducted a study on "Women entrepreneurship development programs and services in Nepal" in Kathmandu. The main objectives of this study was to prepare inventory of the organization involved in women entrepreneurship development program and finds out the women specific consideration in WED programmes and services and to assess WED programmes provided by those organization. This study find out that WED programme is mainly focused on training business (awareness, start up management and skill) and also cover area like credit linkage to market, linkage to credit counseling business, education, policy intervention, technical support information seminar/workshop/trade fair, exhibition, interaction program micro finance program, social mobilization secretarial training programs and resource management are the program and services provided by the organization involved in WED. Regarding the content/subject of the training program, most of the respondents expressed that the content of the training programs is based on demand and nature of training they conduct. 261360 women were trained under different training programs. Uplifting the economically deprived women and making them independent to minimize poverty and gender equality and to make capable in managing business are the main reasons behind continuing WED program.

In Nepal, embedded structural and socio-cultural constraints challenge women entrepreneurs and make it hard for them to realize their potential as leaders in business. It suggests policy measures, business and management training, and the promotion of entrepreneurial networking systems, as potential ways to empower women entrepreneurs and create leadership opportunities, in the hopes of bringing women into the mainstream business sector in Nepal.

Baburam Ranabhat and Carl E Krung (2010) has conducted the study on microfinance. How do we enhance entrepreneurial skills of MFI client? This presentation is about the relationship between entrepreneurship developments and micro finance or more precisely about how we can enhance the entrepreneurial skills

of prospective clients of MFIs. The training intervention itself is based on two distinct methodologies for entrepreneurship development. There are questions: are micro entrepreneurs maximizing profits with the finance available to them or can basic entrepreneurship training lead to improved managerial decisions and profit? The study showed that credit alone does not help the individual to overcome poverty and increasing number of financial institution cannot meet the demand for credit among small scale business because

high number of small entrepreneur find it difficult to successfully apply for a loan,

The difficulty to identify business ideas, market niches and investments with perspectives in the small-scale business sector,

Many borrowers find it difficult to utilize credit profitably, repay it timely and become a steady and reliable client. He concludes that there is evidence that the enhancement of entrepreneurship not only increases the benefit of borrowers but provides advantages to the financial institutions. Investments entrepreneurship training should therefore be openly acknowledged by financial institution as an asset of their client. In this case many small-scale business people will be interested to contribute to the costs and to make such programme sustainable.

MEDEP (2010) has prepared a report "on economic empowerment of women". This study attempts to analyze the level of economic and social empowerment of women in the family and society after undertaking of micro-enterprises. In Nepal women are generally poor in respect to income, asset holding and access to basic social services. Gender disparities in human development especially literacy, school enrollment and life expectancy are the major problems. Gender discrimination and social exclusion remain serious in Nepal. However, since the last two decades, Achievement in terms of social development indicators in both women and men have been observed. The main objectives of this study were (i) to examine the effectiveness of micro-enterprises in creating employment among the women, (ii) to assess the magnitude of involvement of women in micro-enterprises and (iii) to explore the level of economic empowerment of women before and after the involvement in micro-enterprises. This is an impact study of micro-enterprises in Nuwakot District based on the results obtained from 100 sample women entrepreneurs carried out in Nuwakot District, it is found that the socio-economic condition of women has changed and women's access to and control over the resources has increased. As a result, the empowerment level in

decision making and expenses on their own needs, their children's needs and family improved. Efforts to empower women through self reliance, entrepreneurship skills and management awareness training require to be continued. In Nuwakot there were 1,143 micro entrepreneurs, consisting of 667 women in district. Out of this 100 women micro-entrepreneurs were selected. Group discussion and semi-structured questions were asked to the sampled women entrepreneurs on their socio-economic condition, education, access to and control over resources, income sources, decision making power, social network etc. This study made an attempt to analyze the level of economic and social empowerment of women in the family and society after undertaking of micro enterprises. Micro-enterprises have been a major agent in changing women's role from traditional work to non-traditional work. The socio-economic condition of women has changed and women's access to and control over the resources has increased.

FNCCI (2009) conducted a study on status of women entrepreneurs and produced a statistical report. The main objective of this report is to find out the total no of registered women entrepreneur, what type of enterprise are running by these women and what is the range of their investment. This study was based on primary data which was obtained from questionnaire basis from Ministry of Industry, Department of Cottage and Small Industry (DCSI), Cottage and Small Industry Development Board (CSIDB), Nepal Federation of Cottage and Small Industry, Nepal Chamber of Commerce, FWEANS, Organization of Industry. Seventy districts covered by this report because in five district there were no registered Women Enterprise. This report shows that up to 1966 total number of registered Women Entrepreneur are 2631 and most of those Women entrepreneurs are engaged in cottage & small industry. Their investment range is minimum NRs 12,000 to maximum of NRs 4 crore. Employed worker range is from 1 to 152. Though 1990 era is the most important era for women entrepreneurs, because various policy and program has been made in the context of their Economic empowerment. But a woman works 105 hr a week that means women work 15 hour a day but this household activity is not considered as an economic activities and bears no monetary value.

Ramesh Shrestha (2007) in his thesis “Entrepreneurship development in Nepal” has stated that there was greater growth of business run by women entrepreneurs than men. The study also found that majority (56%) of entrepreneurs had received some

sort of training. In his case study he presented that willingness to do something, demonstration affect, availability of free time, business background were some of the factor leading to entrepreneurship. He further concluded that successful entrepreneurs did not have stereotypical profile. People from every age, sex and race had created successful business. They also were originated from different background. According to the finding, the entrepreneurs hailed from business family with education, some work experience and inborn talent, with new ideas as well as unexploited (but existing) ideas.

Bajracharya, Pushkar (2003) study shows that the prevailing and policy environment is not very encouraging to MSE sector. The laws and regulations generally covered only industrial enterprises and do not cover enterprises in other sectors. The study proved that the poverty in the country could be solved through the establishment of microenterprises and small industries. The living standard of the people have improved after they were given training on the skill development and got involved under the supervision of trained trainers. The study also has shown the various problems of the entrepreneurs and strong plea to the government to formulate and implement those policies that foster the development of the country. This research study is undertaken to know the perspective entrepreneurs their training, venture formation, financing, problems and challenges etc.

Khatri-Chhetri and Keshav Karmacharya (2003) conducted a survey to find out jobs created by MSEs and which were influenced by existing policy and the regulatory environment and the way in which the jobs can help to reduce poverty. The operational definitions of enterprises for the survey are as follows: micro-enterprises are those which employ 1-9 persons, and small enterprises are those that employ 10-49 persons.

The objectives of survey were (a) to ascertain the influence that the policy and legal environments have on decision making within the micro and small enterprises; (b) to identify the critical areas of concern for MSE owners/managers and the constraints they face in their operations; and (c) to examine the variation created by differences in programme support, gender and enterprise size.

The survey found that the entrepreneurs, who registered the business, were provided a legal protection and status which make easier to access credit, and most of the enterprises are managed by male entrepreneurs. Male run business had taken business

loan. The survey point out that poverty can be reduced through micro and small enterprises development. The development of country is possible through harnessing the entrepreneurial culture among educated youth, women and ethnic minorities in Nepal. Pushkar Bajracharya et al (2003) have advocated for reviewing the past policies, plans, programmes, infrastructure facilities, arrangement of institutional facilities and other related issues to create conducive environment where MSEs can smoothly operate in the real sense.

The finding of the survey is that there is no separate MSE policy. That has resulted in the absence of coordination among various promotional programmes and activities for MSEs. Policy implementation is poor. Long delay in government services and corruption, weak implementation of rules are some of the problems. Women entrepreneurs in business are few. Patriarchal society inhibiting the initiative of women, gender discriminatory provisions, lack of women focused programme, etc. are the features of Nepalese society. The technology of the MSEs is still of primitive type which affects the productivity and poor infrastructure, lack of government encouragement and support, lack of successful planning by the entrepreneurs, low growth rate of business of certain ethnic groups and educational factor also contribute to the growth and expansion of enterprises.

In Nepal most of the MSEs are family run enterprises with few employees, the occupational safety and health awareness is low and less affected by trade union.

Pushkar Bajracharya et al (2003) had reviewed the legal and policy framework of micro and small enterprise in Nepal. A number of policies, laws and rules influenced the establishment and operation of enterprise in Nepal. Industrial and trade policies and acts and rules tend to promote and encourage enterprises in the country. However, the act and policies do not adequately insure smooth establishment and operation due to lack of clarity and adequate transparency in processes. Efforts are being initiated to improve the policy and legal environment but specific pulls and requirements are not making it easier to create a sustaining environment. He recommended that there is a obvious need to bring out conducive policies and laws to encourage MSEs by removing existing gap. The process should be simplified to reduce the costs.

Parimal Jha & Kumar Upadhaya (2003) had identified issues like lack of explicit policy for microenterprise, non-registration of MSEs, poor financial support to MSEs and poor access to credit, difficulties of MSEs in getting raw materials, utilities and

other support services, poor institutional mechanism, ineffective promotion of micro and small enterprises and entrepreneurs (especially women, youth and disadvantaged group) etc. They analyze the gap in policy, legal and regulatory environment of MSE sector in Nepal and review of policy and legal environment and assessment of MSE sector.

Khanka (2002) has broadly classified barriers into economic and non-economic factors. The economic factors comprise financial capital, labor, raw materials, and market, whereas the non-economic factors may include legitimacy of entrepreneurship, mobility, socio-cultural values, etc. The economic factors are, however, prerequisites for the start-up of any enterprising activities, for their continuation and expansion as well. Easy access to institutional source for credit is a basic hurdle for enterprising activities, particularly in rural areas of Nepal. In absence of institutional credit facility, the credit from informal sources is often not competitive one due to higher interest rate, which, therefore, results into low saving pattern. It is applicable more in the case of females than in males in rural Nepal (Dhakal, 2006).

If an enterprising activity is contingent upon far-fetched raw materials and market is at a distance for hauling the finished product, it poses enterprises major challenges. Other marketing problems of the products in MEDEP districts are damaged goods; due to poor packaging, credit sales, lower price, etc (Subedi, 2006). Transportation linkages reduce risks, production costs and improve easy access to markets, business ideas, knowledge, and capital (Reavley, Lituchy, & McClelland, 2005) The prevailing social values, culture, and perception have become a restraint to the growth of women entrepreneurs in society (Ranabhat, 1995). Restriction in decision making and mobility in Nepal has adversely affected the entrepreneurial ability.

Binod .K. Shrestha (2001) had pointed out the need of entrepreneurs for mobilizing resources in the country as well as developing skills, knowledge and vision among the people through formal and semi-formal education system in the country. He suggested that development of a country is dependent upon the developing the capacity of promotional institutions, which implement the policy and programmes. In his opinion the entrepreneurs should come forwards to help themselves in devising and running the mechanism for resource mobilization for their mutual benefit rather than expecting support from usually inefficient and distorted resource supply system.

Nirmal K. Bista and Binod K. Shrestha (2000) found the opportunities and challenges for entrepreneurs and development of small and medium enterprise in Nepal. The opportunities are for the private sector to play a leading role of economic development in Nepal. The challenges deal with the present stage of Nepalese market opportunities, availability and quality of human and natural resources as well as stage of institutional reforms. Apart from sound macroeconomic measures and facilitation in creating conducive industrial and business environment by government, the paper stressed, it has to take lead in human resource development and updating, leading to overall competence enhancement with the active participation by the private sector.

Madalasa Adhikari (1997), cited in Shrestha, (2007) had observed on women entrepreneurship in small scale industries in Nepal. The objectives were to evaluate women's entrepreneurs programmes conducted by SBPP, ANCSI, WEAN and other Chambers, examine the family support received by women entrepreneurs and social obstacles facing them entering into business and industries, identify need based programmes for the development of women entrepreneurship such as training and marketing.

Her findings of women entrepreneurs were that the Newar (ethnic group) is a dominant majority in the community of women entrepreneurs. Most of them hold certificates in vocational courses such as hair dressing, serving and painting. They also had some job experience before establishing their own business. There were only few percentages of women in non-traditional business and they jump into the business because of the job dissatisfaction (partiality, inadequate salary and intellectual frustration). These findings support the view that people from some communities are more entrepreneurial than others. For example, people from Newar community are believed to be more entrepreneurial in Nepal because of their socio-cultural background. The study also indicates that women from this community were found in entrepreneurial activities. As indicated by the study, training received by those women helped them to enter into entrepreneurship. They also had some job experience before starting their own businesses which also supports the notion that replacement from existing job forces people to enter into entrepreneurship. The women of Terai were not aware of SBPP training and credit programmes. So, she had strongly suggested women need-based programmes and a separate bank for the support of women in the Terai.

Tuladhar (1996) accesses the status - barriers and constraints as well as opportunities and support mechanism of women entrepreneurship in Nepal. It also highlights the socio cultural, legal and educational barriers to women's entrepreneurship in Nepal. In addition there is the valuable overview of personality traits viz. self confidence, task oriented result, risk taker and leadership essential for successful entrepreneurship with consideration given to distinction between female and male entrepreneurs. Her study has also found that lack of access to credit has been an important limitation on women's opportunities to start a business and engage in economic activities. She also identifies that social barriers, inadequate education, family responsibilities, dependent on guardians, absence of government protection on women run enterprise are some problems encountered by women while doing business.

Entrepreneurs are of different types, as they tie with existing physical, social, cultural, economic and political systems. Broadly, the characteristics of entrepreneurs are described in terms of: (i) socio-personal features like sex, education, age, marital status, caste or ethnicity, etc (Frear, 2007) (ii) psychological/individual characteristic, including courage, confidence, patience, modesty, risk taking ability, and (iii) business characteristic comprising business types, initial financial investment, size and types of employees, etc (Tuladhar,1996).

Available studies indicate that range of age is crucial for undertaking enterprises. In most cases, people within the age ranging from 20 – 34 years are more likely to be entrepreneurs. Older age of people may have declining effects for entrepreneurship. In terms of marital status, married entrepreneurs operate the most of the enterprises, and that married women are more successful entrepreneurs than unmarried are.

Though education is an important element of entrepreneurship, it has no direct relationship with the successful entrepreneurship; rather there are mixed results between education status and entrepreneurship ability. Formal education is not a prerequisite for becoming an entrepreneur. However, it plays an important role in managing the business (Ranabhat, 1995). Since entrepreneurs always seek optimum situation for investment in terms of location and time, people move their firms at those locations. Traditionally, type and scale of enterprises are found to be varied by castes and ethnicities. Observation is that the Newars are traditionally town based traders, the Thakalis are inns operators, the Marwaris are business operators, the Jyapus are farm entrepreneurs and petty sellers, etc (Regmi, 1988).

Motive may be defined as an inner state of mind that activates and directs the behavior of entrepreneur toward achieving the goal of successful enterprise. Among the motivation theories related to entrepreneurship, the Need Hierarchy Theory of Maslow is the most relevant to this study (Khanka, 2002). Two among the five types of Maslow theory to motivate people to become entrepreneurs in low income countries like Nepal are physiological needs (economic rewards to meet basic needs) and safety and security needs (earn money for economic security and protection).

Two main motivation factors of entrepreneurs are push or necessity and pull or opportunity. The former is termed as negative circumstance, while the latter is positive circumstance. Pull factors encourage potential entrepreneurs by virtue of attractive options like financial reward, independence, need for achievement, social recognition, etc. Family background or support usually acts as a positive factor for entrepreneurship. Push factors are due to unemployment, job insecurity, less attractive, etc. In Nepal, the main motivation factor for entrepreneurs is to earn money due to majority of the people being without adequate income (Tuladhar, 1996 and Ranabhat, 1995).

Saying has it that "any new venture is challenging". Successful entrepreneurs overcome several challenges in running enterprises. Existing studies indicate that barriers to entrepreneurships are of internal and external nature. Lack of self-confidence, assertiveness, communication skill, motivation, etc come under internal barrier, whilst lack of basic management training, lack of ability to market the product, etc. come under external barriers.

Bhanu Rai (1996) cited by Pant (2013) had discussed the need for massive reform in the policy as well as the structure so as to support women entrepreneurship development and other women development related activities. He has emphasised that SBPP should come forward to assist women entrepreneurs development (WED) programmes by directly supporting them and also providing the support to create the intermediary institution or existing institution at the local and national level. He also conclude that SBPP should play the leading role in the field of it. This study was also focused onto the policy aspect of entrepreneurship development of Nepal.

Ranabhat (1995) in his research "Women Entrepreneurs in Nepal" highlighted the main characteristic of women entrepreneur: Majority of them were from Newar, Brahmin and Chhetri communities, More than 70 percent were married, family

support was viewed to be crucial to becoming an entrepreneurs for them, formal education was not a prerequisite for becoming an entrepreneur. This was indicated by about 60 percent of women entrepreneurs who completed their school education i.e. 10th grade only, around 70 percent of them lived in a joint family, More than 50 percent had either trade or industry as family background, garments and hosiery had 54 percent of women enterprises.

Y.B. Karki et al. (1993) pointed out the need to orient different target groups towards entrepreneurship by tapping cross sectional and cross cultural values that are conducive to starting up business. They also have opined the need of information for climate of entrepreneurship. It indicates the importance of training and information in entrepreneurship development.

Hada and Binod K. Shrestha (1992) undertook a research for SBPP "An aspiration and motivation of Nepali Women Entrepreneurship" and had observed that the women's involvement in entrepreneurship activities has been taken as prerequisites for country's overall economic development. But women's constraints to entrepreneurship are believed to be different or more severe than those of men because of their set traditional roles and barriers in the society. So the writers have undertaken the study to assess the business behavior of the women entrepreneurs of Nepal. The study also tried to identify their problems and motivational factors that could have driven into entrepreneurship.

In their research they included that majority of women were from Chhetri and Newar communities between 25 to 30 years of age with mostly married status, most of the women had a Diploma in vocational courses such as fashion design, textile, hair dressing or other higher educational degrees, they were from both native and migrant groups, majority of those women entrepreneurs were from a joint family and business, mainly trade was the family's prime occupation, most of the women entrepreneurs were engaged and successful in feminine types of businesses such as dress material, beauty parlor, handicrafts and travel services mostly owned on a proprietorship basis and initially at the cottage industry level i.e. investment up to Rs. 500000 and with less than twenty employees, majority of the women entrepreneurs had gone into business mainly because of job related dissatisfaction such as partiality, inadequate salary or intellectual frustration, they had received support of their family members, relatives, international development agencies and partners, almost all the

entrepreneurs were self inspired women interested to use their skills and experiences, They sometimes expressed their feelings about discrimination and disfavor for being a woman in business activities. They initially faced problems such as financial, marketing and registration procedures. Nepali women entrepreneurs have strong entrepreneurial qualities of efficiency orientation, information seeking, commitment to work contract, persistence, and concern for high quality of work. They were weak in taking initiation, seeing and acting on opportunities, persuasion, self confidence and systematic planning.

Laurie Zivetz (1992) explored the emergence and evolution of modern entrepreneurship in the context of a small developing nation isolated from the outside contact until it was opened after the advent of democracy in 1952 A.D., in her book titled *Private Enterprise and the State in Modern Nepal*. It is based on her doctoral research carried out between 1985 and 1987. She examined the ethnic, religious and family background of the country's entrepreneurs, seeking to explain why certain minority communities – the Marwaris, the Sherpas, and Tibetan refugees based in Nepal, have proved particularly successful in adopting an entrepreneurial culture. The factors, which lie behind the decline of the Newars as Nepal's foremost entrepreneurial community, are also explored.

She had discussed in detail all the aspects of industrial entrepreneurship from the beginning to the pre-democratic of 1990. She had spent seven years living and working in Nepal and had gained rich experience in theory and practice. She had gained the knowledge from different perspectives – as an outsider, researcher and businesswoman. During her seven years long stay in the country, she had consulted, interviewed many people and experienced the real knowledge of Nepalese business intricacies and bureaucratic procedures. So, she shared all her knowledge in the book and classified the whole experiences into six Chapters. They are: determinants of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship in Nepal, entrepreneurial communities in Nepal, some case studies, private enterprises and the public sector, the entrepreneurs and the enterprises and concluding observations.

She opined that in the study of industrial entrepreneurship several issues must be addressed. The issues she had raised are economic and social preconditions for industrialization, kinds of persons to become an innovator, kinds of policies for the growth of entrepreneurship, incentives for entrepreneurs to invest in industry than to

invest in trade and landholdings, kinds of cultural forms that encourage the innovators, etc.

She asserted that theories of social marginalization are especially important in the examination as they offer framework for understanding why certain communities fare better in entrepreneurship.

Before discussing the entrepreneurship in Nepal, she had presented several cases of entrepreneurs from different ethnic communities and how each entrepreneur started his/her business and their outcomes. Under the historical review, she had covered the topics like the evolution of industrialization in Nepal, features of Nepal's current economic reality, dominance of the ruling elite over the nature and pace of private sectors, the power presence of India and the role of Indian entrepreneurs in Nepal's industrial sector.

She presented seven cultural communities in Nepal that demonstrated varying degrees of entrepreneurship. She has tried to highlight the specific interface between the socio-cultural form, economic organizing principles and historical circumstance that has promoted entrepreneurship in each of these communities. She attempted to extract major threads from each case strongly to establish similarities and contrast in order to weave a general picture of entrepreneurship in Nepal.

She also aimed to judge the objective value of the transition period to delineate the process of economic development as is experienced by the entrepreneur. She also tried to highlight some of the tensions in the relationship between Nepal's public and private sectors. She concluded that the desired outcome would be the re-establishment of a balance more conducive to the economic goals and requirements of each sector

Lastly, the socio-cultural and historical roots of entrepreneurship were examined in terms of the emergence of various entrepreneurial communities. This approach assumed the existence of identifiable organizing principles with specific ethnic groups, which provide inhibiting or catalyzing substrates upon which the economic behaviour is based.

Her main conclusions are:

- Industrialization has chipped away from the Chhetri-Brahmin control over Nepal's economic resources and political life,
- Holding of the Marwari community over the private sector will continue.

- The entry of people into the business, no matter how well conceived a project may be in theory, will prove ineffective if it fails to take the existing bureaucratic culture into accounts,
- Even training in entrepreneurship, if conducted in an environment unreceptive to innovation and change, may only create frustration,
- Nepal has the opportunity of learning from its mistakes as well as its successes,
- Nepal has also the advantage of imported Indian role models and their presence can be expected to help develop an indigenous entrepreneurship.

Hina Shaha (1991) conducted a research on "Need Assessment Report for Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal". She observed that there was no such institution skills and competence to develop women entrepreneurship in Nepal. The activities undertaken by some agency were of traditional types like embroidery, dressmaking and food products. The efforts for developing non-traditional activities to women entrepreneur's skills or competencies were lagging. She has concluded that no special financial incentives were available to women except for some in the specified rural area. Certain environment and personal constraints prevented the women from flourishing in industry and business. Most of the women are shy and shaky at the beginning because of socio-economic and cultural condition. She has identified several problems like marketing of products because of low quality, higher cost of production as compared to imported items, lack of experience etc. faced by the women entrepreneurs. So she felt that the proper identification strategy should be introduced for selecting women participants for training.

D.P.S. Bhawuk and Arjun Udas (1991) discussed the biographical and psychological profile of Nepali entrepreneurs. Their findings concluded that a typical Nepali entrepreneurs was a male from poor or lower middle class and well educated, their major problems were related to finance and government regulation, they had internal locus of control and they believed in hard work rather than fate or luck. These findings were more related to personal variable as well as the problems faced by Nepalese entrepreneurs.

Fatta Bahadur K.C. (1989) has described that the Nepalese entrepreneurs are shy in investing their capital in the industrial sector. So, the government should come forward with proper policies to attract the entrepreneurs and develop the industrial

sector producing basic goods. He made a strong plea to the government to formulate effective policy that can change the attitude of the people to be rich overnight.

Presenting the paper at the Tripartite National Seminar on the development of Basic Vocational Training in Nepal held from 30 April to 2 May in 1990 at Kathmandu Ram Babu Bhat and Rudolf Guthier (1990) has dealt on the objectives of the basic vocational training project to provide Nepal's labour force with basic skills so that the needs of industries can be met; country's dependence on imported skill manpower can be reduced and self employment in rural areas in non-agriculture can be promoted.

M.P. Bhattarai (1986) studied to measure the effectiveness of entrepreneurship development training programme and problems encountered by the businessmen in establishing their business. His study revealed that only 15 percent to those trained have established the business, 20 percent were in the process of establishment and 65 percent have not established the business after the training. Poor loan facilities were cited as the basic reason for not being able to establish the business. Working capital, devaluation of the currency, changing government policies etc. were cited as the general problems.

Devi Gyawali (1983) conducted a research and made comments on the training of Entrepreneur Development Programme (EPD) undertaken by Development of Cottage and Village Industry Development Board (DCVIDB) set up in the country as ineffective. DCVIDB runs 18 EPDs a year. Since it has no evaluation and follow up system, the effectiveness of the training cannot be measured and training remained as just a formality. He suggested that DCVIDB should assess the planning of the training course and results of the training critically.

2.3 Conclusions

The review of literature has described the conceptual framework, the characteristics of women entrepreneur, motivation factors for women entrepreneur, the intricacies of women entrepreneur and the study made so far available in the context of Nepal. It is noticed that very few studies were made with respect to personality factors of women entrepreneurs in Nepal. This study tries to fill up this gap.

CHAPTER- III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The main objective of this study is to primarily focus upon assessing the personality factors of women entrepreneurs followed by evaluation of policy measure and programmes for developing women entrepreneurship in the country. This study also seeks to compare the women entrepreneurs with training and without training in various aspect of the study – new technology, marketing etc. The methodology adopted to attain the defined objective is explained here below.

3.2 Research Design

This research study is designed with an objective to enquire the entry of women entrepreneurs into the business field particularly in micro, cottage, small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) in Nepal. The research design followed for the study is descriptive research design which focuses upon describing the existing structure, patterns and status of women entrepreneurs in Nepal. How they start the business, the motivating factors responsible for their entry in business and factors contributing to success or failure of effort are the major concerns of the study. The entry of women into the business field may be because of favorable policy, personal dedication and initiative or influence by family background.

Various aspects, such as, access to finance, business registration, raw material, technology, market, labour, transportation, problems faced by the women entrepreneurs are included in this study. Just the entry of women in entrepreneurship is not adequate. Entrepreneur must have quality to operate it and sustain it. In the same way access to finance, interest rate, availability of collateral which determine the success or failure of business. Beside the formal banking sector, other informal sectors including government sponsored package programmes may affect the access. Likewise the marketing of product, existing problems and condition of business also may be responsible factor for growth, stagnation or decline of an enterprise. Business operating environment like government policy encompassing various aspects like registration and renewal procedure, import of raw material, new technology, interest

rate, women entrepreneurship development and financial policy, tax policy as well as environmental forces like socio-cultural and economic and legal affect the operation and growth of an women enterprise.

3.3 Nature and Sources of Data

This study has used primary and secondary data to support the analysis in different aspects. Primary data has been collected through a set of questionnaire and interviews of women entrepreneurs. Hence the study is based on describing and analyzing the issue. The primary data has been considered as the main basis of information. Secondary data are also used to support the primary data. The population of this research is registered members of women entrepreneurs within the DSCI, FNCCI, FWEAN, Nepal Chamber of Commerce, Trade Association. etc. Primary data is collected from the registered cottage, small and medium scale women entrepreneurs. The secondary data has been used to compare the outcome of the survey with those of the other researchers and writers and find out the differences between the study done before and now as well as to support the analysis. Secondary data used mainly in respect of training of women entrepreneurs and registration of entrepreneurs and other various aspects. The secondary data were collected for the study from:-

- Economic surveys, annual reports, publication, official records, books, reports and other published and unpublished information.
- Published reports on women entrepreneurship development published by Division, Ministry of Industry, Plan and Policy Government, Industrial Policy.
- Record and reports of government and non-government agencies like WEAN, FWEAN, FNCCI, FNCSI etc.

3.4 Sample Size and the Sampling Frame

The study covered only the women entrepreneurs of Kathmandu valley. The target group of this study is women entrepreneurs of micro, small and medium enterprises. The list of women entrepreneurs were categorized into different subgroups according to their business investment. There is not any reliable data to assess the total population of women entrepreneur that have been considered for the study. Even if there was data available, collecting data from all would be both time consuming and expensive. We can calculate the number of sample to be taken if a sample percentage is wanted to be within an error margin of $(100 d) \%$ of population percentage with confidence coefficient of 95%, and then size of the sample is given by:

$n = [(1.96)^2 \times PQ] / d^2$ where $P = 1 - Q$ stands for population proportion. The safer sample size can be obtained with that value of P which maximize PQ , when $P = 0.5$. Taking an error margin of $d = 0.05$ which is suitable in such survey it can be seen that,

$$n = (1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5) / 0.0025 = 384.$$

The optimum sample size would have been 384 but accounting for non response, it was decided that the research have a sample of 400. The total sample of 400 women entrepreneurs were selected purposefully throughout Kathmandu, Lalitpur, and Bhaktapur (Kathmandu valley)

Out of 400 distributed questionnaires 368 replies were collected. The response rate was 92% and non-response or partial response rate was 8%. Partial response questionnaire have been discarded from the analysis. Some questionnaires were distributed in trade fairs organized by FNCCI, DCSI, WEAN in Kathmandu and Lalitpur. They were also mailed to various entrepreneurs registered with FNCCI, DCSI etc. This is considered as satisfactory and representative. All in all, the responses represented a good balance of different micro, small and medium entrepreneurs from the Kathmandu valley.

Respondent Profile

Table 3.1: On the basis of Age

Age of Respondents	Frequency	Percent (%)
Below 25 years	10	2.70
26 to 35 years	68	18.50
36 to 45 years	164	44.60
46 to 55 years	80	21.70
Above 56 years	46	12.50
Total	368	100.00

Table 3.2: On the basis of education

Education Level	Frequency	Percent (%)
Just literate	10	2.70
SLC pass	65	17.70
Intermediate pass	137	37.20
Bachelor pass	111	30.20
Master and above pass	45	12.20
Total	368	100.00

Table 3.3: On the basis of Training Taken

Training types	Frequency	Percent (%)
Training not taken	72	19.60
Business related skill development	162	44.00
Entrepreneurship development	31	8.40
Financing and Accounting	9	2.40
Marketing and Sales	47	12.80
Business Administration	10	2.70
Computer and IT	27	7.30
Other	10	2.70
Total	368	100.00

Table 3.4: On the basis of Family Size

Family Type	Frequency	Percent (%)
Single Family	136	37
Joint Family	232	63

Total	368	100
--------------	------------	------------

3.5 The Questionnaire

The questions were framed based on the theoretical reviews and previous studies available so far and strictly keeping in mind the objectives of the research study. The questionnaire consist of various information about women entrepreneurs. The questionnaire has been divided into 4 segment.

The first segment of questionnaire i.e. general key profile of the women entrepreneur contains 4 questions relating to her age, marital status, education. Second segment includes the question relating to women’s entrepreneur characteristics such as information about the organization, personnel. The third segment includes the questions asked to the entrepreneur about the problems and obstacles in business, and the fourth segment seeks the opinions of respondents in improving business more efficiently and being more successful in business.

3.6 Pre-test of the Questionnaire

The questionnaires were pretested with 20 small and medium scale women entrepreneurs of Kathmandu and Lalitpur to further shape the questions and also collect their opinion and comments. The main objective of such pre-test was to remove the unclear, irrelevant and unnecessary words, statement and avoid duplication. The responses received from the respondents have been used to examine and scrutinize the questionnaire. Fruitful suggestions from the respondents were incorporated properly.

3.7 Data processing and analysis

Data has been processed in the computer using SPSS. All the 368 questionnaire which were completely filled had been entered in SPSS. Even though all the data were entered and tabulated through SPSS, some of them were not extensively analyzed in in final thesis such as response to question number 47, 48 and 49. These questions mainly dealt with financial aspect and perceived performance of women entrepreneurs business. Even though they were not extensively analyzed and presented in the thesis, they did form the basis to develop the success factor of women entrepreneur in Nepal. The opinions of the respondents have been explained on the basis of percentage, mean

value and standard deviation. Uni-variate and bi-variate tables have been drawn and presented accordingly to their appropriate analysis part.

One of the objectives of the research was to examine the institutional support provided by government for women entrepreneur development. Secondary data has been used to examine the institutional support provided by the government. The research looked at various government plans, policies, ministerial annual report and various other non-governmental organization reports to evaluate the support and their impact on the development and success of women entrepreneurship in Nepal.

The second objective of the thesis was to assess the attributes of women entrepreneurs in the development of business venture. The attributed like age, education, experience, marital status, family size, parental occupation, training taken were selected. The research wanted to know if these attribute of women entrepreneur influenced their business decisions like type of business venture to start (manufacturing, service, trading etc.), the legal ownership status of business (sole ownership, partnership etc.), modes of generation of startup funds (banks, friends, relatives etc.) and initial support to start business (for eg. By husband, father/mother, siblings etc.). Various hypothesis were generated to test whether personal attributed had effect on business decision of women entrepreneur. Chi square test was done to check the association and difference among the variable. Based on the test, the research accepted or rejected the hypothesis proposed. The data were also tabulated in bi-variate table. Frequencies of response with their relative percentage, missing system, valid percentage as well as their cumulative percentage were computed along with the mean value. For example, a table compared the association between age and type of business venture undertaken. The table showed the type of business venture various women entrepreneur of different age groups undertook and presented them in terms of percentage and frequency. The association between age and type of business venture undertaken was also looked at and hypothesis was proposed. The research wanted to see if age of women entrepreneur affected their decision of choosing the type of business venture to operate. Null hypothesis (H₀): Age and type of business venture are independent of each other and Alternative hypothesis (H_a): Age and type of business venture are dependent of each other.

The third objective of the research was to look at influence of personal attributed in management of business venture. The management aspect looked at Management of

land and building, management of machinery and equipment, management of working capital and mode of generating business idea. The attributes selected for comparison were age, education, training and family size. The researcher felt that these were the major attributes that could influence the management of business venture. Chi square test was done to check the association and difference among the variable. Based on the test, the research accepted or rejected the hypothesis proposed. For example, the association between age and modes of managing working capital was looked at and hypothesis was proposed. The research looked at whether age played any significant role in the how women entrepreneur managed their working capital. Null hypothesis (H₀): Age and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are independent of each other. Alternative hypothesis (H_a): Age and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are dependent of each other.

As part of the third objective, this research also looked at whether attributes such as age, education and training affected other aspect of management/operation of business. These other aspects were consultation with various institutes, source of vision to start business, major information collected before start of business, purpose to start the business, major accomplishments to be achieved, employment situation of company. In this part, the research broke down the various management aspects in terms of age, education and training and calculated the percentage and frequency of women entrepreneur. For example, this section looked at what percentage of women entrepreneurs of certain age, certain level of education and training consulted with various institutions like Department of cottage and small industry (DCSI), FNCCI, Banks and financial institutions etc. before starting their business. This section of the analysis was purely descriptive in nature.

The fourth objective of the research was to examine the intricacies of successfully running business venture by women entrepreneurs. The research looked at the problems encountered during startup of business, after startup of business, knowledge of different aspects of business, understanding of government policies, factors affecting business operation, factors given attention during the startup of business, use of managerial tools, time allocated in business, opinion of critical success factors. These intricacies were then examined in terms of personal attributes like age, education, training and family size. These attributes were examined based on whether the above mentioned intricacies differed for women entrepreneurs of different age

group, different levels of education, different type of training taken or different family size level. For example, the research looked at the problems encountered by women entrepreneurs during the startup of business. There may be lots of problems that women entrepreneurs face during startup of their business. It may be difficult for them to get capital, to get employees, to get raw material, to sale products, etc. In this multiple choice question, based on the data mean was calculated and the problem encountered was presented in the form of table. Mean close to 1 was considered most problematic and mean close to 5 was considered not problematic at all. The problems encountered by women entrepreneurs were then compared with age, education, training and family size to see if these personal factors had any association which was specific to certain age, education level, type of training taken etc. The research wanted to see if women entrepreneurs of certain age group faced different problem than women entrepreneur of other age group.

The research also looked at factors affecting women entrepreneurial success in Nepal. The factors this study looked at were age, education, entrepreneurial experience, marital status, professional training, initial feasibility study, and export of products. A regression analysis was done in this study to understand the major success factors for women entrepreneur in Nepal (Kathmandu Valley). Significant level is set at 5%. Though in case of variations due to the nature of the study up to 10% was defined agreeable. All variables measured falls under ordinal or nominal scale therefore logistic regression was used to test whether there is a significant relationship between dependent variable entrepreneurial success and independent variables like age, education, marital status etc.

CHAPTER- IV

INSTITUTIONAL AND POLICY MECHANISMS FOR PROMOTING WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN NEPAL

Today the Government of Nepal is more concerned about the overall economic development of women. Women entrepreneurship has become an important aspect of government plans. Directly or indirectly women contribute a lot in national economic development. Taking this into consideration, women development concept has been adopted since the sixth five year plan as a national policy and several sectorial women development programs were implemented and institutional development efforts were made. No doubt presently an increased awareness can be observed throughout the world on improving the status of women. United Nation had published the statistics related to women and had declared 1975 as an international women's year and 1975 to 1985 as the international women's decade. In accordance with the announcement of the women's year, several countries have conducted various programmes giving importance to women's development in social and political areas. In Nepal too, various women development related programs have been implemented. The sixth five year plan (1980-1985) spelt out a policy to develop women's potential in the process of development. A specific effort of the government, the Women Development Section, under the Ministry of Social Development, was established in 1980. At that time varieties of income generating activities were also launched for uplifting the social and economic status of poor rural women.

The seventh five year plan (1986-1991) encouraged active participation of women in economic and social sectors. However, there was no notable programmatic approach to involve women in industrial activities. But as a result of the promotion of awareness at the international level in the development of women, since 1985 various activities to help promote the involvement of women in economic activities are being executed from various governmental and non-governmental levels. In our economy, women make up a large part of the production oriented labor force (mainly in the agricultural sector). In addition, women are the focal point in the alleviation of poverty in the country. Therefore the problems and hindrances in the promotion of

women's involvement in socio-economic activities have been a source of concern to government agencies, academic institutions and development workers at various levels.

The women entrepreneurship development and promotion programs are some of the significant steps in the process of promoting economic competency and independence of women. The changes and improvements after 1986 in the participation of women in economic activities show that the number of women entrepreneurs in big towns like Kathmandu, Pokhara and Biratnagar is increasing. The number of women employers has also increased. Though women's participation in industrial activities is increasing, their work is limited mostly to wool threading, textile weaving, carpet weaving, knitting, tailoring, tea processing and food processing. Women in rural areas are mostly involved in the cottage industries based on agriculture, forest and animal husbandry. In rural areas, the regular business that women get involved in are, among others, animal husbandry, wool threading, tailoring, vegetable farming and bamboo products. On the other hand, women in urban areas, in addition to the regular traditional business like, tailoring, weaving and food processing are also involved in running retail stores, running cottage industries like handicraft production, bag knitting and jewelry making and also running travel agencies, small restaurants and hotels. In industrial sectors, very few women are involved in industries with large capital investment and high technology.

After the restoration of democracy in 1991, the program of women development has been introduced to raise the status of women. The policy of HMG/N to encourage the participation of social organisation in national development activities has been well received by national as well as international community. NGO's have developed strategic plans as support for government plans and programmes. Most of the activities initiated by their organisation are focused on the status of women and children. Out of the 6500 NGO's registered with the National Co-ordination council more than one hundred NGO's are involved in women related promotional activities. The industrial policy 1992 was framed with the objective of accelerating industrial sector. But it does not consider the need for developing entrepreneurship in general or adopting sectoral approaches such as women entrepreneurship development.

In the eighth five year plan (1992-1997) several women development policies were adopted to involve women in the national development mainstream in order to ensure

their participation in every sector of development to improve their social, economic, educational, political and legal status, increase their capacity by imparting appropriate knowledge and skill for the employment generation and create appropriate environment and infrastructure for more opportunities in decision making from local to national level.

Women targeted training and income generation programmes were also launched in forestry, industrial and local development programs. To increase access of rural women to economic resources and production credit, women programs were carried out in 621 VDCS and 10 municipalities of 67 districts. Micro credit for women programme was launched with the help of NGOs in 10 districts. Similarly small Farmers Women Development Programs have been expanded to increase women participation in politics and provision has been made to include 539 members.

According to the commitment shown at the international women's conference held in Beijing in 1995, a gender equality and women empowerment national work plan 1997 incorporating several aspects has been formulated. The Ministry of Women and Social Welfare (MWSW) has been established for the institutional development of the women development sectors.

Ninth five years plan (1998-2002) played some important role in the development of women's economic upliftment. In Ninth Plan, the Parliament passed the civil code (11th Amendment) that eliminated all discriminatory laws against women. The amendment was positive in respect of women's right to property. Gender contact center has been established in all ministries. National Women Commission has also been established. The national work plan for gender equality and women empowerment was prepared in line with Beijing work plan. To measure the participation of women in national development, statistics of gender related programmes and women contribution in the household activities are being recorded in the National Accounts. Various publicity and training programs are conducted at the central and local level to create awareness regarding gender issue and women related convention. The NGOs working in these areas are also conducting awareness, rehabilitation and economic empowerment programs. The 1990 era is most important era to women entrepreneurs because in this era for the economic empowerment of women, various programs like micro credit, women development program, intensive banking program, women awareness and income generation program, skill

development program and co-operative program have been conducted. There has been increased social mobilization of women with their active participation in saving and loan programs. To increase the productivity of the women farmers, their reach to production technology, production loan, training, market facility and others areas have been eased by conducting programs like entrepreneurship training, concessional loan, employment related programs etc . In order to increase women participation in the sectors related to economic activities like industry, Tourism and Forestry, the women's involvement has increased in the implemented programs such as enterprise management training easy finance and employment. Similarly separate (users group) consumer's groups in forestry sector have been formed.

During this period of 10th year plan (2003-2007) development efforts focused on different aspects like the development of physical infrastructure, regional development, fulfillment of basic need and poverty alleviation. But the targets of economic growth rates set in the development plan could not be achieved as expected. Expected improvement could not be realized in the economic and social conditions of women. Beijing Action Plan, Convention of the Elimination of All Form of Discrimination Against Women related National Action Plan has been prepared. Discriminatory laws against women have been amended. Gender focal points in sectoral ministries and the National Women's Commission have been formed. Support has been provided in skill development of single women for their social and economic empowerment. Mechanism relating to gender budgeting has been initiated in the Ministry of Finance. Since without increasing women participation at the implementation level, the programs related to women development cannot get momentum. Along with this, increase in the women participation in all the implemented programs related to women empowerment, gender equality, poverty alleviation and income generation activities at local development programs, there has been improvement in legal, policy level and institutional program. There has been an encouraging progress in saving and credit programs for the economic and social empowerment of women.

During the first three year interim plan (2007-2010) and second three year interim plan (2010-2013), various activities to empower women and their skill development were proposed and were implemented through relevant government and non governmental institutions. To guarantee women's economical, social, financial and

political rights, minimum of 33% women participations has been established as a working policy in the second three year interim plan. Second three year interim plan also focused on enhancement of women's employment capabilities by providing market oriented enterprise and skill enhancement training, together with providing micro finance facility to start or strengthen their business as well as providing access to market for their products. Second three year interim plan also plans to operate special program in every VDC in order to include disadvantaged women and under privileged young girls. The plan also includes special program to combat women trafficking.

The Government of Nepal has continued its effort to implement various commitment made in favor of gender equality in national and international forums. There are various programs and projects in operation under sector ministries and their agencies. Recognizing the shared, collective responsibility toward gender mainstreaming various line ministries and agencies have launched different projects and programs in order to enhance the active participation of the women from the central level to village level and to reduce gender inequality. Although there has been positive change in gender development, substantial change in the status of women in the socially and economically backward groups and rural areas is yet to be achieved. They need employment opportunities for a sustainable livelihood, and they also need to be socially rehabilitated and enabled to live with human dignity.

Since the inception of the sixth plan (1980-1985), the Government of Nepal has focused its efforts on the development of women. The subsequent plans have also focused on the issues of women empowerment. Gender equality and equity together with the relevant reforms on acts and policies to conform to the government's commitment to the implementation of provision for women development, women empowerment and gender related convention and declaration of the United Nations, as well as AAARC and National Conventions, matching programs are being carried out. There is much to be done to fulfill those commitments and to ensure women's right and gender equality.

Various steps has been taken by the Nepal government for the development of women are presented in the table below.

Table 4.1: Steps taken by Nepal Government for the Development of Women

2013 (1956)	Establishment of training centre
2029 (1972)	Separate cell was established under the Ministry of Education and social welfare in order to implement Women Education Project
2030 (1973)	Women skill development project had been run by " the Nepal Women Organization "
2032 (1975)	Establishment of Ama Millan Kendra
2033 (1976)	Ratification of international labour organization 1951 (No. 100) regarding the same wage rate for both men and women
2034 (1977)	Formation of women service coordination committee under "the Social Welfare for National Coordination Council"
2036 (1979)	Study on the status of women in Nepal
2037 (1980)	Separate policy was formulated for the promotion of women's participation in development work for the first time in 6 th five year plan (2037-2042)
2038 (1981)	- Establishment of women development section under "the Ministry of Panchayat and Local Development - implementation of women's programme under small farmer development programme
2039/40 (1982/83)	Initiation of women development programme
2042 (1985)	Formulation of national action plan for women development under the coordination of "the Women Service Coordination Committee"
2044 (1987)	Establishment of Women Division under Ministry of Labour
2047 (1990)	Promotion of Women Development Section into Women Division
2048 (1991)	Ratification of discrimination of all types of disparity against women
2049 (1992)	-Establishment of Women Farmers Division under Ministry of Agriculture - Adaptation of gender inclusion for the first time in 8 th five year plan (2049- 2054)
2050 (1993)	-Establishment of Women Section in Water and Energy Commission -Establishment of Women and Children Section in National Planning Commission
2052 (1995)	-Establishment of Ministry of Women and Social Welfare -Establishment of Women Skill Development Committee and conversion of skill development project run since 2030 into Skill Development Centre
2052 (1996)	Establishment of Women Cell under Nepal Police
2054 (1997)	Approval of Gender Equality and Women Empowerment National Action Plan by the Government of Nepal
2055 (1998)	Local Self Governance Act enacted

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Provision of elected women in each ward of Village Development Committee and Municipality -Provision of nomination of at least one woman in Village Assembly, District Assembly and at least 40 percent in Town Assembly guaranteed -Nomination of one woman member in Village Development Committee (VDC), Town Development Committee (TDC) and District Development Committee (DDC)
2056 (1999)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Implementation of women empowerment and livelihood programme -Arrangement of separating Women Development Division from Ministry of Local Development to Ministry of Women and Social Welfare
2057 (2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Renaming of Ministry of Women and Social Welfare to Ministry of Women Children and Social Welfare -Conversion of Women Development Division to Department of Women Development
2058 (2001)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Formation of National Women Commission -Renaming of Women Cell of Nepal Police to Women and Children Service Centre -Gender sensitization of national census pole.
2059 (2002)	Arrangement of Gender Focal Point in various Ministries and other Institution
2060 (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Approval of National Focal Point for the implementation of treaty related to abolition of disparity upon women -Conversion of District Women Development Section into Women Development Office -Appointment of District Women Development Section as a Focal Agency and play a role of coordinator meeting point and facilitator for women, children, senior citizen, disabled person and NGOs in district
2061 (2004)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Approval of Gender Equality and Women Empowerment Action Plan by Nepal Government -Approval of District Level Gender and Children Right Action Plan by the Government: Appointment of Gender Focal Point at local level -Provision of discount of 10 percent in the total land registration tax if land is registered in the name of women
2062 (2005)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Initiation of gender responsive budget -Ratification of Women and Child Prostitute Prevention Treaty (2002) -Streamlining and implementation of Women Empowerment and Livelihood Programme
2062 (2006)	Ratification of report of 1999 which outlines about the abolition of all type of disparity against women
2063 (2006)	-Assurance by House of Representative for representation of 33 percent of women participation in all types of Government Organization

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Enactment of Interim Constitution assuring women's fundamentals rights -Declaration of " Chhaupadi system" as a social offence by the government -Enactment of appropriate law ensuing gender equality
2063 (2007)	Enactment of National Women Commission Law
2064 (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Enactment of law related to sale and human trafficking -Second Amendment of Civil Service Act 2049, ensuring said percent of women candidate to be recruited in civil service -Women temporarily working in permanent position of women development programme for five years will be provided an opportunity to appear in examination organized by public service commission in order to become permanent
2065 (2008)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Provision of one third of women participation in Peace Restoration Committee to be established at local level -Formulation of regulation related to National Women Commission
2066 (2009)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Approval policy related to gender equality and social inclusion for ministry of local development and its offices assuring at least 15 percent of VDC budget for women and children welfare activities -Enactment of Abuse (Offence and Punishment) Prevention Law related to women
2067 (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Renaming of Women Development Department into Women and Children Department and renaming of District Level of Women Development Office to Women and Children Office -Formulation of Regulation related to abuse prevention -Formulation of gender abuse prevention fund -Extension of women development programme in all VDCs during 3 years Interim plan (2067/68-2069/70)
2067 (2011)	Approval of National Action Plan (2067/68-2069/70) by Nepal Government related to implementation of Agenda no. 1325 and 1820 approved by Security Council of United Nation

(Source: Annual Development Report (2068/069) of Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare.)

4.1. Impact of Industrial policy of Nepal on Women Enterprise Development (WED)

Government had made various efforts in the past for industrial development, the stark reality before us is that there has been no industrialization as expected in the country. The contribution of industry sector in the gross domestic product could not reach even 10%, which is a challenge before us. Economy of the country even today is

excessively dependent upon traditional agricultural system and remittance. Though there is high potentiality of development of enterprise, the available resources, means and potentialities could not have been exploited due to lack of appropriate management capacity. This has resulted in non-use of available resources and raw materials. The main problem of industrial development in Nepal are political instability, industrial insecurity, minimal availability of energy, weak industrial infrastructures, Lack of competent human resources, lack of capacity to adopt new technology, low productivity, unfavorable labour relation. These problems have hindered the industrial development and have been the main reasons for acute unemployment problem. Nepali labour force is attracted to foreign markets, there is lack of competent human resources in management level to mobilize the laborers and use the available resources. One of the main challenges for the industrial sector in Nepal is to create such an atmosphere in which investment can be made with certainty.

Taking into account of the challenges and opportunities posed by economic liberalization and globalization, Nepal government formed the industrial policy, foreign investment and one window policy in the year 1992 (2049 BS). The Industrial Policy 1992 encouraged development by promoting growth of industrial product and service sector. The Industrial Enterprises Act 1992 was enacted as per the directive of the industrial policy 1992. It has created legal basis for development of industries and has also provided details about income tax, sales tax and excise tax to the prescribed industries of various classes which are located in various region, having them classified and prioritized with a view to moving forward industrial development with high priority. But no expected success could be achieved from this Industrial Policy 1992 in respect to employment generation, production, export promotion and investment. So it is necessary to formulate a new liberal and comprehensive industrial policy including the subject that has not been included in the policy reform efforts in the past.

The Government of Nepal brought out the new Industrial Policy in 2010 with strategic vision of making remarkable contribution in national economy. This policy has been formulated in order to accelerate the pace of industrialization in response to the diversity in the service industry and opportunities arising out of them. In this policy special provisions have been made for promoting micro enterprises, cottage

and small industries. Similarly, special policy provisions have been made for women entrepreneurs. This is the first industrial policy which considers the women entrepreneur. In order to enhance financial empowerment of women involved industrial sector, some special provisions for women entrepreneurs have been made. Some of the special provisions for women entrepreneurs mentioned in industrial policy 2010 are:-

- In any level to formulate policies relating to any industrial enterprises, representation of women belonging to indigenous and tribal people, dalit, Madhesi, marginalized communities who are involved in the concerned industrial enterprises shall be made mandatory.
- Provision of group loan shall be made in various banking and co-operative institutions for providing loans in simple and easy manner to women entrepreneurs of cottage and small scale.
- Priority shall be given to women in the venture capital to be provided while establishing an industry.
- An exemption of 35% in the registration fee shall be given if an industry is registered only in the name of women.
- Special priority shall be given to women entrepreneurs if they desire to establish an industry in an industrial estate.
- In order to develop women entrepreneurship and to encourage women to become an entrepreneur, women shall be involved in trainings, meetings, seminars, study visits on technology development.
- In the sales counters to be developed in various development regions, provisions shall be made for sales counters also for the products developed by women entrepreneurs.
- In exhibitions concerning industry or business to be organized by Government agencies women entrepreneurship/business persons shall compulsorily involve women.
- Provision shall be made for making available export loans to women entrepreneurship/business persons exporting their products.

- The industry registered only in the name of a woman shall be provided with an exemption of 20% in the fees for getting registered the industrial property such as patent, design and trademark.
- For development of women entrepreneurship a separate women entrepreneurship fund shall be created.
- A separate sectoral unit shall be created in the Ministry of Industries for development of women entrepreneurship.
- Mandatory provisions of introducing directives for prevention and control of all types of gender based violence at workplace shall be made for protection of rights of women entrepreneurs, women workers and women service-seekers.
- Plan program and budget implementation concerning industrial promotion shall be made gender friendly to ensure the guarantee of gender equality, and gender analysis and assessment, gender auditing and gender budget system of the concerned policies and programs shall be introduced.

Even though special provisions for women entrepreneurs are mentioned in Industrial Policy 2010, the government has not yet developed any action plan and policy for women entrepreneur development.

4.2 Impact of Women Entrepreneurship Development (WED)

Program and Service Provided by Different Organization

As the Government has declared 2012/2013 as a year of investment , there is a need to motivate and maximize women's participation in economic activities thereby improving the economy of the country. Women Entrepreneurship Development (WED) programs and services are essential for encouraging women to undertake economic activities. Experience shows that there are large number of women capable of and willing to participate in economic activities but there is a lack of integrated and need based WED program. This hinders the efforts of promoting women entrepreneurs. In most of the developing countries government policies have become more favorable for women to encourage to involve in different economic activities. In the context of Nepal, tenth development plan has emphasized gender equality and empowerment by incorporating women participation in every sector of development. It also identified women as a focal point for development.

In today's context it is clear that well designed integrated WED package helps to expand and enhance women's potential to start and run enterprises successfully. WED programs need to be evaluated regularly to increase the effectiveness of the training programs and support services. Nepal also has some organisations which have been involved in WED program. The main objectives of all organisations involved in WED program are to uplift the socially and economically deprived women, make them independent, develop enterprising spirit and skills to support women economically, minimize poverty and gender equality and make women capable of managing their own business.

In Nepal, some organisations are involved in women entrepreneurship development programs. But at first it must be cleared that what type of programs are being called as a women entrepreneurship development program. Some organisations take it as development of new women entrepreneurs and help women create new enterprises and some consider it as a way to support existing entrepreneurs and make them sustainable and help them grow. Some organisations are organizing and conducting different type of programs under different names like income generation, livelihood development, self employment generation, micro enterprise development. They do it in different ways such as providing awareness regarding entrepreneurship, skill management and technical training, credit support, support in market linkage, networking etc. Whatever may be the program if it supports both potential women entrepreneurs and existing entrepreneurs then they are considered women entrepreneurship development programs.

Entrepreneurship development program is not only for female but for male entrepreneurs as well. But in our context we are only concerned about WED programs. WED programs involve things like entrepreneurship awareness development, entrepreneurship training, entrepreneurial competency development, skill development training, entrepreneur motivational training, industry visit programs, interaction program, market link program, loan etc. In this way these organisations accomplish different types of training, workshop, interaction program as per need and demand. Here are some governmental and nongovernmental organizations that are supporting both potential as well as existing women entrepreneurs.

4.2.1 Department of Cottage and Small Industries (DCSI)

DCSI has been established under the Ministry of Industries in 1974 to promote various kinds of cottage and small industries to enhance their industrial productivity along with making congenial environment for industrial investment and to contribute the national economic development by producing skillful manpower and employment opportunities.

There were 75 cottage and small industries offices before undertaking the organizational adjustment in 1990. Now 21 Cottage and Small Industries Offices of terai region and 6 Cottage and Small Industries Offices (Kathmandu, Bhaktapur, Lalitpur, Kavre, Palpa and Kaski) are working under DCSI. Remaining 48 Cottage and Small Industries Offices are working under Cottage and Small Industries Development Board (CSIDB). DCSI also coordinates in industrial administrative activities of the offices under CSIDB.

In any country, small and medium enterprises (SME) play a vital role in economic development. SME constitutes the backbone of economic development because its contribution in the form of creating employment is high. It can keep regional balance in the development scenario within a country.

DCSI objective is to provide support and services for the promotion, expansion and strengthening of cottage and small industries.

Its activities are:

- To grant license of cottage and small industries (CSI) e.g. cigarette, liquors and security items,
- To register and renew cottage and small industries,
- To protect and foster traditional, micro, cottage and small industries,
- To carry out various promotional activities for development of cottage and small industries,
- To recommend concession, facility and incentive to cottage and small industry,
- To carry out activities like amendment of name, transfer of location, expansion of capital, amendment of objectives of cottage and small industries,
- To carry out activities related to initial environment examination(IEE),

- To provide different type of skillful training in order to provide required training "Cottage and Small Industry Training Centre" has been operating since 1993 as one of the independent units under DCSI. This center provides training like Readymade garment stitching, Handicraft Production Training, Handmade Paper Training, Leather Goods Promotion Program, Skill Development Training, Entrepreneur Development Training,
- To provide loan for those who have attended training provided by DCSI and wish to start their own enterprise but don't have adequate fund to run enterprise. In order to solve this problem, DCSI has created a "Micro Cottage and Small Industries Loan Fund". It provides loan from Nrs 10,000 to Nrs 60,000. This loan can be available from district level offices under DCSI and CSIDB. In this fiscal year 2013, DCSI had created a new Loan Fund of Nrs 2 crore. This loan fund is only for women entrepreneurs. In order to develop and promote women entrepreneur, DCSI has launched different WED related program and services such as women interaction program, skill development training, interaction program, skill development training, entrepreneur development training, management training, industrial visit program, NGO participatory program, marketing linkage program, seminar on trainees follow up, marketing/networking, etc.

DCSI report 2069 shows that the total number of registered women entrepreneurs at 75 districts is 10418. Since the time of establishment of DCSI, it has been providing different types of training such as skill development training, management training and entrepreneur development training to women entrepreneurs as per their need. The number of participants from three districts of the Kathmandu valley who have trained and benefited through DCSI training program since Fiscal Year 2059/60 to 2068/69 are indicated in table 4.1:

Table 4.2: DCSI Gender Wise Training Participants from FY 2059/60 to 2068/69

	Female	%	Male	%	Total
FY 2059/60	475	66%	243	34%	718
FY 2060/61	475	55%	393	45%	868
FY 2061/62	515	54%	441	46%	956
FY 2062/63	642	72%	552	28%	894
FY 2063/64	767	78%	222	22%	989
FY 2064/65	624	69%	274	31%	898
FY 2065/66	822	75%	268	25%	1090
FY 2066/67	1180	81%	282	19%	1462
FY 2067/68	641	92%	59	8%	700
FY 2068/69	788	92%	72	8%	860

(Source: Department of Cottage and Small Industries, 2068/69)

The table given above shows the genderwise training programs given by the Department of Cottage and Small Industries. As per the available data it shows that during fiscal year 2059/60 the total number of trainees was 718 including both male and female. Among them 66% were female and remaining 34% were male. While analyzing the trend of training program of DCIS the number of trainees continues to increase in the following years till the fiscal year 2066/67. Also the number of female trainees is more than that of the male. During FY 2067/68 the number of training participants has decreased by more than half of the previous fiscal year. But in FY 2068/69 it has increased to 860 where 92% were female. Also the number of female participants increased from 54% to 92%. This shows that DCIS is also giving more weight to women entrepreneurs since they are the drivers of economic growth and development.

Table 4.3: Annual Growth of DCSI Genderwise Training Participants from FY 2059/60 to 2068/69

	Female		Male		Total	
	No of Beneficiary	Annual Growth	No of Beneficiary	Annual Growth	No of Beneficiary	Annual Growth
FY 2059/60	475	-	243	-	718	-
FY 2060/61	475	0%	393	62%	868	21%
FY 2061/62	515	8%	441	12%	956	10%
FY 2062/63	642	25%	552	25%	894	-6%
FY 2063/64	767	19%	222	-60%	989	11%
FY 2064/65	624	-19%	274	23%	898	-9%
FY 2065/66	822	32%	268	-2%	1090	21%
FY 2066/67	1180	44%	282	5%	1462	34%
FY 2067/68	641	-46%	59	-79%	700	-52%
FY 2068/69	788	23%	72	22%	860	23%

(Source: Department of Cottage and Small Industries, 2068/69)

The table shows the annual growth of DCIS genderwise training participants from fiscal year 2059/60 to fiscal year 2068/69. Annual growth rate of training shows the fluctuating data during 10 years of period even negative growth of 52% and maximum growth of 34%. The number of beneficiary has continually increased to FY 2066/67 then it declined to 700 by -52%. Then again slowly it increased to 860 participants (23% growth). During 2060/61, 2061/62 growth of male participants is higher than female. During 2062/63 annual growth of both male and female is constant. But in the following years the number of female participants has increased drastically than male participants which again show the growth of Nepalese female entrepreneurs in Nepal.

The total number of registered women entrepreneurs from 75 Districts at Department of Cottage and Small Industry is 10418 till FY 2068/69. The disintegrated data of women entrepreneurs available for Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur from FY 2064/65 to FY 2068/69 only are as listed below:

Table 4.4: Women Entrepreneurs registered in DCSI in Kathmandu Valley

FY	2064/65	2065/66	2066/67	2067/68	2068/69	Total
Kathmandu	363	994	357	454	634	2802
Lalitpur	104	149	151	193	235	832
Bhaktapur	42	41	46	66	65	260
Total	509	1184	554	713	934	3894

(Source: Department of Cottage and Small Industries, 2068/69)

The table shows the registered female entrepreneurs in the Kathmandu Valley i.e. Kathmandu, Bhaktapur and Lalitpur from FY 2064/65 to FY 2068/69. The data shows that the total number of female entrepreneurs registered till 2068/69 is 3894. Among them 2802 belong to Kathmandu, 832 to Lalitpur and only 260 to Bhaktapur. This shows that women of Kathmandu are more entrepreneurial. On the other hand, during 2065/66 the number of women entrepreneurs registered is highest i.e. 1184 and it has decreased in 2066/67 but has started to increase gradually during subsequent years.

4.2.2 Cottage and Small Industry Development Board (CSIDB)

The CSIDB was established in 1982(2050BS) under the development Committee Act 2013 BS by dissolving Cottage and Village Industry Development Board which was functioning since 2031 BS. CSIDB provides various services for the promotion and development of micro cottage and small industries in 48 districts at present. The main objectives of cottage and small industry development board is to provide support services for the promotion, expansion and strengthening of micro cottage and small industries. CSIDB would not be able to accomplish its objectives without the participation of women which constitute more than half of the total population of the country. Most of the women are deprived of economic opportunities. So it became necessary to implement women focused program to encourage women toward entrepreneurship.

Women Entrepreneur Development Branch (WEDB) was established under CSIDB in Fiscal Year 2052/53 aiming at the improvement of existing situation of women entrepreneur into industrialization endeavor. It has been launching different programs in order to improve capability of women entrepreneurs and encourage potential women to be entrepreneurs. CSIDB's major activities related to women entrepreneurship development are:-

- Provide skill and development training and entrepreneurship development training program,
- Provide technical support and counseling services,
- Provide information regarding industrial policy, acts, rules and establishment procedures,
- Organize industrial fair, exhibition and provide recognition by award certificate, shield and cash prize to the best performing entrepreneurs of micro, cottage and small scale industries.
- Registration and renewal of Micro, Cottage and Small Industries and recommend to provide facilities as per acts and rules.

Besides these activities, CSIDB provides some major activities such as:

Women Entrepreneurs Development Program, Industry Development Program, Industrial Exhibition and National Entrepreneurs Award, Product Development and Training Program, Industry Visit Program, Design Development Collection and Distribution, Information Collection and Publicity, Undertaking Industrial Feasible Study and Provide Industrial Project to Women. In this way Women Entrepreneur Development Branch of CSIDB has mandated to empower women, increase the socio-economic status of women in 48 districts. Its activities are especially concentrated in Kathmandu, Bhaktapur, Lalitpur districts. Since 1952 to 1968/69, the progress achieved by women entrepreneur development branch of CSIDB are as follows:-

Table 4.5: Progress achieved by CSIDB

S.N.	Name of the training and program	No of participated women
1	Entrepreneur development program	232
2	Industry promotion program	818
3	Follow up and interaction program	101
4	Industry visit program	37
5	Skill development training	6089
6	Management training	179
7	Entrepreneur development training	263
8	NGO joint program	712
9	Market link program	26

(Source: Cottage and Small Industry Development Board (CSIDB) 2069)

4.2.3 Industrial Enterprise Development Institute (IEDI)

The Industrial Enterprise Development Institute (IEDI), a semi-autonomous body under the Ministry of Industry, established in 1996 as a successor to Industrial Enterprise Development Centre which itself was a successor to the Small Business Promotion Project (SBPP), a joint project established in 1984 between the Ministry of Industry and German Technical Co-operation (GTZ). It is a national level autonomous resource organization committed to entrepreneur and business development through training, research, consultancy, enterprise education and so on. The enterprise development approach pioneered by the project is being implemented in various countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America. SBPP's main objective is to promote entrepreneurship and small business in the country. The SBPP project has developed several approaches towards introducing effective methods of micro cottage and small industries development in the country. Few to mention are entrepreneurship development, trading industrial potential study and research and technical advisory and consultancy service. The IEDI has given a new dimension in improving the service delivery in the small enterprise sector based on the SBPP approach to enterprise development. The IEDI has become a national level institution in the field of entrepreneurship and management skill development.

IEDI provides necessary services and trainings to potential entrepreneurs, existing entrepreneurs and intermediary organizations in different parts of the country and abroad through its central office in Kathmandu, branch offices in Pokhara, Narayangarh and Nepalgunj. The important ongoing programs of IEDI are:

- Rural Enterprise assistance programme (REAP): REAP aims to reduce poverty through the promotion and sustainable development of micro and small enterprise in different selected districts,
- Social Inclusion and Gender Equity (SIGE) in enterprise development: SIGE in enterprise development programme (EDP) aims to enhance the capacity of institutions including NGO's, CBO's and development of professionals in the field of social inclusion and gender in enterprise development. This programme is designed to empower women and disadvantaged communities for their sustainable livelihood. SIGE in EDP includes social awareness, gender

sensitization workshops and training, micro enterprise development training of trainers, facilitation skills and gender audit and demand based SIGE study,

- **Technology Transfer:** This programme aims at providing technology related information to entrepreneurs, researchers and stakeholder's .The programme also organizes need based skill development training to potential and existing entrepreneurs.
- **Enterprise Education Programme (EE):** This programme aims to develop enterprising skills and attributes among the vocational graduates who lead them towards creative thinking and innovation in setting and achieving self determined goals. IEDI intends to integrate this programme in the Technical Education and Vocational Training in Nepal.
- **Start and Improve Your Business (SIYB):** This program's aim is to increase income and employment opportunities by facilitating creation and development of micro enterprise through training and counseling,

These entire programs which are conducted by IEDI are for men and women entrepreneurs. Here are some data of training programs conducted by IEDI since Fiscal Year 2059/60 to Fiscal Year 2069/69

**Table 4.6: Training Programme conducted by IEDI
since FY 2059/60 to FY 2068/69**

Year	Name of the Training Program	Female	Male	Total
2059/60	EDT,ToT,EMT,SDT	153	211	364
2060/61	"	64	114	178
2061/62	"	191	146	337
2062/63	"	447	162	609
2063/64	"	400	80	480
2064/65	"	380	59	439
2065/66	"	869	193	1062
2066/67	"	281	77	358
2067/68	"	123	239	362
2068/69	"	154	199	353
Total		3062	1480	4542

Note: EDT-Entrepreneurship Development Training,

ToT-Training of Trainers

EMT-Enterprise Management Training

SDT- Skill Development Training

Table 4.7: Training Programme Conducted by IEDI for other organization

Year	Name of the Training	Female	Male	Total
2059/60	EDT,ToT,EMT,SDT	210	306	516
2060/61	"	542	651	1193
2061/62	"	418	574	992
2062/63	"	240	345	585
2063/64	"	207	254	461
2064/65	"	86	144	230
2065/66	"	277	259	536
2066/67	"	312	451	763
2067/68	"	449	365	814
2068/69	"	1165	595	1760
	Total	3906	3944	7850

According to data of Industrial Enterprise Development Institute (IEDI), it also shows the gradual increase of male and female participants in the training program till 2065/66. But in FY 2067/68 there is a sharp decline in the number of trainees both male and female, leading the total number to only 358 from 1062 during FU 2065/66. But on the basis of gender, the total number of female trainees (3062) is double of total number of male trainees (1480) till 2068/69. This shows that government and other private institutions are supporting females to undertake entrepreneurial activities.

4.2.4 Women Entrepreneurs Association of Nepal (WEAN)

Women Entrepreneurs Association of Nepal (WEAN) was established in 1987 as an autonomous, voluntary and non-profit organisation by a group of few prominent Nepalese women entrepreneurs who shared a common vision of helping other women to set up new business enterprises and grow in their established business. WEAN intends to increase women's participation in economic enterprise through its various activities. WEAN's mission is economic empowerment of women through entrepreneurship development. WEAN is a non-profit and a non-governmental

organisation. At the end of 2012 there were 82 full members who own and manage WEAN. WEAN has been seeking to develop potential women entrepreneurs, upgrade the capacity of existing women entrepreneurs through various training and technical assistance. WEAN is led by highly professional and credible women entrepreneurs involved in a wide range of trade and business. The 11 member Management Board elected biannually provides policy guidance. The daily administration and management is run by a set of professional and trained staff .WEAN has extensive experience in terms of implementing projects funded by national and international donor agencies. WEAN has undertaken several initiatives aimed at reducing women's handicap and improving their entrepreneurial capability. It offers training, marketing assistance, micro credit networking and other extension services as a package and training aimed at enabling low income women entrepreneurs in order to create and develop their business. These training packages include entrepreneurship development, marketing, small business management, networking, bookkeeping and account keeping and leadership development. Its major objectives are to:

- increase economic opportunities and create awareness among women entrepreneurs,
- enhance business skills for potential and existing women entrepreneurs,
- develop and upgrade skills of women entrepreneurs according to market need,
- provide loans to low income level women.

WEAN activities are based on the needs of women entrepreneurs. WEAN's activities are mainly focused on various areas such as training, micro credit and saving, research, resource development and events information and publication, and it also establishes marketing network for women entrepreneurs.

Training: WEAN has conducted technology based programme within and outside of the Kathmandu valley. Over the years WEAN has developed effective training packages aimed at enabling women entrepreneurs to create and /or develop their businesses so that they can improve their quality of life and that of their families and society. It has provided different type of training such as Business Enterprise Creation Training, Management Competency Enhancement Training. According to WEAN statistical report 2012 altogether 3214 members participate in different WEAN's training programmes.

Micro Credit & Saving Management Training: Realizing still the difficulty in getting the necessary finance, it started a saving and credit programme. WEAN started micro credit program in 1992 with its own small capital fund of Rs 300,000. In 2055 WEAN received permission from Nepal Rastra Bank to act as a Micro Financial Intermediary (MFI). Up to now it has formed 225 micro credit groups with 2000 members. Most of the credit goes to vegetable farming, raising poultry, tourism related services, bamboo craft, handloom textile and wool tie and dye cloth product. At present WEAN works in 4 districts namely Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur and Rasuwa. WEAN has already created two co-operatives out of the previous micro credit beneficiaries and they are now running their co-operatives independently.

Networking: The objective of networking committee is to establish and develop linkages with both national and international organizations for sustainability and growth of the institution. This program is directly handled by different committees consisting of various activities. Networking Committee plans and organizes seminars, trainings, workshops and talk programs for its members and non members to share and gain experiences.

Marketing: WEAN has also embarked upon developing and marketing new product. For this, WEAN has collaborated with Plan-Nepal to produce and market handmade banana sheath paper. It established WEAN cooperative as a sister concern for collection and marketing of the product produced by women entrepreneurs.

Information and Publications: WEAN publishes a quarterly newsletter called WEAN Update to keep members, donor organisations and the general public well informed about the organisation.

4.2.5 Federation of Women Entrepreneur's Associations of Nepal, FWEAN

FWEAN is a non government, non political and non-profitable organisation aiming at representing the collective efforts of women entrepreneurs in the economic progress of the nation and decision making at national and international levels. FWEAN is the apex body of WEAN which was established in 1989. FWEAN is a focal point for interaction not only with the government, but also with various national and international women's organisations. The Federation ultimately seeks to redefine the perspective of women entrepreneurship through contribution to economic

growth and poverty alleviation towards participation of women at all levels in the socio economic sectors. At present FWEAN's total number of members is 100.

Aims and objectives

- FWEAN is the focal point for networking and strengthening WEAN chapters at the district levels of Nepal.
- FWEAN networks effectively as a co-coordinating organisation that supports the interest of women entrepreneurs in Nepal, through effective lobbying for relevant policies and programs on women's issues with government and non-government organisations for national, socio economic development.
- Build linkages and affiliations at the regional and international level for joint promotional entrepreneurial activities, annual exchange of visits for trade and inter exchange of services, setting up of intra country cooperative, focusing on promotion and marketing of products of women entrepreneurs.

4.2.6 WEAN Multipurpose Co-operative

WEAN Multipurpose Co-operative Ltd. was established in 1991 under the Co-operative Act of Nepal Government. It is a women producer's marketing co-operative. Its basic objective is to help women to come to the forefront of social and economic activities through trade and industry by providing organized collection and marketing of the product produced by them. Major objectives of the co-operative are to:

- Market the products produced by member producers,
- Help member producers to manage raw material,
- Help them in providing new technology,
- Help them to participate in national and international exhibition and trade fairs

In order to achieve its main objective WEAN co-operative performed the several regular activities which are:

- Regular skill upgrading trainings for member producers in their respective areas.
- Counseling and monitoring with relation to all production activities

- Regular training in costing and pricing, quality control, product development, labeling and packaging etc.
- Helping its members to participate in domestic and international exhibitions/trade fairs
- Marketing food and handicraft products locally as well as internationally
- Conducting entrepreneurship as well as skill upgrading trainings in collaboration with CBOs, NGOs and INGOs.
- Provide door to door service of grocery items to members and non members also.
- Conduct exhibition or *mela* in traditional festivals.
- Credit support.

Besides these activities, the cooperative is providing skill upgrade training for the poor. WEAN co-operative export most of the handicraft to Japan, European countries and USA. Most of the food products are exported to Japan. To promote the products produced by its members, the co-operative has decided to participate in at least 2 international trade fairs per year. For this process the co-operative has created a group of women entrepreneurs, "WOMAN POWER" and European designers are helping in this project. With their support WOMAN POWER has developed different products and European clients are placing orders of these products. WEAN Cooperative is trying to make women capable of producing quality products for export.

4.2.7 Women Co-Operative Society (WCS) Ltd.

Women Co-operative Society (WCS), a co-operative financing organisation promoted by 28 women promoters, was established in January, 1995 under the Co-operative Act, 1922, to uplift the socio-economic condition of rural as well as urban women through access to financial services and other development. It has been authorized by Nepal Rastra Bank to undertake limited banking function, micro financing activities. More than 90% of its present share capital of Rs. 17.31 million is owned by women shareholders. The main mission or objective of WCS is to develop itself as a special financial institution to provide easy access to financial services for women in urban and rural areas and assist in alleviating poverty through women empowerment by raising their economic and social status. WCS provides two types of services to

women entrepreneurs: one is financial service and second is non financial services. Under financial service it provides various credit facilities and micro credit scheme provided through groups on the village level. Under non Financial Service it provides pre-group training, leadership training, health and hygiene, social awareness and development training, EDP training and counseling, computer training, vegetable farming, goat raising, candle making, soap making, enterprise development training, beauty parlor training and business management training. All of WCS's programs are focused in the Kathmandu Valley.

4.2.8 Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF)

A quarter of the Nepali population still lives below poverty line. The majorities of the poor live predominantly in rural areas and engage in traditional and subsistence farming on small plots of low quality land, have limited access to credit, infrastructure, market and basic social services, often because of remoteness. Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF) was established in 2004 as a special and targeted program to bring the excluded communities in the mainstream of development by involving the poor and disadvantaged groups themselves in the driving seat of development efforts. One of the objectives of the tenth five year plan (2003-2008) was poverty alleviation. Hence poverty reduction strategy has been regarded as the main basis of the tenth plan. Failure of past Governments' effort to fulfill the basic need of people living below the poverty line has resulted in creation of Ppoverty Alleviation Fund (PAF). With the active participation of the poor and the marginalized groups of the society the fund has launched various poverty alleviation programmes and provides necessary assistance and funds to organisation involved in similar works. PAF is contributing to bringing the level of poverty down to 10 percent in 20 years in pursuant with the long term goal of the Government of Nepal and reduce poverty by half by the year 2015 as per the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). With the recent addition of 15 districts, the total programme districts of PAF have reached to 40. Remaining 35 districts will be covered through poverty pocket approach.

PAF has taken strategy to enable poor people through social mobilization and capacity building in order to organise and obtain quality basic services in cost effective and sustainable manner with their direct involvement. The main objective of the PAF is to improve the livelihood of the poor for their sustainable socio-economic

development and develop entrepreneurship for sustainable income generation and employment generation. In order to implement the programme components of PAF, they include local bodies, NGOs, CBOs and private sector.

PAF's main target groups are below poverty line people, especially women, *Dalit* and *Janajati*. In order to ensure the women's holistic development and support for poverty reduction in considerably less time that can be possible through social mobilization and capacity building, income generation and employment creation, community infrastructure building. In order to uplift the women entrepreneur it has provided different types of training and counseling. Its main WED related activities are EDPTOT, EDP training and counseling, credit support, skill development marketing networking, exposure visits. In this way PAF helps women to develop entrepreneurship for sustainable income generation and employment generation and also support to improve the livelihood of the poor.

Though PAF was established by an ordinance in 2004 PAF is governed by an act since 2006. It is an autonomous, independent and professional organization governed by separate law. The 12 members governing board, chaired by the Prime Minister, is responsible for policy guidance and programme approval.

Project Development Objective (PDO) of PAF is to improve living condition, livelihood and empowerment among the rural poor, with particular attention to groups that have traditionally been excluded by reason of gender, ethnicity, caste and location. This is to be achieved through:

- investing in community selected and managed sub-projects that create access to basic socio-economic infrastructure and services, increase assets, generate employment and expand income-generating opportunities in poor village,
- enhancing the capacity of local bodies, particularly the village development committees (VDCs), to provide better services for poor and socially excluded groups (currently, there are no elected local bodies in Nepal),
- improving government efforts to better coordinate support targeted towards poor excluded groups.

The expected development outcomes would be:

- improvements in access to small-scale social and economic infrastructure and services, as prioritized by the beneficiary communities,
- generation of incremental employment at the village level, including both short-term participation in the implementation of sub-projects and longer-term jobs resulting from economic activities facilitated by PAF,
- increase in capital assets and/or incomes of beneficiary households,
- an increase in citizens participation and voice in community decision making.

4.2.9 Micro Enterprise Development Program (MEDEP)

In order to meet the economic necessities of the rural people and to help those who are living below the poverty line the Government of Nepal and UNDP entered into a technical collaboration to promote off farm employment and income generating opportunities. The partnership between the Nepal Government and the UNDP established MEDEP in July 1998 in 10 districts of Nepal covering two districts each from the five development regions. The development aim of the program is to contribute to the government's efforts to reduce poverty in the country.

MEDEP goals are two folds one to reduce poverty among low-income families in rural areas and the other is to ensure the institutional development and capacity building of local service delivery organisations to work as catalysts in the development of rural micro-enterprise sector. The aim of the programme is to help low-income families become entrepreneurs, promote the development of their enterprises and to help and support the promotion of micro-enterprises on sustainable footing. In the process of creating income and employment opportunities the program's objective is to build the capacity of state and private institutions that provide necessary services required for setting up micro-enterprises. Its target group and beneficiaries were those who are living below the country's poverty line, unemployed youth women, poor indigenous groups and its Development Goal is to reduce poverty by half by 2015.

Eighty-three percent of Nepal's population lives in rural areas. The lack of income-earning opportunities in these areas is a central cause of the widespread poverty and worsening food security in the country. It also forces even more Nepalese to leave home to seek work in Nepal's towns and cities, in India and further afield. The

sustainable development of Nepal's villages depends on generating many new local jobs, especially for the rapidly growing number of young job seekers. The Government's Three Years Interim Plan (2010-2013) aimed at providing entrepreneurship development training to more than 56,000 due to its importance in removing a major grievance that fuelled the conflict-the lack of job opportunities in rural areas (MEDEP Report 2012).

MEDEP is creating employment and income opportunity for the rural poor by:

- Providing skills and business training and other support, mainly for women and poor and disadvantaged people to set up micro-enterprises,
- Helping establish business support services and representative organizations for micro-entrepreneurs,
- Working with the government to improve the policy environment.

The programme works in 38 districts including in the Bhutanese Refugee Camps adjoining communities in eastern Nepal. It also assists local government bodies and the Ministry of Industry's line agencies in other 13 districts to provide micro-enterprise development support.

MEDEP has special programs for WED such as it has the target of achieving 70 percent women participation in micro-enterprise activities. The programme routinely undertakes the following activities to address the needs of women to ensure maximum participation of rural women in enterprise development:

- Gender awareness and gender sensitivity training to programme staff,
- target groups and stakeholders for gender equity development,
- Focus on capacity building of the rural poor women to boost their confidence in decision making,
- taking leadership roles and to have access to and control over their earning.

The broader goal of the MEDEP programme is to reduce poverty by addressing the strategic needs and interest of existing and new low income micro enterprise. It has aimed at transforming existing micro enterprises to owners and managers of successful micro-enterprises, meeting the demands of local market and establishing micro enterprise support services that are accessible to poor families.

The mid-term review of MEDEP November-December 2000 stated that there was a need for formulating policy guidelines for the micro-enterprise sector. Under the recommendation of the review mission, therefore, a third immediate objective on "Policy recommendation for micro-enterprise development" was included in the programme. This objective proposed to analyze and document existing policy on micro-enterprise and determining the policy gap and recommend the new policy guidelines to the government agencies. Bajracharya et al. 2003 had stated in their report micro and small enterprises policy in Nepal. Review of legal and policy framework, submitted to ILO/UNDP, that "the prevailing policy and legal environment is not conducive for MSE development. No focused attention has been given in this sector. Despite establishment of many best practices, these are translated into policies pushing such practices into oblivion. MEDEP, the ongoing project, has established a number of best practices and these should be incorporated in policies for the sustainable growth of the MSE sector which has already proved to be effective in generating employment and alleviating poverty."

Since its beginning, MEDEP has developed over 60,000 micro entrepreneurs (68% women, 20% Dalits and 67% youth) and created about 62,000 sustainable jobs. Eighty percent of MEDEP enterprises continue to do business – a high success rate that reflects the strength of this programme. Technical support to the government helped it produce its Micro Finance Policy 2007 and its micro-enterprise policy 2008. These make the government policy to provide easier access to finance for poor rural people, to enable micro-enterprises to register as formal business. At the district level the programme has supported the local government to implement the MEDEP model and small business to access district enterprise development funds.

MEDEP's impressive achievements led the Government in its interim plan to allocate \$3 million to 45 districts and to gradually replicate the MEDEP model in the name of Micro Enterprise Development for poverty Alleviation (MEDEP) across Nepal's all 75 districts. Eventually, in the fourth phase (August 2013 – July 2018), government's MEDEP will gradually takeover MEDEP's role of creating and sustaining entrepreneurs and MEDEP will more focus on capacity building of government line agencies and private organization for the sustainable delivery of micro-enterprise development services. Its achievement also led MEDEP to be highly commended in the International World Business and Development Awards, 2008.

4.2.10 Federation of Nepalese Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FNCCI)

FNCCI is the nationally and internationally recognized umbrella organisation of business in Nepal. It was organized as a representative body of business organisation in the country. It represents the interests of the private sector and is involved in promotion of socio economic development of Nepal through private sector led economic growth. It was established in 1965 with the aim of promoting business and Industry. While protecting the right and interests of business and industrial communities, FNCCI has been playing a key role in promoting business and industry in the country. It provides inter alia, information, advisory, consultative promotional and representative services to business and government and also organizes training/workshop/seminar on a regular basis.

The FNCCI is represented in almost all national councils/boards/committees policy advisory bodies concerned with business and industry. Its main mission and function is to facilitate Nepalese Businesses to become globally competitive. It provides advisory services to government, lobby as and when required in formulation and execution of business and industry related policy acts and programs. It provides up to date information services to business and government and the community at large.

Major WED related programs and services of FNCCI are -

- Establishment of women entrepreneurship development committee within district and municipality chambers of Commerce and Industry,
- Regional workshop on women problems and prospects,
- Buyer sellers meeting for market promotion,
- Interaction program on relevant topics for WED such as marketing, networking, etc
- Training program on entrepreneurship development, skill development training,
- EDP Training / Counseling.

Objectives of the programs and services are:

- To encourage women entrepreneurs in the field of business and industries,
- To help for the marketing of products of women entrepreneurs,

- To identify problems faced by women entrepreneurs and prepare reports on suggestions and recommendations, and
- To lobby for policies favorable to women entrepreneurs.

4.2.11 Federation of Nepal Cottage and Small Industries (FNCSI)

Federation of Nepal Cottage and Small Industries (FNCSI) is a not for profit, non-political, non-governmental Business Membership Organization (BMO). It has its networks in 72 districts out of 75 districts in Nepal. These district chapters, as per the constitution of the FNCSI are either autonomous or branch chapters. Autonomous district chapters are governed by their own constitution formulated in compliance with FNCSI's constitution where the branch chapters are governed directly by FNCSI's constitution. At present 8 district chapters are autonomous and 64 district chapters are as branch. Besides the district chapters, FNCSI's membership comprises of 14 national level commodity associations.

In the developing countries like Nepal gender disparities are one of the major obstacles for enterprise development. As per constitution of FNCSI, it has made a provision to form women Entrepreneurs Committee (WEC) from central level to district level to streamline the women entrepreneurs in the national economic development of the country. At present the Central Women Entrepreneur Committee has 52 district networks. WECs are working in their optimum capacity and this is the largest network of women entrepreneurs in the country. WEC conducted different programs and services to the women entrepreneurs such as skill development training, marketing/networking, market promotion, exhibition and trade fair, lobbying and advocacy, workshop and seminar.

In 1969 the number of trainings conducted was 870 and the number of trainees benefited from the trainings was 13,900.

A large number of national workshops and seminars were conducted on policies production, promotion and management of member industries.

More than 650 FNCSI member entrepreneurs have attended international workshops and seminars, especially the programs organized by Asian Productivity Organization (APO) and other international governmental and non-governmental organizations.

FNCSI has established Trade Point Kathmandu, Nepal (TPKN) in collaboration with Trade and Export Promotion Center and World Trade Point Federation (WTPE) under the initiation of UNCTAD.

FNCSI has conducted ten national, one SAARC level and several number of regional and district level exhibitions and trade fair. 400 member enterprises have already participated in international trade fairs and exhibitions abroad.

4.2.12 Centre for Self-help Development (CSD)

Considering the development scenario, a small group of development practitioners and policy makers established a non-government organisation (NGO) based on their shared vision of "self-help development". Their goal was to work with the disadvantaged community people to begin a process of self-help development changing the dependency mind set of the community people.

This vision of helping people to help themselves gave birth to "Centre for Self-help Development" (CSD) a non- government organisation (NGO) in August 1991. Since then CSD has been making efforts to raise awareness in the rural poor so as to help them to initiate their own institution building and carry out various programs generating both financial and social capital.

Main objective of CSD's programs and services is to empower the poor and deprived people both socially and economically. *Dalits and* disadvantaged group, especially the women and their families are the target group of the program of CSD WED related programs and services launched by CSD are:

- Self-help Banking (microfinance) program SBP. This microfinance provides services mainly to low income women.
- Community Poverty Alleviation Initiatives (CPAI). In this program CSD tries to improve the livelihood of poor women for their sustainable socio-economic development and income generation and employment generation: CSD enhances awareness among poor women of lifting them out of poverty. Different types of skill development training are also provided to women. CSD's main goal is to promote awareness and develop consciousness for the "new paradigm" of self-help development.

Objectives of the CSD:

- To enhance awareness among the community people on critical issues of lifting the poor out of poverty,
- To strengthen the commitment of support organization including donors, INGOs and NGOs to support programs and projects aimed at socio-economic development,
- To enhance capacity among grassroots organizations/community based organization to identify, plan, implement and monitor and evaluate development activities and build up the indigenous as well as induce self-help groups and organizations,
- To build understanding among development practitioners of gender dimensions of community development with particular reference related to facilitating access to microfinance services mainly to income women,
- To work as a development catalyst/facilitator in institution building of local communities,
- To work as a training provider.

4.2.13 Department of Women Development (DWD)

The Department of Women Development (DWD) is under the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare. It was under the Ministry of Local Development till December 1999. DWD had mandate to empower women, increase the socio economic status of women specially those who are economically poor, socially deprived and disadvantaged women. It has attempted to bring gender equality in society. In order to fulfill its mandated objectives, Department runs the women development program, a national priority intervention targeted on the intersection of poverty and discrimination. The Department began this programme since 2000. To achieve mandated objectives Department of Women Section (DWS) designed a project entitled "Production Credit for Rural Women Program (PCRW) in five districts with UNICEF support in 1982 within the limited period. The PSRW project expanded rapidly in other districts also. The DWD at center is overall responsible for the planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluation of the women development programs. The Department implements the program through 75 district officers.

Provision of number of unit offices has been made under different offices. Group formation, training, community development and institutional development components are directly implemented through the cadre of department. In order to make plans and programs more realistic and effective, the DWD also co-ordinates with government organization, NGOs, financial institution as well as with other donor agencies. The Director General heads the organization and takes over all responsibilities for the program implementation. To implement the program, one Women Development Section (WDS) have been established in districts.

Thus, the program has three dimensions: gender mainstreaming, women's empowerment and social inclusion. The seven priorities of the program are gender, equity, reproductive health awareness, economic prosperity, institutionalization, community affiliation, adolescent girl development and men's participation. As of July 2008, a total of 385758 women were participating in the program (WDW Report 2008) of WDS.

Women development programme was extended to 210 VDC and 9253 new women groups were formed during FY 2068/069. At the same time various training programmes were launched in order to empower women in various field such as:

Table 4.8: Training Program held

S.N.	Name of the Training	Number of women
1.	Basic Training	3300
2.	Awareness Training for Health and Maternity	1605
3.	Leadership and Organization Development Training	2233
4.	Proposal Writing Training	485
5.	Account Keeping Training	999
6.	Skill Development Training	6420
7.	Skill Refreshment Training	1060
8.	Village Business Development Training	277
9.	Life Utility Training	2790
10.	Skill Development Training for girls	2725
11.	Mainstreaming Training for Gender Focal Point	1000

(Source: Women Development Programme FY 2068/069 of Ministry of Women, Children and Welfare, DWD).

In the FY 2068/069, DWD analyzed and made a separate strategy to empower the women who were below the poverty line. Under this strategy they provided

refreshment training for 900 women, skill development and entrepreneurship development training for 1800 women and they gave the opportunity for 225 females to visit in distinct small industries.

4.2.14 Women for Human Right, Single Women Group (WHR)

Women for Human Right, Single Women Group established in 1994 as a non-governmental organization. It is actively working for the human right of single women group. WHR's aim is to empower and reintegrate conflict affected women (CAW) and their family from their sorrow, fear and frustration. Mission of WHR is to empower women economically, politically, socially and culturally in order to live dignified lives and enjoy the value of human right.

Objectives of WHR are:

- Raise the social and economic status of Nepalese single women and their families,
- Mainstream the rights of single women in development, humanitarian and peace building initiative,
- Meaningful participation of single women at decision making level in the social, economic and political spheres,
- To empower women to be their own "Agent of Change".

Women for Human Right, Single Women in Nepal (WHR) offers skill development training, micro-credit training, tailoring among others for single women. WHR also provides scholarship to single women and their children and disburses loan to the members of single women groups so that they can set up their small scale business and start work on their own.

Single women entrepreneur group and *Aadhar* saving and micro credit program are the programs which have been working together in the field of women entrepreneurship development. Single women entrepreneur provides income generating training and through *Aadhar* saving and credit, this organization disburse loans. The main objectives of the program are single women groups that have developed appropriate strategies to be economically independent and improve their livelihood.

Discrimination against women in Nepal is prevalent, due to the structure of the society deeply rooted in patriarchal thought. Women are constantly marginalized and single women (widows) are in an even worse stage. Single women are considered as symbols of ill-women and the cause of the death of her husband. Furthermore, unfavorable laws and practices that are often discriminatory only further aggravate their suffering, lowering their status in society. Certain religious and traditional practices harm the physical and mental health of single women.

4.2.15 Federation of Business and Professional Women Nepal (FBPWN)

The Federation of Business and Professional Women Nepal serves as a forum to articulate the interest and problems of women in Nepal particularly those related to working women. The history of FBPWN dates back to the early 1970's. It was founded in 1972 as Business and Professional Women's Club (BPWC). It was first registered as BPWC With the government in 1975. It was re-registered as Federation of Business and Professional Women Nepal (FBPW) in 1991. It has been a member of International Federation of Business and Professional Women (IFBPW) since 1985. It is also affiliated with Social Welfare Council Nepal.

The main goal of FBPW Nepal is to develop socio-economic empowerment of women and inclusiveness. It ensures its members to become outstanding and shine in their profession and business. Through its polytechnic and job oriented training, FBPWN offers women and girls the opportunities to develop their professional, social and intellectual skills and increase their value in the workforce. The main objectives of BPW Nepal are:

- To encourage (an increasing number of) women to enter the workforce and enhance their professional skills by providing forum for dialogue, organizing, and working as a pressure group,
- To promote working women's participation in national development through their efficient professional and business skills,
- To organize and develop professional skills of women through technical and job oriented training,

- To encourage academically deserving and economically underprivileged young women to pursue their studies,
- To increase the number of literate women by providing various functional literacy program through its chapter.

4.3 International Organization in Women Enterprise Development in Nepal

There are some international organizations working in Nepal that are working for women enterprise development in Nepal. Some of them are HELVETAS, SNV etc.

4.3.1 SNV Nepal

SNV opened its first Asia Office in Nepal in 1980. It is the first organisation to reach out to some of the poorest pockets in the Far Western Nepal. Starting from 2011, SNV has designed scalable and impact oriented programme within four sectors. The four key sectors SNV is working are: Agricultural and Forest Product, Renewable Energy, Water, Sanitation and Hygiene, and Pro-poor Sustainable Tourism .Till date SNV in Nepal has achieved an outreach of some 4 million people, who now benefit from increased employment and income, food security, access to renewable energy and access to water sanitation and improved hygiene.

Under SNV WED related program and services, gender mainstreaming is compulsory in all the production, income and employment related programs. Basically small holder cash crops (SHCC), tea, cardamom, organic apples value chains, Forest Products (FPs)- value chains related to Timber and Non Timber Forest Products, Pro Poor Sustainable Tourism (PPST),Great Himalaya Trail Development Program and Responsible Travel Nepal Initiatives are the main activities prompted by SNV.

In order to develop the women entrepreneurs SNV provides EDP Training/Counseling, skill development training as per need, marketing/networking program.

4.3.2 HELVETAS Nepal

HELVETAS, Swiss Inter-cooperation, is a non-profit organization. It came to Nepal in 1956. HELVETAS work in the rural areas of Nepal. Its main aim is to contribute to

improve living condition of economically poor and socially discriminated men and women in 75 districts across the country. Its target groups are substantive level of entrepreneurs (micro entrepreneurs), landless and land poor, women and *Dalit*, *Janjati*. HELVETAS promotes EDP training and counseling to women frequently. The organization works within five working areas, education and skill development, environment and climate, governance and peace, rural economy and water and infrastructure. HELVETAS assists disadvantaged and marginalized communities and its main aim in Nepal is to achieve gender equitable development. i.e. contributing to improve living condition of economically poor and socially discriminated men and women. The organization (HELVETAS) examines the situation of women in terms of positions, power, roles and opportunities. In a patriarchal culture that from birth to old age gives performance to males, women's hold a very low position within the home and broader community. A women's decision making and control of resources is negligible in many households. Recently legislative changes still do not give equal right to women for the inheritance of parental property. In the same way men are given more opportunities for education and employment. Women are bound by their household responsibilities.

So HELVETAS is that organization that has set specific operational objectives focused on support of women

- To increase the employment of female and male youth and the income they earned
- To empower the disadvantaged-women and *Dalit* group to address the effects of discrimination and exploitation

HELVETAS and its SLOW's (Small Farmer, Landless, Occupational Caste, And Women) partners insure that activities are directed towards women, and bring them tangible benefit.

HELVETAS enhances the participation of women in context of development plans and activities. Improving women's participation development programmes requires significant initial shift in attitude, social norms and values to allow women's mobility and availability of time. HELVATAS follows a stepwise strategy. The steps are:

- gender sensitization and awareness raising,
- group formation,

- economic development activities,
- organization/network building and strengthening,
- building on change,

Due to the social, traditional barriers in the country it has been proven difficult to attract and maintain the purposeful and qualitative participation of women in the programme. But its team and working communities are slowly building the ground for women to participate equally in the region's development. HELVETAS and partners are now trying to consolidate women's social mobilization and organization so that they can together confidently move into the income generating programme.

First of all they formulate group and then they introduce the basic activities that build confidence in women. These women are trained in economic development activities and also HELVETAS provides opportunity to enhance income generating activities through skill development training. Women participation in income generating activities increase empowerment. Economic empowerment raised women's status and confidence within the home, market and broader community.

Conclusion

Government of Nepal has taken various steps to promote the development of women and women entrepreneurship in Nepal. To guarantee women's economic, social, financial and political rights, minimum of 33% women participations has been established as a working policy by the government of Nepal. In order to solve various gender related issues and promote women entrepreneurship government has formed separate ministry (Ministry of women, children and social welfare). The ministry has lunched various women entrepreneurship development (WED) program to promote entrepreneurship development among women entrepreneurship. With the help of various governmental and non government organizations as well as various international organizations, government of Nepal is trying to tackle the problems faced by women entrepreneur. Lack of land and capital is holding women back to establish their own productive enterprise. Micro-credit project for women (MCPW), Rural Development Bank and credit operation of the NGO have been filling these types of gaps by performing the financing and promotional roles to help women set up viable productive units.

CHAPTER- V

ATTRIBUTES OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN NEPAL

This chapter presents the data about personal characteristics of women entrepreneur which include demographic information, education status, experiences, training obtained, funds generated, business operated, etc generated through questionnaire survey.

5.1 Influence of Personal Characteristics in Women Entrepreneurship

Personal characteristics like age, education, family background, and training can have some influence in choice of business, legal ownership status of business, means of obtaining funds and means of getting support. Some researchers had attempted to study the relationship between education and entrepreneurial success. According to Bates (1990), highly educated entrepreneurs were likely to create firms that remained in operation. Osirimi (1990) cited similar results that high levels of educational attainment led to successful entrepreneurship.

A study done by Rajani and Sarada (2008) in Andhra Pradesh, India, found out that generally women think of business ideas in their thirties. They propose that during their thirties women entrepreneurs think that they are capable of managing family and business. Most of the women entrepreneurs are married and they receive most help from their husband. A study done by Sinha (2003) also supports this finding. Sinha (2003) revealed that majority of women entrepreneurs seek guidance from their parents or husbands to start their business.

Rajani and Sarada (2008) also found out that most of the women entrepreneurs were involved in business like purchase and sales of product. Many women were involved in service sector and only few were involved in manufacturing sector.

Many researchers have suggested that most of the women entrepreneurs tends to run small business in retail and service sector (Collerette et al., 1990; Lee-Gosselin et al., 1990). Majority of them choose the type of business which they “know the sector

well” and are “interested in” (Collerette et al.’ 1990) or in which they have prior experience in (Steward et.al.,1988). Lappen (1992) reported that only 10% of women business owners had run their business for more than 12 years while Collerette et al (1990) cited that half of the women had been in business for less than 5 years.

Start-up capital was most likely to come from personal and family savings, investors and partners, and banks (Lee-Gosselin et al., 1990).

5.1.1. Influences of Age on Type of Ventures Undertaken

One of the personal characteristics that could have an influence upon the entrepreneurship is the age of the entrepreneurs. Following table (Table 5.1) shows the distribution of women in different age groups. The age groups are below 25 years, between 26-35, between 36 to 45, between 46-55 and above 56.

Table 5.1: Age of Respondent

Age of Respondents	Frequency	Percent (%)
Below 25 years	10	2.70
26 to 35 years	68	18.50
36 to 45 years	164	44.60
46 to 55 years	80	21.70
Above 56 years	46	12.50
Total	368	100.00

Table 5.1 shows the age distribution of the respondents. Survey result shows that most of the women entrepreneurs were mature women age 36 and above. This finding is in line with the study done by Rajani and Sarada (2008) in Andhra Pradesh, India. They found out that generally women think of business ideas in their thirties. There may be various reasons for it. Marriage, lack of support from family, lack of confidence in one's ability, involvement in other jobs, child care etc may be few of them. .

In order to assess whether age influences the type of business women get involved some analysis was done. Table 5.2 breaks down the type of venture undertaken by women entrepreneur with their age. It can be see that most women between the ages of 36 to 45 are involved in manufacturing business.

Table 5.2: Age and Business Type

		Business Type				Total
		Manufacturing	Trading	Service	Other	
Age	Below 25 years	60.0%	40.0%			100.0%
	26 to 35 years	64.7%	8.8%	20.6%	5.9%	100.0%
	36 to 45 years	72.0%	14.6%	9.8%	3.7%	100.0%
	46 to 55 years	80.0%	12.5%	5.0%	2.5%	100.0%
	Above 56 years	78.3%		17.4%	4.3%	100.0%
Total		72.8%	12.0%	11.4%	3.8%	100.0%

In fact, analysis shows that most of the respondents prefer manufacturing business over trading or services. This finding is contrary to some research done in the past. Rajani and Sarada (2008) found out that most of the women entrepreneurs in Andhra Pradesh, India were involved in business like purchase and sales of product. Many women were involved in service sector and only few were involved in manufacturing sector.

In order to know if there was any association or differences between ages and the types of business undertaken a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Age and type of venture undertaken by women entrepreneur are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Age and type of venture undertaken by women entrepreneur are dependent of each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	27.679 ^a	12	.006
Likelihood Ratio	31.739	12	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.466	1	.116
N of Valid Cases	368		

The calculated chi square value of 27.679 and a P value of .006 is compared with table value that rejects the null hypothesis and conclude that age and type of venture undertaken are independent of each other. Age plays a part in choosing what type of business women entrepreneur get involved in. It can be seen that women over the age of 35 are mostly involved in manufacturing business.

5.1.2. Influence of Age on legal ownership status of business

The legal ownership status of business run by women entrepreneurs is shown in table 5.3. Women entrepreneurs are involved and run various business like, sole ownership, partnership, corporative, etc. The statistics shows that most of the ventures of women entrepreneurs are sole proprietorship which consists of 62.2% of total sample. Of 368 samples, 26.1% have partnership, 10.6 % have corporation.

Table 5.3: Legal Ownership Status of Business of Respondents

Ownership Status	Frequency	Percent (%)
Sole ownership	229	62.2
Partnership	96	26.1
Cooperatives	39	10.6
Others	4	1.1
Total	368	100.0

Data shows very few women entrepreneurs own corporation and other types of big business ventures. This finding is in line with other research done by various researchers around the world. Many researchers have suggested that most of the women entrepreneur tends to run small business (Collerette et al., 1990; Lee-Gosselin et al., 1990). Small businesses are easy to manage and require less time.

In order to access the influence of Age on legal ownership status of business some cross tabulation were done. Table 5.4 breaks data down by age and legal ownership of business.

Table 5.4: Age and Legal Ownership of Business

		Legal Ownership Business				Total
		Sole ownership	Partnership	Cooperatives	Others	
Age	Below 25 years	40.0%	40.0%	20.0%		100.0%
	26 to 35 years	64.7%	19.1%	14.7%	1.5%	100.0%
	36 to 45 years	63.4%	26.2%	9.1%	1.2%	100.0%
	46 to 55 years	55.0%	33.8%	11.2%		100.0%
	Above 56 years	71.7%	19.6%	6.5%	2.2%	100.0%
Total		62.2%	26.1%	10.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Above table shows that around 64% women entrepreneur between the ages of 26 and 35 have sole proprietorship. It is followed by age group of 26 to 45. Around 72% of women entrepreneur above the age of 56 prefer sole ownership. A chi square test at 5% margin of error was done to see if there was any association or difference between age and legal ownership status.

Null Hypothesis

Age and legal ownership status of business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Age and legal ownership status of business are dependent of each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.392 ^a	12	.496
Likelihood Ratio	12.139	12	.435
Linear-by-Linear Association	.971	1	.324
N of Valid Cases	368		

The calculated chi square value of 11.39 and a P value of .496 is compared with table value that fails to reject the null hypothesis and it can be concluded that Age and legal ownership status of business have no association with each other. Age does not play a role in determining the ownership status of business. Legal ownership of business can also depend on various things other than age like preference of the entrepreneur, education level, nature of entrepreneur, etc.

5.1.3 Influence of Age on Sources of Start-up Fund

Startup funds are very crucial to start a business for any entrepreneur. This research wanted to know how those funds were procured by women entrepreneur. Some women entrepreneur might use personal saving, some might use household saving, some might borrow from relatives or friends, some might get loan from banks, etc. Following table (Table 5.5) gives an indication about the source of those startup funds.

Table 5.5: Sources of Startup Fund

Start-up Fund	Frequency	Percent (%)
Personal saving	52	14.1
Household	112	30.4
Borrowed from relatives or friends	134	36.4
Financial institutions	66	17.9
Others	4	1.1
Total	368	100

Table 5.5 shows that most of the Nepalese women entrepreneurs started their business by borrowing from relatives or friends. 17.9% reported that they had borrowed money from financial institutions for starting their business. 30.4% have used household funds to start their business and 14.1% had started business from their personal saving. This shows that Nepalese women entrepreneurs are still lagging behind in terms of taking financial support from financial institutions rather they are more comfortable in using household funds or borrowing from people they know. Researches done by other researchers have also shown that start-up capital was most likely to come from personal and family savings (Lee-Gosselin et al., 1990).

In order to assess whether there was any relationship between age and source of startup fund some analysis was done. Table 5.6 shows sources of funds to start the

business and breaks it down with respect to age. It can be seen that irrespective of age financial institutions are used less often by women entrepreneurs. They prefer to borrow from friends or use household source. Women above the ages 56 use financial institution more than women of other age group. Women below the age of 25 mostly borrow from friend and relative. Table 5.6 also shows that irrespective of age most women entrepreneur borrow from friends and relative while starting a business.

Table 5.6: Age and Source of Start up Fund

		Source of Startup Fund					Total
		Personal saving	Household	Borrowed from relatives or friends	Financial institutions	Others	
Age	Below 25 years	20.0%	30.0%	50.0%			100.0%
	26 to 35 years	13.2%	23.5%	45.6%	16.2%	1.5%	100.0%
	36 to 45 years	18.3%	31.1%	31.7%	18.3%	.6%	100.0%
	46 to 55 years	12.5%	37.5%	42.5%	6.2%	1.2%	100.0%
	Above 56 years	13.0%	26.1%	26.1%	32.6%	2.2%	100.0%
Total		15.5%	30.4%	36.4%	16.6%	1.1%	100.0%

A chi square test at 5% margin of error was done to see if there was any significant association or differences between age and source of startup fund.

Null Hypothesis

Age and source of startup fund are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Age and source of startup fund are related

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25.204 ^a	16	.066
Likelihood Ratio	26.831	16	.043
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.129	1	.288
N of Valid Cases	368		

The calculated chi square value of 25.240 and a P value of .066 are compared with table value that fails to reject the null hypothesis and it can be concluded that Age and source of startup fund are not related to each other. Most women entrepreneurs irrespective of age use their personal funds or borrow from somebody they know to start their business. Mature women may also prefer to use more financial institution to get funds; they may have more savings and may have contact with more lenders. However age plays no role in determining the source of startup funds.

5.1.4 Influence of Age on Support to Initiate Business

Every business person needs some kind of support to initiate their business. It may be emotional support, financial support or other kind of support. This research wanted to know about the support that women entrepreneurs got to initiate their business. Some might have got support from their husband, some from their in laws, some from parents, brother, sister, friends, etc. Following table (Table 5.7) gives an indication on who were those people who helped women entrepreneur start their business.

Table 5.7: Support to initiate business

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Husband	206	56.00
Father/ Mother	82	22.30
Father in Laws/Mother in Laws	6	1.60
Brother/Sisters	28	7.60
Other Relatives	4	1.10
Friends	42	11.40
Total	368	100.00

Table 5.7 shows that family members helped women entrepreneur to initiate business. Most women entrepreneurs are between the ages of 36-45 so it can be safely concluded in Nepalese context that they are married. Most married women are supported by their husband and their parents. This finding is in line with other research done around the world. Rajani and Sarada (2008) in their research found that most women entrepreneurs receive help from their husband. Father and mother of women entrepreneurs are the most helpful groups. A study done by Sinha (2003) also supports this finding. Sinha (2003) revealed that majority of women entrepreneur seek guidance from their parents or husbands to start their business.

Table 5.8 breaks down the data regarding the support to start business with respect to age. Irrespective of age husbands are the ones who are providing more support to women entrepreneurs. It is mostly true for women entrepreneurs below the age of 25 who are married. 64% of women entrepreneurs between the ages of 36 to 45 said that they received help from husband to start their business.

Table 5.8: Age and Support to Start Business

		Support to Start Business						Total
		Husb and	Father/ Mother	Father in Laws/M other in Laws	Brother/ Sisters	Other Relative s	Frien ds	
Age	Below 25 years	80.0%	20.0%					100.0%
	26 to 35 years	45.6%	33.8%	2.9%	2.9%		14.7%	100.0%
	36 to 45 years	64.0%	19.5%	1.2%	4.9%	1.2%	9.1%	100.0%
	46 to 55 years	47.5%	25.0%	2.5%	10.0%		15.0%	100.0%
	Above 56 years	52.2%	10.9%		21.7%	4.3%	10.9%	100.0%
Total		56.0%	22.3%	1.6%	7.6%	1.1%	11.4%	100.0%

In order to see if there was any correlation between age and support to start business a chi square test at 5% margin of error was done to see if there was any significant association or difference.

Null Hypothesis

Age and support to start business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Age and support to start business are related

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	41.834 ^a	20	.003
Likelihood Ratio	40.887	20	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.245	1	.039
N of Valid Cases	368		

The calculated chi square value of 41.83 and a P value of .003 are compared with table value that rejects the null hypothesis and it can be concluded that there is a relationship or association between age and support to start business. Women between the ages of 36-45 get more support from than other group. They get support from husband, father/mother, brother/sister etc. Young entrepreneur may not get much support other than husband because in our society it is easy to dismiss a young person's ideas. Age earns respect in our society. Older women are more trusted and given more support.

5.1.5. Influences of Education on Type of Ventures Undertaken

One of the personal characteristics that could have an influence upon the entrepreneurship is the academic qualification of the entrepreneurs. Following Table (Table 5.9) shows us the education level of the respondent women entrepreneurs. The academic qualification was divided into five categories, just literate, SLC, Intermediate, bachelor pass, Master and above.

Table 5.9: Academic Qualification of the Respondents

Education Level	Frequency	Percent (%)
Just literate	10	2.70
SLC pass	65	17.70
Intermediate pass	137	37.20
Bachelor pass	111	30.20
Master and above pass	45	12.20
Total	368	100.00

Among the 368 respondents, 10 respondents are just literate, 65 respondents had studied up to SLC, 137 respondents had qualification equivalent to Intermediate (+2), 111 respondents had academic qualification of Bachelors and 45 respondents had academic qualification of Masters and above. So, the sample contains 2.7% respondents just literate, 17.7% respondents having SLC, 37.2% respondents having Intermediate, 30.2% having bachelors degree and 12.2% have master degree and above.

Table 5.10 breaks down the academic qualification of the women entrepreneurs with respect to the type of business they operate.

Table 5.10: Academic Qualification and Type of Venture

		Business Type				Total
		Manufacturing	Trading	Service	Other	
Education Status	Just literate	70.0%		30.0%		100.0%
	SLC pass	72.3%	6.2%	13.8%	7.7%	100.0%
	Intermediate pass	70.8%	16.8%	10.9%	1.5%	100.0%
	Bachelor pass	76.6%	9.9%	9.0%	4.5%	100.0%
	Master and above pass	71.1%	13.3%	11.1%	4.4%	100.0%
Total		72.8%	12.0%	11.4%	3.8%	100.0%

It can be seen in table 5.10 that irrespective of education level most women are involved in manufacturing business. It can also be seen that women entrepreneurs who have intermediate degree are greater in number followed by bachelor's degree. To test if there is an association between academic qualification and type of venture a Chi-square test was performed at 5% margin of error.

Null Hypothesis

Academic qualification and Type of Venture are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Academic qualification and Type of Venture are related

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.574 ^a	12	.212
Likelihood Ratio	16.351	12	.176
Linear-by-Linear Association	.623	1	.430
N of Valid Cases	368		

The calculated chi square value of 15.574 and P value of .212 is compared with table value that fails to reject the null hypothesis. There is not enough evidence to prove that academic qualification and type of venture are dependent on each other. It can be said that education level does not determine the type of business women entrepreneurs get involved in. It cannot be said that educated women get involved in certain type of business and non educated women get involved in some other type. It can depend on various factors like personnel experience, personnel preferences, market situation, etc. However, many research have shown that highly educated entrepreneurs were likely to create firms that remained in operation (Bates (1990). Osirim (1990) cited similar results that high levels of educational attainment led to successful entrepreneurship.

5.1.6. Influences of Education on Legal Ownership Status of Business

Types of business operated by women entrepreneur like sole ownership, partnership, corporation, etc can be influenced by academic qualification of the entrepreneur. Following table (Table 5.11) breaks down the education level with respect to legal ownership status of business.

Table 5.11: Education and legal ownership status of business

		Legal Ownership of Business				Total
		Sole ownership	Partnership	Cooperatives	Others	
Educational Status	Just literate	30.0%	40.0%	30.0%		100.0%
	SLC pass	72.3%	21.5%	4.6%	1.5%	100.0%
	Intermediate pass	59.9%	29.9%	9.5%	.7%	100.0%
	Bachelor pass	64.9%	19.8%	13.5%	1.8%	100.0%
	Master and above pass	55.6%	33.3%	11.1%		100.0%
Total		62.2%	26.1%	10.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Table 5.11 shows no association between academic qualification and legal ownership status of business. Any clear indication that educated women prefer certain legal ownership over other cannot be seen. Most women prefer sole ownership irrespective of academic qualification. (Basu and Virick, 2012) asserts that even if education qualification are not directly relevant to the business, they may contribute to grow in other ways, for example, by improving the entrepreneurs communication skills with the majority community, including banks, which may in turn help to lift external financial resources constraints and low barrier to business development.

Null Hypothesis

Academic qualification and legal ownership status of business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Academic qualification and legal ownership status are related

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.119 ^a	12	.186
Likelihood Ratio	16.305	12	.178
Linear-by-Linear Association	.214	1	.644
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi square analysis got a Chi-square value of 16.119 and a P value of .186. Since .186 is greater than alpha value of .05, research fails to reject the null hypothesis. It means

that academic qualification and legal ownership of business are independent of each other. Education level does not determine the legal ownership status of business.

5.1.7. Influences of Education on Source of Start-up Fund

Startup fund is very important for any business. This research wanted to know if education played certain role in procuring start-up fund. It might be possible that highly educated women entrepreneur might get startup fund form sources that uneducated person do not normally get from. The following table (Table 5.12) breaks down the data based on education and source of startup fund.

Table 5.12: Education and Source of Startup Fund

		Source of Startup fund					Total
		Personal saving	Household	Borrowed from relatives or friends	Financial institutions	Others	
Educational Status	Just literate	20.0%	10.0%	60.0%	10.0%		100.0%
	SLC pass	13.8%	33.8%	23.1%	27.7%	1.5%	100.0%
	Intermediate pass	16.8%	27.0%	43.8%	11.7%	.7%	100.0%
	Bachelor pass	13.5%	32.4%	32.4%	19.8%	1.8%	100.0%
	Master and above pass	17.8%	35.6%	37.8%	8.9%		100.0%
Total		15.5%	30.4%	36.4%	16.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Above table suggests that most women use household money or borrow from friends to start business irrespective of education level. Very few people use financial institution to get their funds. One reason for it may be because financial institution process can be very confusing, there schemes can be difficult to understand and there is a fear that if you don't pay the bank then you can lose everything including your land and house.

Null Hypothesis

Academic qualification and source of startup fund of business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Academic qualification and source of startup fund are related

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.502 ^a	16	.295
Likelihood Ratio	19.375	16	.250
Linear-by-Linear Association	.200	1	.655
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi square analysis gives a Chi-square value of 18.502 and a P value of .295. Since .295 is greater than alpha value of .05 this research fails to reject the null hypothesis. Academic qualification and source of start-up fund are independent of each other. Education level does not determine the source of startup fund.

5.1.8. Influences of Education on Support to Initiate Business

In order to access if education played a role in determining the business initiation support from family member, statistical test was done. Table 5.13 breaks down the data by education level and support received by women entrepreneur to start their business.

Table 5.13: Education and Support to Initiate Business

		Support to Initiate Business						Total
		Husb and	Father/Mother	Father in Laws/Mother in Laws	Brother/Sisters	Other Relatives	Friends	
Educational Status	Just literate	40.0%	30.0%		10.0%	10.0%	10.0%	100.0%
	SLC pass	52.3%	16.9%	6.2%	4.6%	3.1%	16.9%	100.0%
	Intermediate pass	56.9%	23.4%		8.8%	.7%	10.2%	100.0%
	Bachelor pass	55.9%	22.5%	1.8%	7.2%		12.6%	100.0%
	Master and above pass	62.2%	24.4%		8.9%		4.4%	100.0%
Total		56.0%	22.3%	1.6%	7.6%	1.1%	11.4%	100.0%

Husband played an important role in helping women entrepreneur start their business. A Chi-square test was done to determine if education and support were dependent or independent.

Null Hypothesis

Academic qualification and support to initiate business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Academic qualification and support to initiate business are related

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30.235 ^a	20	.066
Likelihood Ratio	26.778	20	.142
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.497	1	.061
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi square test gave a Chi-square value of 30.235 and a P value of .066. Since .066 is greater than alpha value of .05, research fails to reject the null hypothesis. Academic qualification and support to initiate business are independent of each other. Education level does not determine the support received by women entrepreneurs from their family and friend. It might help to ensure some additional confidence in people around if a women entrepreneur is educated but they receive equal amount of support irrespective of education. Analysis has shown that most women are supported by husband. It could be because a working wife could generate more income and more opportunity for the family as a whole.

5.1.9 Influences of Experience on Type of Ventures Undertaken

One of the personal characteristics that could have an influence upon the entrepreneurship is the experience of the entrepreneurs. Table 5.14 shows the work experience of the respondents. The work experience was divided into 5 categories, less than 5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and more than 20 years.

Table 5.14: Work Experiences of Respondents

Work Experience	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than five years	61	16.60
Six to ten years	89	24.20
Eleven to fifteen years	111	30.20
Sixteen to twenty years	65	17.70
More than twenty one years	42	11.40
Total	368	100.00

Among the 368 respondents, 61 respondents had work experience less than 5 years, 89 respondents had 6-10 years, 111 respondents had 11-15 years, 65 respondents had

16-21 years of work experience and 42 respondents had more than 21 years of work experience. This shows that most of the women entrepreneurs have work experience of 11-15 years. This also shows that the concept of women entrepreneurship is gradually evolving in Nepal.

A Chi-square test was done to determine if experience and type of venture started were dependent or independent of each other.

Null Hypothesis

Experience and Type of venture are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Experience and Type of venture are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.328 ^a	12	.004
Likelihood Ratio	28.273	12	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	.112	1	.738
N of Valid Cases	368		

The calculated Chi-square value of 29.329 and a P value of .004 is compared with table value that rejects the null hypothesis and it can be concluded that experience in particular field plays some role in choosing the type of business one gets involved in. This is not a surprising finding as most people get involved in business that they are familiar with.

5.1.10. Influences of Experience on Legal Ownership Status of Business

To access whether experience played a role in determining the legal ownership status of business, some cross tabulation and Chi-square analysis were done. Following table (Table 5.15) gives us an idea about a relationship between legal ownership and experience of women entrepreneur.

Table 5.15: Experience and Legal Ownership Status of Business

		Legal Status of Business				Total
		Sole ownership	Partnership	Cooperatives	Others	
Experience	Less than five years	70.5%	16.4%	13.1%		100.0%
	Six to ten years	59.6%	31.5%	5.6%	3.4%	100.0%
	Eleven to fifteen years	61.3%	26.1%	11.7%	.9%	100.0%
	Sixteen to twenty years	69.2%	21.5%	9.2%		100.0%
	More than twenty one years	47.6%	35.7%	16.7%		100.0%
Total		62.2%	26.1%	10.6%	1.1%	100.0%

It can be seen in table 5.15 that women with experience of more than 11 years have more enterprises opened up. This finding is in line with other research done by various researchers. Lappen (1992) reported that only 10% of women business owners had run their business for more than 12 years while Collette et al (1990) cited that half of the women had been in business for less than 5 years.

It could be that these women are more confident and more willing to take risk. They know the market better and have good knowledge about their customer base.

Null Hypothesis

Experience and legal status of business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Experience and Legal status of Business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.215 ^a	12	.109
Likelihood Ratio	18.926	12	.090
Linear-by-Linear Association	.909	1	.340
N of Valid Cases	368		

With a Chi-square value of 18.215 and a P value of .109 which is greater than alpha value of .05, research fails to reject the null hypothesis. It cannot be concluded that

experience in particular field plays some role in choosing the legal ownership status of business.

5.1.11. Influences of Experience on Source of Startup Fund

More experience in business field can help women entrepreneur in formulating more contacts. Their contacts can help them find the fund or provide them with funds to start their business. Following table (Table 5.16) gives us an idea about the relationship between experience and Source of startup fund.

Table 5.16: Experience and Source of Startup Fund

		Source of Startup Fund					Total
		Personal saving	House hold	Borrowed from relatives or friends	Financial institutions	Others	
Experience	Less than five years	9.8%	37.7%	24.6%	27.9%		100.0%
	Six to ten years	23.6%	25.8%	33.7%	13.5%	3.4%	100.0%
	Eleven to fifteen years	18.0%	21.6%	45.9%	14.4%		100.0%
	Sixteen to twenty years	10.8%	38.5%	27.7%	21.5%	1.5%	100.0%
	More than twenty one years	7.1%	40.5%	47.6%	4.8%		100.0%
Total		15.5%	30.4%	36.4%	16.6%	1.1%	100.0%

A Chi-square test was done to determine if there was any significant relationship between experience and source of startup fund.

Null Hypothesis

Experience and Source of Startup fund are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Experience and Source of Startup fund are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	36.094 ^a	16	.003
Likelihood Ratio	38.039	16	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	.152	1	.697
N of Valid Cases	368		

With a Chi-square value of 36.094 and a P value of .003 which is less than alpha value of .05, research rejects the null hypothesis. It can be concluded that experience in particular field plays some role in determining the source of startup.

5.1.12. Influences of Experience on Support to Initiate Business

Experience can play an important role while starting a business. It can give people around a lot of confidence and encourage them to support the enterprise. This research has shown that husbands provide crucial support to women entrepreneur in the initial phase of their business. Women entrepreneurs might be more confident about the success of the enterprise if their husband knows about the business that they are getting involved in. In order to assess whether experience plays some role in support to initiate business, a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Experience and Support are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Experience and Support are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	32.071 ^a	20	.043
Likelihood Ratio	38.102	20	.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.052	1	.081
N of Valid Cases	368		

Analysis gave Chi-square value of 32.071 and a P value of .043. Since .043 is less than alpha value of .05, research rejects the null hypothesis. It can be concluded that experience in particular field plays some role in determining the support a woman entrepreneur gets to initiate a business.

5.1.13. Influence of Marital Status on Type of Venture

One of the personal characteristics that could have an influence upon the entrepreneurship is the marital status of the entrepreneurs. Table 5.17 shows the marital status of the respondents. The marital status was divided into 4 categories married, unmarried, widow and divorced.

Table 5.17: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent (%)
Married	296	80.40
Unmarried	57	15.50
Divorced	3	0.80
Widow	12	3.30
Total	368	100.00

Among the 368 respondents, 296 respondents were married, 57 respondents were unmarried and 12 respondents were widowed and 3 respondents were divorced. This shows most of the women start their own business after marriage.

In order to assess if marital status played any role in determining the type of venture women entrepreneurs got involved in some cross tabulations were done. Table 5.18 breaks down types of venture with respect to marital status.

Table 5.18: Marital Status and Type of Venture

		Business Type				Total
		Manufacturing	Trading	Service	Other	
Marital Status	Married	70.6%	12.8%	12.5%	4.1%	100.0%
	Unmarried	82.5%	7.0%	7.0%	3.5%	100.0%
	Divorced	66.7%	33.3%			100.0%
	Widow	83.3%	8.3%	8.3%		100.0%
Total		72.8%	12.0%	11.4%	3.8%	100.0%

Mostly married women are involved in women entrepreneurship. There are very few divorced and widow women. One of the reason for it may be that society does not view divorced and widowed women favorably and do not give them enough opportunity and support. To test if there was a relationship between marital status and type of venture a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Marital Status and Type of Venture are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Marital Status and Type of Venture are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.103 ^a	9	.730
Likelihood Ratio	6.973	9	.640
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.634	1	.105
N of Valid Cases	368		

Analysis gave Chi-square value of 6.103 and a P value of .730. Since .730 is greater than alpha value of .05 this research fails to reject the null hypothesis. Marital Status and type of venture are independent of each other. Marital status does not determine what type of business women entrepreneurs get involved in. Research data has shown time and again that most women entrepreneur in this survey are involved in manufacturing business.

5.1.14. Influence of Martial Status on Legal Ownership of Business

Following table (Table 5.19) gives us a picture of legal ownership of business run by women entrepreneur based on their marital status. It can be seen that married women have started more business than any other group. Some of them have sole ownership, some have partnership, some have corporation and some have cooperative.

Table 5.19: Martial Status and Legal Ownership of Business

		Legal ownership of Business				Total
		Sole ownership	Partnership	Cooperatives	Others	
Marital Status	Married	60.8%	26.7%	11.1%	1.4%	100.0%
	Unmarried	66.7%	24.6%	8.8%		100.0%
	Divorced	66.7%		33.3%		100.0%
	Widow	75.0%	25.0%			100.0%
Total		62.2%	26.1%	10.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Married women also have more sole ownership than any other group and it is understandable because the number of married women is higher than any other group.

In order to access if there is any relationship between marital status and legal ownership of business, a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Marital Status and legal ownership of business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Marital Status and legal ownership of business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.452 ^a	9	.793
Likelihood Ratio	7.727	9	.562
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.139	1	.144
N of Valid Cases	368		

With a Chi-square value of 5.452 and a P value of .79 which is greater than alpha value of .05, research fails to reject the null hypothesis. Marital Status and legal ownership of business are independent of each other. Marital status does not determine what type of legal ownership women entrepreneurs get involved in. Research data has shown time and again that most women are involved in sole ownership business.

5.1.15. Influence of Martial Status on Source of Startup Funds

Previous analyses in this research have shown that most women entrepreneurs prefer to borrow money from somebody they know or use household saving. They rarely use financial institution to get money. Table 5.20 gives us a break down of marital status and source of start up funds.

Table 5.20: Martial Status and Source of Startup Funds

		Source of Startup Fund					Total
		Personal saving	Household	Borrowed from relatives or friends	Financial institutions	Others	
Marital Status	Married	14.2%	32.1%	36.5%	16.2%	1.0%	100.0%
	Unmarried	19.3%	28.1%	36.8%	14.0%	1.8%	100.0%
	Divorced	33.3%		33.3%	33.3%		100.0%
	Widow	25.0%	8.3%	33.3%	33.3%		100.0%
Total		15.5%	30.4%	36.4%	16.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Above table shows that married women use personal savings, household savings, borrow from friends and financial institution to procure their startup funds.

In order to access if there is any relationship between marital status and source of startup funds, a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Marital Status and source of startup funds are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Marital Status and source of startup funds are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.824 ^a	12	.799
Likelihood Ratio	8.840	12	.717
Linear-by-Linear Association	.190	1	.663
N of Valid Cases	368		

Analysis gave a Chi-square value of 7.824 and a P value of .799. Since .799 is greater than alpha value of .05 this research fails to reject the null hypothesis. Marital Status and source of startup funds are independent of each other. Marital status does not determine the source of startup funds.

5.1.16. Influence of Martial Status on Support to Initiate Business

To know if marital status plays any role in support to initiate business a Chi-square test was done. Most married women entrepreneurs reported that their husbands were the main source of their support. Unmarried entrepreneurs were supported by their parent or their friends.

Null Hypothesis

Marital Status and Support to initiate business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Marital Status and Support to initiate business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	73.002 ^a	15	.000
Likelihood Ratio	72.158	15	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.070	1	.004
N of Valid Cases	368		

Analysis gave a Chi-Square value of 73.002 and P value of .000. With p value of .000 it can be concluded that there is a relationship between marital status and support to initiate business. Married women got most support from their husband and unmarried, divorced, widowed got most support from their parent.

5.1.17. Influence of Family Size on Type of Venture

One of the personal characteristics that could have an influence upon the entrepreneurship is the family size of the entrepreneurs. Following table (Table 5.21) shows us the percentage of women entrepreneurs with single or joint family. Around 63% of women entrepreneur have joint family.

Table: 5.21: Family Size of Respondents

Family Type	Frequency	Percent (%)
Single Family	136	37
Joint Family	232	63
Total	368	100

This high percentage of women having joint family shows that women who have joint family are more likely to start their own business. They get adequate support and don't have to spend most of their time doing household jobs.

This research wanted to know if size of family had any effect on the type of business women entrepreneur involved themselves in. Table 5.22 breaks down the business ventures with respect to family size.

Table 5.22: Family Size and Type of Venture

		Business Type				Total
		Manufacturing	Trading	Service	Other	
Family Size	Single Family	77.9%	2.9%	13.2%	5.9%	100.0%
	Joint Family	69.8%	17.2%	10.3%	2.6%	100.0%
Total		72.8%	12.0%	11.4%	3.8%	100.0%

Table 5.22 shows that women entrepreneurs in joint families are more involved in business and they are involved in all kind of business like manufacturing, trading, services, and other various businesses like handicraft business, beauty parlor, etc.

A Chi-square test was done at 5% margin of error to see if there was a significant relationship between family size and type of venture.

Null Hypothesis

Family Size and Type of Venture are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Family Size and Type of Venture are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.515 ^a	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	21.788	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.023	1	.880
N of Valid Cases	368		

With Chi-square value of 18.515 and P value of .000, research rejects the null hypothesis and concluded that there is a relationship between family size and type of venture. Women with large family can devote more time in business than the one's with single family.

5.1.18. Influence of Family Size on Legal ownership of Business

In order to access if family size had any association with Legal ownership of Business a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Family Size and Legal Ownership of Business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Family Size and Legal Ownership of Business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.188 ^a	3	.534
Likelihood Ratio	2.220	3	.528
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.093	1	.148
N of Valid Cases	368		

Analysis gave Chi-square value of 2.188 and P value of .534. Since .534 is greater than .05, research fails to reject null hypothesis. It can be concluded that legal ownership of business has no relationship with family size. Following table (Table 5.23) gives a breakdown of this information.

Table 5.23: Family Size and Legal ownership of Business

		Legal Ownership of Business				Total
		Sole ownership	Partnership	Cooperatives	Others	
Family Type	Single Family	66.9%	23.5%	8.8%	.7%	100.0%
	Joint Family	59.5%	27.6%	11.6%	1.3%	100.0%
Total		62.2%	26.1%	10.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Women entrepreneurs with joint family are involved in various types of legal ownership types. However, sole ownership is the most prevalent one among both single and joint family as shown by some earlier analysis.

5.1.19. Influence of Family Size on Source of Startup Fund

Table 5.24 breaks down source of startup fund with respect to family size. It can be seen that joint family women entrepreneurs use more house hold funds than single family entrepreneur. It could be because joint family entrepreneurs can pool together more capital from within the family than the single family entrepreneurs.

Table 5.24: Family Size and Source of Startup Fund

		Source of Startup Fund					Total
		Personal saving	Household	Borrowed from relatives or friends	Financial institutions	Others	
Family Type	Single Family	14.7%	33.8%	33.1%	17.6%	.7%	100.0%
	Joint Family	15.9%	28.4%	38.4%	15.9%	1.3%	100.0%
Total		15.5%	30.4%	36.4%	16.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Joint family entrepreneur also get more funds from financial institution then single family entrepreneur. It could be because bank would trust joint family entrepreneur more because they can show more collateral.

Null Hypothesis

Family Size and Source of startup fund are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Family Size and Source of startup fund are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.005 ^a	4	.735
Likelihood Ratio	2.017	4	.733
Linear-by-Linear Association	.029	1	.866
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi-square value is 2.005 and P value is .735. With P value of .735 this research fails to reject null hypothesis and concludes that family size and source of start up funds are independent of each other. Family size does not determine the source of fund.

5.1.20. Influence of Family Size on Support to Initiate Business

Other analysis done during the course of this research had shown that women entrepreneur got more support from their husbands and from their parents. Research wanted to test if family size played any role in determining the support to initiate business.

Null Hypothesis

Family Size and Support to Initiate Business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Family Size and Support to Initiate Business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.098 ^a	5	.105
Likelihood Ratio	8.845	5	.115
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.558	1	.010
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi-square value is 9.098 and P value is .105. With P value of .105 at 5% margin of error, research fails to reject null hypothesis and concludes that family size plays no role in determining support to initiate business. Husband play important role in all women entrepreneurs business life.

5.1.21 Influence of Parental Occupation on Type of Venture

One of the personal characteristics that could have an influence upon the entrepreneurship is the parental occupation of the entrepreneurs. Some of the occupations taken up by the parents of women entrepreneur are agriculture, manufacturing business, trading business, government services, private services etc. Table 5.25 gives us a picture of various parental occupations of women entrepreneur.

Table: 5.25: Parental Occupations of respondents

Parental Occupation	Frequency	Percent (%)
Agriculture	76	20.70
Manufacturing business	32	8.70
Trading business	108	29.30
Government services	92	25.00
Private services	60	16.30
Total	368	100.00

The statistics shows that the parents of most of women entrepreneurs are engaged in trading business accounting 29.3%. This is followed by government service which is 25%. Similarly 20.70% are involved in agriculture, 16.3% are in private services and only 8.7% are involved in manufacturing business.

This shows that parents of women entrepreneurs are involved in some kind of activities, be it service or business. This research wanted to find out if parental occupation played some kind of role in deciding the type of venture women entrepreneur got involved in.

Table 5.26: Parental Occupation and Type of Venture

		Business Type				Total
		Manufacturing	Trading	Service	Other	
Parental Occupation	Agriculture	65.4%	11.5%	17.9%	5.1%	100.0%
	Manufacturing business	100.0%				100.0%
	Trading business	74.1%	9.3%	14.8%	1.9%	100.0%
	Government services	70.0%	23.3%	2.2%	4.4%	100.0%
	Private services	70.0%	6.7%	16.7%	6.7%	100.0%
Total		72.8%	12.0%	11.4%	3.8%	100.0%

Table 5.26 shows that women entrepreneur whose parents were involved in manufacturing business are all involved in manufacturing business. Other entrepreneurs are not so keen to follow in their parents footsteps. Most of them have manufacturing business irrespective of their parental occupation. To see if there was any association between parental occupation and type of venture, a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Parental Occupation and Type of Venture are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Parental Occupation and Type of Venture are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	41.440 ^a	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	50.302	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.002	1	.961
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi-square value is 41.440 and P value is .000. This Research rejects the null hypothesis at this P value and concludes that there is relationship between parental occupation and type of venture women entrepreneurs are involved in. This could be because women entrepreneurs can learn a lot from their parents and their parents could help them set up their own business. However, it should be noted that most women entrepreneurs are involved in manufacturing business irrespective of parental occupation. So this analysis could be misleading.

5.1.22 Influence of Parental Occupation on Legal Ownership of Business

Following table (Table 5.27) breaks down legal ownership of business with respect to parental occupation. Legal ownership includes sole ownership, partnership, corporation and cooperative. Some of the occupations taken up by the parents of women entrepreneur are agriculture, manufacturing business, trading business, government services, private services, etc.

Table 5.27: Parental Occupation and Legal Ownership of Business

		Legal Ownership of Business				Total
		Sole ownership	Partnership	Cooperatives	Others	
Parental Occupation	Agriculture	71.8%	24.4%	2.6%	1.3%	100.0%
	Manufacturing business	65.6%	25.0%	6.2%	3.1%	100.0%
	Trading business	56.5%	25.0%	17.6%	.9%	100.0%
	Government services	56.7%	31.1%	11.1%	1.1%	100.0%
	Private services	66.7%	23.3%	10.0%		100.0%
Total		62.2%	26.1%	10.6%	1.1%	100.0%

It can be seen from table 5.27 that there seems no association between parental occupation and Legal ownership of business. To test this hypothesis a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Parental Occupation and Legal ownership of Business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Parental occupation and legal ownership of business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.893 ^a	12	.196
Likelihood Ratio	17.431	12	.134
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.741	1	.187
N of Valid Cases	368		

With Chi-square of 15.893 and P value of .196, research fails to reject null hypothesis and concludes that there is no relationship between parental occupation and legal ownership of business. It should be said that there is lack of research focusing on the role of the family in terms of venture creation or legal ownership of business. However, there is research which suggests that the family can act as an incubator or is an antecedent to entrepreneurship (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003; Belcourt, 1988)

5.1.23 Influence of Parental Occupation on Source of Start-up Fund

Parental occupation could play some role in determining the startup funds. It can be assumed those parents who are involved in manufacturing or trading business could help out their daughter to start their business by proving both financial and emotional support. Following table (Table 5.28) breaks down parental occupation of women entrepreneur with respect to source of startup fund.

Table 5.28: Parental Occupation and Source of Startup Fund

		Source of Startup Fund					Total
		Personal saving	House hold	Borrowed from relatives or friends	Financial institutions	Others	
Parental Occupation	Agriculture	23.1%	28.2%	29.5%	16.7%	2.6%	100.0%
	Manufacturing business	6.2%	43.8%	21.9%	25.0%	3.1%	100.0%
	Trading business	14.8%	33.3%	42.6%	9.3%		100.0%
	Government services	13.3%	25.6%	41.1%	20.0%		100.0%
	Private services	15.0%	28.3%	35.0%	20.0%	1.7%	100.0%
Total		15.5%	30.4%	36.4%	16.6%	1.1%	100.0%

Table 5.28 shows that women entrepreneurs whose parents are in government services use financial institution more than any other group. Women entrepreneurs whose parents are in trading business borrow from friends or relative more than any other group. They also use household saving more than any other group.

To see if there was any association between parental occupation and source of startup fund a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Parental occupation and source of start-up fund are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Parental occupation and source of Star-tup fund are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.564 ^a	16	.078
Likelihood Ratio	26.319	16	.050
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.708	1	.191
N of Valid Cases	368		

With Chi-square value of 24.564 and P value of .078 which is greater than .05, research fails to reject null hypothesis. It can be concluded that parental occupation and source of startup funds are independent of each other.

5.1.24 Influence of Parental Occupation on Support to Initiate Business

In order to access if parental occupation has any association with support given to women entrepreneur to initiate business a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Parental Occupation and Support to Initiate Business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Parental Occupation and Support to Initiate Business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	43.733 ^a	20	.002
Likelihood Ratio	52.744	20	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.010	1	.921
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi-square value is 43.733 and P value is .002. Since P value of .002 is less than .05, research rejects null hypothesis and concludes that there is some association between parental occupation and support to initiate business.

Following table (Table 5.28) breaks down the parental occupation with respect to support to initiate business.

Table 5.29: Parental Occupation and Support to Initiate Business

		Support to Start a Business						Total
		Husband	Father/Mother	Father in Laws/Mother in Laws	Brother/Sisters	Other Relatives	Friends	
Parental Occupation	Agriculture	42.3%	34.6%		12.8%	2.6%	7.7%	100.0%
	Manufacturing business	68.8%	25.0%				6.2%	100.0%
	Trading business	52.8%	22.2%	1.9%	13.0%	1.9%	8.3%	100.0%
	Government services	66.7%	11.1%	2.2%	4.4%		15.6%	100.0%
	Private services	56.7%	21.7%	3.3%			18.3%	100.0%
Total		56.0%	22.3%	1.6%	7.6%	1.1%	11.4%	100.0%

Table 5.28 shows that father and mothers are the second most supportive group to women entrepreneurs after husband followed by friends and brother and sisters respectively.

5.1.25 Influence of Type of Training Taken on Type of Venture

Type of training received by women entrepreneurs could have some impact on the type of venture they get involved in. Following table (Table 5.29) shows the type of training received by women entrepreneurs before starting their business. Training includes some business related training, marketing and sales training, computer and IT training, financial and accounting training, etc. The statistics shows that 80.4 % took training before starting and during the operation of business and remaining 19.6% have not undergone any training.

Table 5.30: Types of Training taken by Respondents

Training types	Frequency	Percent (%)
Training not taken	72	19.60
Business related skill development	162	44.00
Entrepreneurship development	31	8.40
Financing and Accounting	9	2.40
Marketing and Sales	47	12.80
Business Administration	10	2.70
Computer and IT	27	7.30
Other	10	2.70
Total	368	100.00

Out of 368 women entrepreneurs who have taken training most of them have taken business related skill development training i.e. 44%. It is followed by Marketing and sales training which amounts to 12.8%. Some 7.3% women have taken computer related training. This research wanted to see if this type of training influenced them in any way while choosing their business. A Chi-square test was done and the results are presented below.

Null Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Type of Venture are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Type of Venture are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42.711 ^a	21	.003
Likelihood Ratio	39.426	21	.009
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.719	1	.054
N of Valid Cases	368		

With Chi-square value of 32.552 and P value of .003 which is less than .05, research rejects null hypothesis and conclude that type of training taken has some association with type of venture.

Table 5.30 breaks down the type of training taken with respect to type of venture undertaken.

Table 5.31: Type of Training Taken on Type of Venture

		Business Type				Total
		Manufacturing	Trading	Service	Other	
Training Type	No training	58.3%	8.3%	30.6%	2.8%	100.0%
	Business related skill development	77.2%	12.3%	6.8%	3.7%	100.0%
	Entrepreneurship development	77.4%	6.5%	9.7%	6.5%	100.0%
	Financing and Accounting	77.8%	11.1%	11.1%		100.0%
	Marketing and Sales	68.1%	21.3%	4.3%	6.4%	100.0%
	Business Administration	80.0%	20.0%			100.0%
	Computer and IT	77.8%	7.4%	11.1%	3.7%	100.0%
	Other	90.0%	10.0%			100.0%
Total		72.8%	12.0%	11.4%	3.8%	100.0%

Table 5.30 shows that most of the women entrepreneurs who have taken training have opened up manufacturing company. Opening up factory, running it smoothly and looking after the finances do require some training. This is especially true for those women who do not have much formal education.

5.1.26 Influence of Type of Training Taken on Legal Ownership of Business

In order to access the influence of training taken on legal ownership of business a Chi square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Legal Ownership of Business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Legal Ownership of Business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.363 ^a	21	.626
Likelihood Ratio	19.765	21	.536
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.402	1	.236
N of Valid Cases	368		

With Chi-square value of 18.363 and P value of .626 which is greater than .05, research fails to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that legal ownership of business does not have any association with type of training taken. This result is not surprising because most women prefer sole ownership business as suggested by earlier analysis. Types of training were regarding business development not choosing the type of business to run.

5.1.27 Influence of Type of Training Taken on Source of Start-up Fund

Earlier analysis had shown that sources of start-up fund were mostly procured from household saving or borrowed from relatives or friends. Very few used financial institution for the source of start up funds. Following table (Table 5.31) breaks source of startup fund and type of training taken by women entrepreneur.

Table 5.32: Training Taken and Source of Startup Fund

		Source of Startup Fund					Total
		Personal saving	House hold	Borrowed from relatives or friends	Financial institutions	Others	
Training Type	No training	12.5%	26.4%	47.2%	13.9%		100.0%
	Business related skill development	18.5%	27.8%	37.0%	15.4%	1.2%	100.0%
	Entrepreneurship development	16.1%	51.6%	19.4%	12.9%		100.0%
	Financing and Accounting	11.1%	33.3%	22.2%	33.3%		100.0%
	Marketing and Sales	8.5%	38.3%	29.8%	23.4%		100.0%
	Business Administration	10.0%		60.0%	30.0%		100.0%
	Computer and IT	22.2%	33.3%	33.3%	7.4%	3.7%	100.0%
	Other	10.0%	20.0%	30.0%	30.0%	10.0%	100.0%
Total		15.5%	30.4%	36.4%	16.6%	1.1%	100.0%

In the above table (Table 5.31), it can be seen that women entrepreneurs have mostly used household funds or borrowed from people they know. However, those who have taken business related skill development training have a very uniform distribution of the procuring of the start-up fund. A high percentage of women have used financial institution to procure startup funds. This could be because business related skill development might have given them knowledge about bank and other institutions. It might have taught them a way to expand their business through debt rather than equity.

To test the association between training taken and source of startup fund a Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Source of Startup Fund are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Source of Startup Fund are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.656 ^a	28	.105
Likelihood Ratio	36.630	28	.127
Linear-by-Linear Association	.221	1	.638
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi-square value is 37.656 and P value is .105. Since P value of .105 is greater than .05 research fails to reject null hypothesis and concludes that type of training taken and source of startup fund are independent of each other. Training taken has no association with source of startup fund.

5.1.28 Influence of Type of Training Taken on Support to Initiate Business

Earlier analysis had shown that husband and father/ mother were the main source of support to initiate business. This research also wanted to see if type of training taken by women entrepreneur could have any impact on the support received to initiate business. A Chi-square test was done.

Null Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Support to Initiate Business are independent of each other

Alternative Hypothesis

Type of Training Taken and Support to Initiate Business are related to each other

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.867 ^a	35	.836
Likelihood Ratio	30.800	35	.671
Linear-by-Linear Association	.033	1	.856
N of Valid Cases	368		

Chi-square value is 26.867 and P value is .836. Since P value of .836 is greater than .05 research fails to reject null hypothesis and concludes that type of training taken had no association with support to initiate business.

Conclusion

This chapter studies whether personal characteristics of the women entrepreneur have any influence on the type of venture undertaken, legal ownership of business undertaken, source of start-up fund obtained and various support received to initiate business.

Overall, most of the women entrepreneur were involved in manufacturing sector, were involved in sole proprietorship, borrowed money from their relatives/friends instead of banks or other financial institution and for married women husband were their greatest supporter and for unmarried women entrepreneurs their parent were their greatest supporter.

Age, education, marital status had no influence with the type of business venture undertaken. However, business experience, family size, parental occupation, type of training taken had some influence on the type of business venture undertaken.

Age, education, business experience, marital status, family size, parental occupation and type of training taken had no influence on the legal ownership status of the

business. Most women entrepreneurs preferred sole proprietorship irrespective of all the variable looked at.

Age, education, business experience, marital status, family size, parental occupation, type of training taken had no influence on the source of start-up fund. Most women entrepreneurs borrowed money from their relatives/friends instead of banks or other financial institution.

Education, family size, type of training taken had no association with the various supports received to initiate business. However, age, experience, marital status and parental occupation had some association with the support to initiate business.

CHAPTER- VI

MANAGERIAL PRACTICES OF WOMEN

ENTREPRENEURS

This chapter describes the management style of women entrepreneurship in Nepal. The chapter talks about how women entrepreneur developed their vision to start their business, personnel they were influenced by, purpose of business, accomplishment of business, management of assets and personnel in business.

An entrepreneur needs to find source to obtain assets and then manage it properly. He/she has to find qualified personnel to run their business. Many studies have claimed that Women-owned businesses tended to have their spouse as partner (Lee-Gosselin et al, 1990; Collette et al, 1990). Most did not have any paid employees or were less inclined to employ others (Nelton, 1989). If they did, the number of employees was few (Collette et al, 1990); they also tended to employ their spouse and children (Lee-Gosselin et al, 1990) and used more female labor than male-run businesses. In terms of the time commitment that had to be put into their businesses, more than half of women entrepreneurs reported that they had to devote more than 40 hours a week to their businesses (Collette et al, 1990).

Collette et al, (1990) noted that the main factor that had motivated women to go into business was the desire for autonomy (such as desire to be own boss, desire to be financially independent and desire to increase self-esteem). Capowski (1992) felt that a strong desire to control their future and financial destinies had motivated women to start their own business. He stated that other motives for business ownership included self-determination, financial independence and belief in a “better way” of doing things.

Similarly, Heilman & Chen (2003) as well as Botha et. al (2006) argued that various push-and-pull factors exist that can motivate women to start their own businesses. Maas & Herrington (2006) defined push factors as the more negative factors, such as unemployment and retrenchment, which force people to become entrepreneurial in order to survive. They regard pull factors to be the more positive factors, such as

government support and role models, which might influence people to choose entrepreneurship as a career option.

6.1 Management of Assets

A company has various assets like land/building, machinery, furniture etc. This part of the analysis looks at the sources of funds for purchasing various assets like land and building, machineries, etc.

6.1.1 Managing Land and Building

Land and building are one of the most important assets that a company can have. Respondents were asked about the source of funds they used to acquire land and building. Sources of funds included equity funds, loan funds, both equity and loan funds and rental. Table 6.1 gives us an overview of the source of funds.

Table 6.1: Sources of Fund for the Assets (Land and Bulding)

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Equity Source	4	1.10
Borrowed Source	32	8.70
Both Source	24	6.50
Rented	308	83.70
Total	368	100.00

Table 6.1 shows that almost 84% of the respondents rented the land and building that they need to operate their business. Only few entrepreneurs used either equity or debt to buy the land and building needed to run the business.

Researcher wanted to see if personal characteristics like age, education, training and family size had any influence in obtaining funds for land and building. A chi square test of independence was done to see if there was any influence and the results are presented in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Influence of Personal characteristics on managing land and building

Personal Characteristics	Hypothesis	Chi-square Value	P value	Remarks
Age	Ho: Age and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Age and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	26.446	.009	Reject Ho at .05 level of significance
Education	Ho: Education and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are independent on each other Ha: Education and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	11.445	.491	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance
Training	Ho: Training and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are independent on each other Ha: Training and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	13.614	.886	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance
Family Size	Ho: Family Size and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Family Size and Management of Land/Building by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	3.114	.374	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance

It can be seen in table 6.2 that age and sources of fund to manage land/building by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other. In other words, there is some relationship between age of women entrepreneur and the sources of funds that they use to manage/procure land and building. On the other hand educations, training taken and family size are independent of sources of fund to manage land/building.

6.1.2: Managing Machine/ Equipment

Machine and equipment are other important assets of any business. Since most of the enterprise operated by women entrepreneur in the Kathmandu valley are manufacturing, machine and equipment are especially important to them. Table 6.3

shows the source of funds obtained by women entrepreneur to acquire the machine and equipment needed to run the business. Sources of funds include equity source, loan source and both equity and loan source.

Table 6.3: Sources of Fund for Machine and Equipment

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Equity Source	258	70.10
Borrowed Source	52	14.10
Both Source	58	15.80
Total	368	100.00

Table 6.3 shows that around 70% of women entrepreneur use equity source to get machine and equipment. Only 14% use only debt to acquire the needed machinery and equipment. Some 15% use both equity and debt to finance their machinery.

In order to access if personal characteristics like age, education, training and family size had any influence in obtaining funds for machine and equipment, a chi square test of independence was done. The results are presented in table 6.4

Table 6.4: Influence of Personal characteristics on managing machinery and equipment

	Hypothesis	Chi-square Value	P value	Remarks
Age	Ho: Age and Management of Machine/Equipment by women entrepreneur are independent on each other Ha: Age and Management of Machine/Equipment by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	36.864	.000	Reject Ho at .05 level of significance
Education	Ho: Education and Management of Machine/Equipment by women entrepreneur are independent on each other Ha: Education and Management of Machine/Equipment by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	17.993	.116	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance
Training	Ho: Training and Management of Machine/Equipment by women	36.445	.019	Reject Ho at .05 level of

	entrepreneur are independent on each other Ha: Training and Management of Machine/Equipment by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other			significance
Family Size	Ho: Family Size and Management of Machine/Equipment by women entrepreneur are independent on each other Ha: Family Size and Management of Machine/Equipment by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	5.565	.135	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance

Table 6.4 shows that age of women entrepreneur and training taken by women entrepreneur have some association with sources of funds used to acquire machinery and equipment where as education and family size played no role in determining the source of fund for acquiring machinery and equipment.

6.1.3 Manageing Working Capital

Working capital is very important aspect of business. No business can be started without having some sort of working capital. There are various sources of getting capital some entrepreneurs prefer to use their own equity, some like to borrow from financial institution, some borrow from shareholders, some use both equity and loan.

Table 6.5: Sources of Fund for the Working Capital

	Frequency	Percent
Equity Source	12	3.30
Borrowed Source	72	19.60
Both Source	284	77.20
Total	368	100.00

Table 6.5 shows us that most women entrepreneurs (around 77%) use the combination of equity and loan to start their business. Most of the women borrow money from their friend, relatives or parents. Only few borrow from banks or other financial institutions.

Researcher wanted to see if personal characteristics like age, education, training and family size had any influence in obtaining working capital. A chi square test of

independence was done to see if there was any influence of personal characteristics on management of machinery and equipment and the results are presented in table 6.6

Table 6.6: Influence of Personal characteristics on managing Working Capital

	Hypothesis	Chi-square Value	P value	Remarks
Age	Ho: Age and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Age and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are dependent of each other	8.938	.348	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance
Education	Ho: Education and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Education and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	12.994	.112	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance
Training	Ho: Training and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Training and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	16.669	.274	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance
Family Size	Ho: Family Size and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Family Size and Management of working capital by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	.197	.906	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance

Above table (Table 6.6) shows us that personal characteristics like age, education, training and family size have no association with source of obtaining working capital. This finding is consistent with other findings in this research. Women entrepreneurs generally use their own equity or borrow from friends/relative irrespective of their age, education, training status or family size.

6.2 Mode of Generation of Business Idea

Table 6.7 show the response of women entrepreneurs regarding the mode of generation of business idea. This includes market survey, own idea or idea generated with the help of others.

Table 6.7: Mode of Generation of Business Idea

Mode of Idea Generation	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Market Survey	196	53.2%
Own self	74	20.1%
With the help of others	98	26.7%

The statistics shows that most of the women entrepreneurs generate business ideas through market survey which accounts for around 54%. 26% generate business ideas with the help of others while 20% on their own.

Researcher wanted to see if personal characteristics like age, education, training and family size had any influence in obtaining working capital. A chi square test of independence was done to see if there was any influence and the results are presented in table 6.8

Table 6.8: Influence of Personal characteristics on Mode of Generation of Business Idea

	Hypothesis	Chi-square Value	P value	Remarks
Age	Ho: Age and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Age and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	19.952	.011	Reject Ho at .05 level of significance
Education	Ho: Education and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Education and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	6.586	.582	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance
Training	Ho: Training and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Training and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	31.231	.005	Reject Ho at .05 level of significance
Family Size	Ho: Family Size and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are independent of each other Ha: Family Size and Mode of Generation of Business Idea by women entrepreneur are dependent on each other	.627	.731	Accept Ho at .05 level of significance

Table 6.8 shows that at 5% error rate age and training had some association with mode of generating business idea. Women of mature age tend to have more contacts and more experience so they can obtain more ideas regarding business. Similarly entrepreneurship training or other business development training can help women entrepreneur develop ideas. Education and family size are independent of mode of generating business idea. This research shows that women entrepreneur do not depend on their education to generate ideas. They also do not depend on their family member for ideas.

6.3 Employees employed and Type of Business Venture

Table 6.9 shows the number of employees in the organization. This includes skilled, semi skilled, unskilled labor, supportive staffs and managerial staffs. Most of the enterprises have around 6-10 employees. Around 16% of enterprises have more than 21 employees.

Table 6.9: Number of employees employed

Number of employees	Frequency	Percent (%)
Less than 5	80	21.70
6 to 10 employees	122	33.20
11 to 15 employees	82	22.30
16 to 20 employees	22	6.00
more than 21 employee	50	16.80
Total	368	100.00

Table 6.10 gives us a breakdown of number of employees with respect to the type of venture operated by women entrepreneur.

Table 6.10: Business Type and Number of Employees

		Number of Employees				
		Less than 5	6-10	11-15	15-21	More than 21
Business Type	Manufacturing	17.2%	32.1%	23.9%	8.2%	18.7%
	Trading	18.2%	54.5%	22.7%		
	Service	52.4%	19.0%	14.3%		
	Other	28.6%	28.6%	14.3%		

It can be seen that around 17% of manufacturing businesses employ less than 5 employees. Around 52% of service sector have less than 5 employees. These businesses can be considered very small scale businesses. Only manufacturing business seem to hire more than 15 employees to run their business. Table 6.11 shows the source of employee in business venture operated by women entrepreneur.

Table 6.11: Sources of Employees

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Family Members	98	26.60
Outsiders	270	73.40
Total	368	100.00

The statistics shows that women entrepreneurs hire employees mostly from outside of the family members. Around 26% of employees are hired from within family.

Table 6.12 shows the number of skilled, semi-skilled, unskilled, supportive and managerial male and female employee employed by the respondents. There area total of 1116 employees both male and female employed by women entrepreneur.

Table 6.12: Number and type of Employees

	Male Employees		Female Employees		Total
	No.	Percent (%)	No.	Percent (%)	Number
Skilled Labour	232	40.99%	280	50.91%	512
Semiskilled Labour	50	8.83%	102	18.55%	152
Unskilled Labour	26	4.59%	34	6.18%	60
Supportive Staffs	154	27.21%	50	9.09%	204
Managerial Staffs	104	18.37%	84	15.27%	188
Total	566	100.00%	550	100.00%	1116

The percentage of both male and female is almost equal but male employees are in greater number than female. It is a curious finding because one would think that an enterprise run by female would have larger percentage of female employees overall. This surprising finding could be a result of the lack of highly skilled female employee. It can be seen that 27% of supportive staff are male and only 9% are female. Male employee's percentage is higher in managerial staff as well. It should be noted that there is larger percentage of female employed as skilled and semiskilled labor. These shows female employees are employed to run the day to day operations of the business but are not involved in high level jobs.

6.4 Consultations with Different Institutions

Table 6.13 shows the response of women entrepreneurs as regards whether they have consulted with different institutions before starting the business like banks, FNCCI, DOI, machine suppliers and others.

Table 6.13: Consultations with Different Institutions

	Frequency*	Percent
Banks and Financial Institutions	147	39.9%
Department of Industry	282	76.6%
FNCCI	22	6%
Machine suppliers	311	84.5%
Other Institutions	17	4.6%
<i>*Multiple choice question</i>		

The statistics shows that women entrepreneurs seek the consultations from different institutions before starting their business. 32% reported that they went to banks and financial institutions for help/guidance. 76% said that they visited Department of Industry to know more about the rule and other procedures. Similarly, 6% told that they visited FNCCI and rest 85% said they also had visited the machinery suppliers to get information. Some women entrepreneur visited other institution like Department of Revenue to get tax information, some other business to get more information regarding the operation of business. Some women entrepreneurs also visited foreign countries to gather information about the product market. Table 6.14 breaks down the steps taken by women entrepreneur before starting the business like visiting department of industry, FNCCI, machine suppliers, banks, etc with respect to age.

Table 6.14: Age and various Institution Visited before starting Business

			Institutions Visited					Total
			Department of Industry	FNCCI	Machine Supplier	Bank and other financial institution Visit	Others	
Age	Below 25 years	Count	10	0	6	0	0	10
		%	100.0%	.0%	60.0%	.0%	.0%	
	26 to 35 years	Count	42	2	62	29	2	68
		%	61.8%	2.9%	91.2%	42.6%	2.9%	
	36 to 45 years	Count	126	6	142	76	8	164
		%	76.8%	3.7%	86.6%	46.3%	4.9%	
	46 to 55 years	Count	66	12	70	28	6	80
		%	82.5%	15.0%	87.5%	35.0%	7.5%	

	Above 56 years	Count	38	2	31	14	1	46
		%	82.6%	4.3%	67.4%	30.4%	2.2%	
Total		Count	282	22	311	147	17	368

Table 6.14 shows that most women entrepreneurs visited machine supplier irrespective of their ages. All of the respondents who were below the age of 25 visited department of industry and 60% of them also visited machine suppliers. None of them visited banks or FNCCI. Very few women entrepreneur of other age group visited FNCCI.

Table 6.15 breaks down institutions visited before starting business by the type of training taken by women entrepreneur.

Table 6.15: Training Taken and various Institution Visited before starting Business

			Institutions Visited					Total	
			Bank and other financial Institution	Department of Industry	FNCCI	Machine Supplier	Other		
Training	Training not taken	Count	33	56	2	64	6	72	
		%	45.8%	77.8%	2.8%	88.9%	8.3%		
	Business related skill development	Count	56	124	12	140	4	162	
		%	34.6%	76.5%	7.4%	86.4%	2.5%		
	Entrepreneurship development	Count	17	19	1	26	2	31	
		%	54.8%	61.3%	3.2%	83.9%	6.5%		
	Financing and Accounting	Count	4	9	0	9	1	9	
		%	44.4%	100.0%	.0%	100.0%	11.1%		
	Marketing and Sales	Count	23	38	3	38	3	47	
		%	48.9%	80.9%	6.4%	80.9%	6.4%		
	Business Administration	Count	4	8	2	4	0	10	
		%	40.0%	80.0%	20.0%	40.0%	.0%		
	Computer and IT	Count	8	19	2	20	1	27	
		%	29.6%	70.4%	7.4%	74.1%	3.7%		
	Other	Count	2	9	0	10	0	10	
		%	20.0%	90.0%	.0%	100.0%	.0%		
	Total		Count	147	282	22	311	17	368

It can be seen that irrespective of the type of training taken by women entrepreneurs, machine suppliers were visited by most of the women entrepreneurs. FNCCI was visited by very few women entrepreneur. Women entrepreneur with entrepreneurship development training or marketing and sales training visited banks and other financial institution the most.

Table 6.16 breaks down the institution visited by women entrepreneur before starting their business with respect to their education level.

Table 6.16: Education level and various Institution Visited before starting Business

			Institutions Visited					Total	
			Bank and other financial Institution	Department of Industry	FNCCI	Machine Supplier	Other		
Educational Status	Just literate	Count	4	7	0	9	0	10	
		%	40.0%	70.0%	.0%	90.0%	.0%		
	SLC pass	Count	21	46	0	60	2	65	
		%	32.3%	70.8%	.0%	92.3%	3.1%		
	Intermediate pass	Count	59	106	12	113	5	137	
		%	43.1%	77.4%	8.8%	82.5%	3.6%		
	Bachelor pass	Count	43	92	6	89	6	111	
		%	38.7%	82.9%	5.4%	80.2%	5.4%		
	Master and above pass	Count	20	31	4	40	4	45	
		%	44.4%	68.9%	8.9%	88.9%	8.9%		
	Total		Count	147	282	22	311	17	368

It can be seen that irrespective of education level, most women entrepreneur visited their machine suppliers before starting their business. It is understandable because most of the respondents were in manufacturing business and they needed to visit their supplier to make sure that they got their machines. There were 147 respondents that visited banks and financial institutions out of which 122 respondents had intermediate or higher education.

6.5 Source of Vision to Start Business

Table 6.17 shows the motivational factors that inspired the women entrepreneurs to start up their business. Some of the reasons for starting their own business were fulfilling internal curiosity, inspiration from family member, inspiration from other people involved in business, utilization of knowledge and skill of their own, self confidence in their own ability, participation in industrial seminars.

Table 6.17: Source of Vision Developed to Start Business

Choices	Frequency*	Percent
Internal curiosity	54	14.7%
Self Confidence	92	25%
Participating in industrial seminar	139	37.8%
Inspiration from family members	127	34.4%
Inspiration from other persons involving in business	85	23%
Intension to use technical knowledge owned by oneself	35	9.5%
<i>*Multiple response questions</i>		

Research data shows that most of the women entrepreneurs gathered information and developed vision after attending industrial seminar. Similarly around 34% of women entrepreneurs were helped by family members including husband, parents to develop a vision for business. Self confidence in own ability also helped women entrepreneur to develop a vision to start their own business. Around 23% of women entrepreneurs said that they were inspired by other successful entrepreneur in the field of business. Their success gave them motivation to start their own business. Many women entrepreneur also went into business to fulfill their own internal curiosity of what it is like to own and operate a business. Table 6.18 breaks down the major source of vision to start a business with respect to age. It can be seen that women below 25 were mostly curious and wanted to know what it was like to own a business. Women entrepreneurs of other age group got their idea by visiting industrial seminars or were inspired by some family members or relatives.

Table 6.18: Age and Source of Vision to start Business

			Source of Vision						Total	
			Internal Curiosity	Self Confidence	Participate in Industrial seminar	Inspired by Family members	Inspiration from business Personality	Intension of showing technical knowledge		
Age	Below 25 years	Count	5	4	1	0	4	0	10	
		%	50.0%	40.0%	10.0%	.0%	40.0%	.0%		
	26 to 35 years	Count	6	7	31	28	13	6	67	
		%	9.0%	10.4%	46.3%	41.8%	19.4%	9.0%		
	36 to 45 years	Count	19	44	56	58	40	21	162	
		%	11.7%	27.2%	34.6%	35.8%	24.7%	13.0%		
	46 to 55 years	Count	9	25	37	31	22	4	78	
		%	11.5%	32.1%	47.4%	39.7%	28.2%	5.1%		
	Above 56 years	Count	15	12	14	10	6	4	46	
		%	32.6%	26.1%	30.4%	21.7%	13.0%	8.7%		
	Total		Count	54	92	139	127	85	35	363

Mostly women entrepreneurs between the ages of 36 to 45 attended industrial seminars the most followed by women entrepreneur between the ages of 46 to 55. Table 6.19 breaks down source of vision in terms of education level to see if education level had any influence on the source of vision.

Table 6.19: Education and Source of Vision to start Business

			Source of Vision					Inten sion of showi ng techni cal knowl edge	To tal	
			Interna l Curiosi ty	Self Confidence	Partici pate in Indust rial semin ar	Inspir ed by Famili y mem bers	Inspira tion from busines s Person ality			
Edu catio n	Just literate	Count	1	1	2	3	4	1	10	
		%	10.0%	10.0%	20.0%	30.0%	40.0%	10.0%		
	SLC pass	Count	5	18	24	26	12	8	65	
		%	7.7%	27.7%	36.9%	40.0%	18.5%	12.3%		
	Intermedia te pass	Count	24	35	51	53	34	11	135	
		%	17.8%	25.9%	37.8%	39.3%	25.2%	8.1%		
	Bachelor pass	Count	19	28	46	32	25	10	108	
		%	17.6%	25.9%	42.6%	29.6%	23.1%	9.3%		
	Master and above pass	Count	5	10	16	13	10	5	45	
		%	11.1%	22.2%	35.6%	28.9%	22.2%	11.1%		
	Total		Count	54	92	139	127	85	35	363

It can be seen that irrespective of the education level most women entrepreneur got their source of inspiration to start a business from industrial seminars or from family members. Out of 139 women entrepreneurs who attended industrial seminars, 103 of them had intermediate or higher education. Most of the just literate were inspired by other business personality involved in business. Table 6.20 breaks down the source of vision in terms of the training taken.

Table 6.20: Training and Source of Vision to start Business

		Source of Vision							Total	
			Internal Curiosity	Self Confidence	Participate in Industrial seminar	Inspired by Family members	Inspiration from business Personality	Intension of showing technical knowledge		
Training	Training not taken	Count	10	16	14	21	19	5	70	
		%	14.3%	22.9%	20.0%	30.0%	27.1%	7.1%		
	Business related skill development	Count	27	44	66	59	40	14	161	
		%	16.8%	27.3%	41.0%	36.6%	24.8%	8.7%		
	Entrepreneurship development	Count	1	9	10	10	8	7	31	
		%	3.2%	29.0%	32.3%	32.3%	25.8%	22.6%		
	Financing and Accounting	Count	1	3	5	5	3	0	9	
		%	11.1%	33.3%	55.6%	55.6%	33.3%	.0%		
	Marketing and Sales	Count	9	13	21	13	7	4	46	
		%	19.6%	28.3%	45.7%	28.3%	15.2%	8.7%		
	Business Administration	Count	3	1	4	2	1	0	9	
		%	33.3%	11.1%	44.4%	22.2%	11.1%	.0%		
	Computer and IT	Count	2	4	16	13	3	4	27	
		%	7.4%	14.8%	59.3%	48.1%	11.1%	14.8%		
	Other	Count	1	2	3	4	4	1	10	
		%	10.0%	20.0%	30.0%	40.0%	40.0%	10.0%		
	Total		Count	54	92	139	127	85	35	363

It can be seen that women entrepreneurs who did not take any training were inspired by the success of their family members. Irrespective of the training taken most women entrepreneur got their idea from industrial seminars. They chose business that had been talked about in the seminars.

6.6 Major Information Collected Before Starting Business

Doing some market research and understanding the market is very important before starting a business. It is very important for women entrepreneurs to know about their competitors, know about the technology available in the market, financial rules and regulation, etc. Table 6.21 shows the response of women entrepreneurs regarding information collected by them before starting the venture. It includes information related to market, products' technical aspect, competition, financial provisions and so on.

Table 6.21: Major Information Collective before Starting Business

Choices	Frequency*	Percent
Product's market	110	30%
Products technical aspects	13	3.5%
Financial Provision	19	5.2%
Competitor's situation	10	2%
All of them	246	66.7%
<i>*Multiple response questions</i>		

Table 6.21 shows that before entering into business Nepalese women entrepreneurs study different aspects. 30% told that they studied about the products market, 2% said they studied about competition in the market. Similarly, 5% reported they learn about product's technical aspect while 5% told financial provisions but 66% said they considered all these aspects somewhat. As a whole it shows that women entrepreneur perform some research before entering any kind of business. They only get into business that they feel will benefit them the most in terms of their personal and professional goal. Any entrepreneur before starting a business collects some information about the business that he/she is getting involved in. Some of the pieces of information collected are product information, competitor's situation, financial provisions that are in place etc. Table 6.22 breaks down the major information collected by women entrepreneur before starting their business with respect to their ages.

Table 6.22: Age and Major Information collected before starting their business

			Major Information collected					Total	
			Product market	Technical aspect	Financial provision	Competitors situation	All of above		
Age	Below 25 years	Count	4	1	1	0	4	10	
		%	40.0%	10.0%	10.0%	.0%	40.0%		
	26 to 35 years	Count	28	0	0	0	40	68	
		%	41.2%	.0%	.0%	.0%	58.8%		
	36 to 45 years	Count	50	6	10	10	108	164	
		%	30.5%	3.7%	6.1%	6.1%	65.9%		
	46 to 55 years	Count	12	5	3	0	66	80	
		%	15.0%	6.2%	3.8%	.0%	82.5%		
	Above 56 years	Count	16	1	5	0	28	46	
		%	34.8%	2.2%	10.9%	.0%	60.9%		
	Total		Count	110	13	19	10	246	368

It can be seen that most of the women entrepreneurs gathered product information most irrespective of their ages. The respondents replied that they had collected all the major information like technical aspect of product, financial provision, competitor's situation and product market before starting their business. Table 6.23 breaks down the major information collected with respect to their education level.

Table 6.23: Education and Major Information collected before starting their business

			Major Information collected					Total	
			Product market	Technical aspect	Financial provision	Competitors situation	All of above		
Education	Just literate	Count	3	0	0	0	7	10	
		%	30.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	70.0%		
	SLC pass	Count	16	2	5	2	47	65	
		%	24.6%	3.1%	7.7%	3.1%	72.3%		
	Intermediate pass	Count	48	8	6	4	85	137	
		%	35.0%	5.8%	4.4%	2.9%	62.0%		
	Bachelor pass	Count	33	3	6	3	75	111	
		%	29.7%	2.7%	5.4%	2.7%	67.6%		
	Master and above pass	Count	10	0	2	1	32	45	
		%	22.2%	.0%	4.4%	2.2%	71.1%		
	Total		Count	110	13	19	10	246	368

It can be seen that women entrepreneurs who had intermediate or above level of education were involved in gathering all the required information about the market,

financial provision, technical aspect of business, etc. Most women entrepreneur collected most of the information irrespective of their education level. Table 6.24 breaks down the major information collected with respect to the training taken by women entrepreneur.

Table 6.24: Training Type and Major Information collected before starting their business

			Major Information collected					Total	
			Product market	Technical aspect	Financial provision	Competitors situation	All of above		
Training	Training not taken	Count	21	1	1	2	47	72	
		%	29.2%	1.4%	1.4%	2.8%	65.3%		
	Business related skill development	Count	49	2	6	4	111	162	
		%	30.2%	1.2%	3.7%	2.5%	68.5%		
	Entrepreneurship development	Count	8	0	2	2	21	31	
		%	25.8%	.0%	6.5%	6.5%	67.7%		
	Financing and Accounting	Count	1	0	0	0	8	9	
		%	11.1%	.0%	.0%	.0%	88.9%		
	Marketing and Sales	Count	16	4	3	0	29	47	
		%	34.0%	8.5%	6.4%	.0%	61.7%		
	Business Administration	Count	4	0	1	0	5	10	
		%	40.0%	.0%	10.0%	.0%	50.0%		
	Computer and IT	Count	7	4	4	2	20	27	
		%	25.9%	14.8%	14.8%	7.4%	74.1%		
	Other	Count	4	2	2	0	5	10	
		%	40.0%	20.0%	20.0%	.0%	50.0%		
	Total		Count	110	13	19	10	246	368

Irrespective of the training taken by women entrepreneur, most of the women entrepreneur gathered information regarding product information, competitor's situation, financial provisions that are in place etc.

6.7 Purpose of Venture

Women entrepreneurs were asked what was their main goal in starting their own venture. Table 6.25 shows the purpose or the objectives of starting up the venture as described by women entrepreneur interviewed. Some of the women entrepreneur wanted to make Nepali product known in international market, some wanted to replace import product, some wanted to provide employment to other people, some wanted to utilize unused resources and so on.

Table 6.25: Purpose of Venture

	Frequency	Percent
To make known the Nepali products in international market	232	63%
To replace import products	76	21%
To provide employment opportunities to the people	164	45%
To utilize the resources	65	18%
Other Objectives	8	2%

The data shows that the main objective/purpose of starting up the venture is to export products and make Nepali products known in the International market. 45% said that their purpose was to provide employment to people. 21% reported that they wanted to replace import product by producing quality product at home and 18% said they started up venture in order to utilize local resources. Remaining 2% reported that they got involved in business because they did not like the job they were doing and got involved in something they loved to do. Table 6.26 breaks down information regarding the purpose of starting the business with respect to their age.

Table 6.26: Age and Purpose of starting a venture

		Purpose of Venture						Total	
			Make product known in International Market	Replace import	Provide employment	Utilize resource	Other objective		
Age	Below 25 years	Count	8	2	4	2	0	10	
		%	80.0%	20.0%	40.0%	20.0%	.0%		
	26 to 35 years	Count	39	9	28	20	2	68	
		%	57.4%	13.2%	41.2%	29.4%	2.9%		
	36 to 45 years	Count	108	30	74	38	4	164	
		%	65.9%	18.3%	45.1%	23.2%	2.4%		
	46 to 55 years	Count	50	27	45	11	0	80	
		%	62.5%	33.8%	56.2%	13.8%	.0%		
	Above 56 years	Count	26	10	14	12	2	46	
		%	56.5%	21.7%	30.4%	26.1%	4.3%		
	Total		Count	231	78	165	83	8	368

Women entrepreneurs below the age of 25 were more interested in making their products known in international market followed by providing employment opportunity to other people. This is true of all women entrepreneurs across all age group. It can be ascertained that most women entrepreneur involved in manufacturing business have nationalist feeling. They want to make Nepal and its product known in the international market. They also believe that they can help the nation by providing employment to less fortunate ones. Table 6.27 breaks down information with respect to the education level of women entrepreneur.

Table 6.27: Education and Purpose of starting a venture

			Purpose of venture					Total	
			Make product known in International Market	Replace import	Provide employment	Utilize resource	Other objective		
Educ ation	Just literate	Count	5	0	6	4	1	10	
		%	50.0%	.0%	60.0%	40.0%	10.0%		
	SLC pass	Count	30	16	26	25	1	65	
		%	46.2%	24.6%	40.0%	38.5%	1.5%		
	Intermediate pass	Count	95	26	61	32	1	137	
		%	69.3%	19.0%	44.5%	23.4%	.7%		
	Bachelor pass	Count	75	27	46	13	3	111	
		%	67.6%	24.3%	41.4%	11.7%	2.7%		
	Master and above pass	Count	26	9	26	9	2	45	
		%	57.8%	20.0%	57.8%	20.0%	4.4%		
	Total		Count	231	78	165	83	8	368

Irrespective of the education level, most women entrepreneurs are concerned about making Nepali product known in the international market followed by providing employment. Women entrepreneurs with a bachelor's degree or more are also concerned about the imports that are coming to Nepal and want to replace those with quality products which are made in Nepal. Table 6.28 breaks down information with respect to training taken by women entrepreneur.

Table 6.28: Training and Purpose of starting a venture

			Purpose of venture					Total	
			Make product known in International Market	Replace import	Provide employment	Utilize resource	Other objective		
Training	Training not taken	Count	44	20	15	26	0	72	
		%	61.1%	27.8%	20.8%	36.1%	.0%		
	Business related skill development	Count	107	26	92	31	2	162	
		%	66.0%	16.0%	56.8%	19.1%	1.2%		
	Entrepreneurship development	Count	19	8	14	3	2	31	
		%	61.3%	25.8%	45.2%	9.7%	6.5%		
	Financing and Accounting	Count	2	1	3	5	2	9	
		%	22.2%	11.1%	33.3%	55.6%	22.2%		
	Marketing and Sales	Count	30	10	19	9	1	47	
		%	63.8%	21.3%	40.4%	19.1%	2.1%		
	Business Administration	Count	6	4	7	0	0	10	
		%	60.0%	40.0%	70.0%	.0%	.0%		
	Computer and IT	Count	17	5	12	7	1	27	
		%	63.0%	18.5%	44.4%	25.9%	3.7%		
	Other	Count	6	4	3	2	0	10	
		%	60.0%	40.0%	30.0%	20.0%	.0%		
	Total		Count	231	78	165	83	8	368

It can be seen that women entrepreneurs with business skill development training are more concerned with providing employment to people and making Nepali products known in International market. Women entrepreneurs who have not taken any training are more concerned with utilizing resources than providing employment. However, their main objective is also to make Nepali product known in international market.

6.8 Major Accomplishment to Be Achieved

Every entrepreneur that starts a business has some goals that he/she wants to accomplish after starting a business. This survey wanted to see some of the goals that women entrepreneur had in mind before starting their business. Table 6.29 shows what women entrepreneurs want to accomplish by starting their own business. This includes profit/ higher income, social status, independence, market share, making oneself busy, etc.

Table 6.29: Accomplishment to be achieved

	Frequency	Percent
To make a large profit	157	43%
To be star in the business field	103	28%
To make involved in the certain task	168	46%
Other Objectives	82	22%
Total	368	100%

Around 46% stated the business to get involved in some business instead of remaining idle. 43% of respondents' main accomplishment is to make large profit and become self sufficient. 28% wanted to become renowned in their field of business. Remaining 22% of respondents aim is to make enough to run their house, make profit, utilize their education, get involved in something they love to do, etc. This result is in line with some other research done by other researcher around the world. Collettere et al, (1990) noted that the main factor that had motivated women to go into business was the desire for autonomy (such as desire to be own boss, desire to be financially independent and desire to increase self-esteem). Capowski (1992) felt that a strong desire to control their future and financial destinies had motivated women to start their own business. Many international research has shown that women entrepreneurs get involved in business to get financial independence or to improve their self esteem by becoming a know personality in their respective field. Table 6.30 breaks down the major accomplishment that women entrepreneur want to achieve by starting a business with respect to age.

Table 6.30: Age and Major Accomplishment to be Achieved

			Major accomplishment to be Achieve				Total	
			To Make profit	Be star in business	Get Involve in a task	Other objective		
Age	Below 25 years	Count	4	2	6	2	10	
		%	40.0%	20.0%	60.0%	20.0%		
	26 to 35 years	Count	31	18	39	13	68	
		%	45.6%	26.5%	57.4%	19.1%		
	36 to 45 years	Count	71	54	68	29	164	
		%	43.3%	32.9%	41.5%	17.7%		
	46 to 55 years	Count	28	24	28	21	80	
		%	35.0%	30.0%	35.0%	26.2%		
	Above 56 years	Count	22	8	24	16	46	
		%	47.8%	17.4%	52.2%	34.8%		
	Total		Count	156	106	165	81	368

It can be seen that more than half of the women entrepreneurs below the ages of 25 want to get involved in some task rather than just sitting idle. Most women entrepreneurs of other age group are also mainly concerned with getting involved in something rather than just sitting idle. Women entrepreneurs between the ages of 36 to 55 were mostly concerned with making huge profits then to get involved in certain task to keep themselves busy. Table 6.31 breaks down the major accomplishment with respect to the education level of women entrepreneur.

Table 6.31: Education and Major Accomplishment to be Achieved

			Major accomplishment to be Achieve				Total	
			To Make profit	Be star in business	Get Involve in a task	Other objective		
Educa tion	Just literate	Count	4	2	8	0	10	
		%	40.0%	20.0%	80.0%	.0%		
	SLC pass	Count	26	16	32	15	65	
		%	40.0%	24.6%	49.2%	23.1%		
	Intermediate pass	Count	62	42	60	34	137	
		%	45.3%	30.7%	43.8%	24.8%		
	Bachelor pass	Count	49	35	46	25	111	
		%	44.1%	31.5%	41.4%	22.5%		
	Master and above pass	Count	15	11	19	7	45	
		%	33.3%	24.4%	42.2%	15.6%		
	Total		Count	156	106	165	81	368

It can be seen that most women entrepreneurs are mostly concerned with keeping themselves busy irrespective of their education level. Women entrepreneurs who were bachelor passed had the dream of becoming a star in their field of business, and to earn a lot of profit. Table 6.32 breaks down information with respect to the training taken by women entrepreneur.

Table 6.32: Training Type and Major Accomplishment to be Achieved

			Major accomplishment to be Achieve				Total	
			To Make profit	Be star in business	Get Involve in a task	Other objective		
Training	Training not taken	Count	34	22	34	13	72	
		%	47.2%	30.6%	47.2%	18.1%		
	Business related skill development	Count	63	46	80	34	162	
		%	38.9%	28.4%	49.4%	21.0%		
	Entrepreneurship development	Count	10	13	15	5	31	
		%	32.3%	41.9%	48.4%	16.1%		
	Financing and Accounting	Count	7	1	2	1	9	
		%	77.8%	11.1%	22.2%	11.1%		
	Marketing and Sales	Count	23	7	18	16	47	
		%	48.9%	14.9%	38.3%	34.0%		
	Business Administration	Count	3	3	3	4	10	
		%	30.0%	30.0%	30.0%	40.0%		
	Computer and IT	Count	12	12	7	7	27	
		%	44.4%	44.4%	25.9%	25.9%		
	Other	Count	4	2	6	1	10	
		%	40.0%	20.0%	60.0%	10.0%		
	Total		Count	156	106	165	81	368

It can be seen that women entrepreneurs with entrepreneur development training were more interested in becoming a star in business field then earning profit. Women entrepreneurs with accounting and finance training were more interested in making profit than any other women entrepreneur group. This shows that training influenced the major goals that women entrepreneurs wanted to achieve by getting involved in their own business.

Conclusion

This chapter looked at the management style of women entrepreneurs and looked at whether age, education, training and family size had any influence on their asset, working capital and personnel management methods, their purpose of business, vision to start their business and their views on their major accomplishment.

Overall, most women entrepreneurs rented the land and building that they use for their business and they used their own equity to buy the machinery and equipment needed. Very few used the combination of debt and equity to acquire the necessary equipment to run the business.

Women entrepreneurs consulted various institutions before starting their business. Most of them took help from the Department of Industry whereas some visited banks and financial institutions to get some help in capital formation. Most of the business ideas were generated by observing the market and accessing the demand of the products and services. Most women entrepreneurs wanted to market their products overseas or to tourists and their main objective were to make Nepali products known in the international market. Almost half of the women entrepreneurs got involved in business to get involved in something rather than remaining idle and gain economic freedom.

Four variables: age, education, family size and training had no or very little effect on asset management, working capital management and personnel management. Educated women visited banks and other financial institutions to seek financial assistance and they were also more willing to visit industrial seminars to get business ideas. Trained women were more concerned about providing employment to people and making better quality product that could be marketed in international market. Their major goal was to be a star in their business and to be known nationally and internationally.

CHAPTER- VII

INTRICACIES OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

An entrepreneur has to confront and overcome many problems in order to make their business a success. There are various studies that have to be done. Different information has to be collected like information about market condition, labor condition, policies etc. This chapter is going to look at various difficulties that women entrepreneur in particular face before and after starting their enterprise. This chapter will look at ins and outs of their business related problems, management related problems, capital related problems, labor related problems, etc.

A study done by Lee-Gosselin et al, (1990) indicated that the most frequent problems encountered by women entrepreneur were lack of confidence from banks, suppliers and clients, lack of start-up capital and family problems. After launching of the business there were marketing problems, problems with associates and labor problems that women entrepreneur had to face. Several other problems faced by Women entrepreneur were reconciling family and work, finding required funds and lack of acceptance for women in business (Collerette et al, 1990); being discriminated against in getting business credit (Klein, 1993); and management of business and personnel (Hisrich, 1996). Cham (2011) also supported the claim that the common challenge faced by women entrepreneur while starting their business was access to credit and human capital, management and technical skills and the hiring and training of competent staffs during growth phase. A study done by (Hisrich, 1986) identified four major problems for business as finding and keeping qualified professional staff; finding and keeping qualified skilled labor; making business profitable; and doing government paperwork.

A study by Singh & Belwal (2008) found out that women entrepreneur in developing country encounter problems in the areas of securing finances for establishing and running SMEs, lack of entrepreneurial and management competence and exposure, problems in finding the markets and distribution networks; limited opportunities for promotion and participation; limited amount of government and institutional support; absence of technological know-how and integration mechanism; and rampant corruption in an undisguised or disguised form.

A study by Scheele (1991) found that when starting a new business, besides market research and business planning, one must also be prepared psychologically. A strong willed entrepreneur would succeed in business. An entrepreneur who is willing to take risk, is good at networking and knows the ground reality of business can succeed.

7.1 Problems Encountered by Women Entrepreneur

Women entrepreneurs encounter various problem during the start up of their business. There are social problems, financial problems, technical problems etc. Gender inequality in our society has hindered women development. Women are considered as a helper whose primary role is to play second fiddle to the male members of the society. Married women are expected to maintain their home and look after their children where as unmarried women are expected to learn the trades of maintaining home after they get married. This predefined role and societal attitude has pulled back women development in our country especially it has not let women to be economically active.

Financial problems have also hindered women entrepreneurship efforts. Lack of access to paternal property, lack of personal savings, reluctance to go to financial institute has all contributed immensely to the financial problems faced by women. Another problem that women face is related to business operations or entrepreneurship development. Lack of proper education and training has been the major contributor to this problem. Lack of self confidence and lack of confidence from the family member can also cause problems to women entrepreneur. Fighting century old mindsets of male dominated society of suppressing women activity requires a lot of guts and encouragement from the family members, relative, and friends. If these encouragements are not there it might be possible to have an enterprise for short period of time but it will not be possible to sustain it for long. Both physical and mental tiredness can cause women entrepreneur to give up their venture and get back to the ways things have been for centuries. There are some entrepreneurs who have overcome these societal, financial and other challenges that have come their way and have been a beacon of hope in this male dominated society. Following are the problems that women entrepreneur say they have faced during their entrepreneurship career. Problems have been subdivided to make it easier for the readers to follow.

7.1.1 Problems Encountered during Start up of Business

As mentioned in earlier paragraph, there are lots of problems that women entrepreneur face during start up of their business. It may be difficult for them to get capital, to get employees, to get raw material, to sale products, etc. Table 7.1 lists the problems faced by women entrepreneurs while starting up their business and tries to show us what is the most frequent problem faced by women entrepreneur (mean close to 1 being most problematic and 5 being not problematic at all).

Table 7.1: Problems Encountered during Start up of Business

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
To get employees	368	1	5	3.1957	0.7170
To get working capital	368	1	5	1.4049	0.6551
To get capital goods (machine)	368	1	5	3.0543	0.9596
Family and social problems	368	1	5	3.0599	1.1695
Managerial problems	362	1	5	1.3016	0.9259
To get material and logistic	367	1	5	2.9613	1.0118
To sale product	73	1	4	2.9891	0.7771
Other problems	368	1	5	2.6027	0.9145

The statistics shows that most of the Nepalese women entrepreneurs face the problem of getting working capital and managerial problem. Getting working capital factor has mean of 1.40 and managerial problem factor has the lowest mean of 1.30. This shows that getting working capital and managing their business is the biggest problem women entrepreneurs are facing. Women entrepreneurs do not get a share in any parental property and are not very willing to go to financial institutions to get their capital. This can make it difficult for them to gather required capital. Also, lack of education and training in various field of business like accounting, finance, marketing etc can cause women entrepreneur to have managerial problem. Similarly, all the other factors besides labor and capital have mean close to 3 which suggests that there are other problems faced by women entrepreneur but are not very severe. This finding is in line with other research done on the problems faced by women entrepreneur around the world. Cham (2011) claims that the common challenge faced by women entrepreneur while starting their business was access to credit and human capital, management and technical skills and the hiring and training of competent staffs during growth phase.

The following section describes the nature of association of some personal characteristic like age, education, professional training and family size with the problem faced by entrepreneurs.

7.1.1.1 Age and Problems Encountered during Start up of Business

The relationship between age of women entrepreneurs and the nature of problem they had faced has been described here. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55. The nature of problems included are problem of getting capital, lack of managerial experience, problems of getting machinery, problems of getting employee, problems of sales and logistics and other family and social problems.

Table 7.2: Age and Problem encountered during Startup of Business

Mean

Age	To get Capital	Lack of Managerial Experience	To get Machine	To get Employee	To sale product	To get material and other logistics	Family and Social Problem	Other problems
Below 25 years	1.20	1.10	2.40	2.40	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.75
26 to 35 years	1.42	1.30	3.14	3.08	2.86	3.00	3.11	2.75
36 to 45 years	1.42	1.28	3.06	3.23	3.01	2.90	3.03	2.48
46 to 55 years	1.37	1.32	2.77	2.95	2.91	2.73	3.12	2.62
Above 56 years	1.41	1.34	3.52	3.82	3.21	3.50	2.95	2.80
Total	1.40	1.30	3.05	3.19	2.98	2.96	3.05	2.60

Above table reveals the problems related to capital, materials and logistics, family and social problems are not much different among the different groups of women entrepreneurs.

This suggests that these factors are considered a problem by all groups of women entrepreneur. Lack of managerial experience, difficulty getting machinery and

employees are causing problem for all women but more problem to women entrepreneur under 25. Women entrepreneurs below 25 do not have much managerial experience, and it also is difficult for them to gather enough capital to get machinery. To get employee is a problem to all women group but it is especially a problem to women below 25. It could be because older age group workforce may not want to work for women who are younger to them, and it is difficult to find capable and experienced employee below 25.

7.1.1.2 Education and Problem Encountered during Start-up

Education can become a big hindrance during the startup of a business. Lack of education can cause women entrepreneur to have managerial problem, they could face problem of understanding rules and regulations, it could hinder them from applying for loan, etc. Education level has been divided into 5 categories i.e. Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above. Table 7.3 provides a detail breakdown of education and problem encountered during startup of business. It shows that getting capital is a problem for all women entrepreneur, highly educated or just literate. Lack of managerial experience is also a problem but it is more of a problem to just literate then other group.

Table 7.3: Education and Problem encountered during start-up

Mean

Education	To get Capital	Lack of Managerial Experience	To get Machine	To get Employee	To sale product	To get material and other logistics	Family and Social Problem	Other problems
Just literate	1.70	1.10	3.00	2.80	2.80	2.80	2.60	2.00
SLC pass	1.24	1.30	3.23	3.41	2.95	3.26	3.10	2.55
Intermediate pass	1.40	1.43	3.07	3.10	3.12	2.96	3.05	2.80
Bachelor pass	1.39	1.15	3.03	3.26	2.97	2.91	3.08	2.50
Master and above pass	1.57	1.28	2.80	3.06	2.71	2.66	3.06	2.33
Total	1.40	1.30	3.05	3.19	2.98	2.96	3.05	2.60

Intermediate pass face relatively less problem. It is difficult to explain this but it could be because they are more willing to take training or try out new things. Getting machinery is not affected by level of education, so is getting employee and selling product. All these problems have mean close or above 3 so they are relatively smaller problems than the ones having mean of around 1.

7.1.1.3 Training and Problem Encountered during Start-up

Lack of training can have a huge impact during the initial stage of business. Because of lack of education, women entrepreneurs do not have needed skills to run their business. Training tries to bridge that gap. Many women entrepreneurs interviewed suggested that training had helped them a great deal with daily operation of business as well as with sales and marketing of their business. Some of the trainings taken by women entrepreneur are business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training etc. Table 7.4 breaks down type of training taken with problem encountered during the startup of business.

Table 7.4: Training and Problem encountered during start-up

Mean

Training Type	To get Capital	Lack of Managerial Experience	To get Machine	To get Employee	To sale product	To get material and other logistics	Family and Social Problem	Other problems
Training not taken	1.45	1.29	2.97	3.18	3.08	2.79	3.00	2.70
Business related skill development	1.41	1.29	3.04	3.20	2.91	3.03	3.07	2.55
Entrepreneurship development	1.38	1.35	2.77	3.09	2.58	2.70	2.93	2.25
Financing and Accounting	1.55	1.22	3.11	3.22	3.00	3.00	3.11	2.66
Marketing and Sales	1.25	1.23	3.14	3.23	3.17	3.13	3.10	2.75
Business Administration	1.10	1.50	3.40	3.10	3.60	3.00	3.30	2.50
Computer and IT	1.59	1.48	3.25	3.25	3.07	2.88	3.07	2.50
Other	1.30	1.00	3.30	3.10	3.10	3.10	3.10	3.00
Total	1.40	1.30	3.05	3.19	2.98	2.96	3.05	2.60

Table 7.4 shows that training has little impact on the problems of getting capital and problem created due to lack of managerial experience. Irrespective of the type of training, these problems are the biggest challenge a women entrepreneur faces. Entrepreneurship development training, financial training, etc were taken by entrepreneur but it has not helped them to overcome the problem of getting capital. It may be that those women entrepreneurs do not get a chance to apply what they learn in the training in practice. If that is the case then it is necessary to understand why this case is. What is the point of taking training if you do not apply it in practice?

Above table also shows that women who have not taken training are also doing thing on par with women who have taken training or sometimes even better. As mentioned earlier, it could be because women entrepreneurs do not apply what they learn in practice.

7.1.1.4 Family Size and Problem Encountered during Start-up

Family support is very important for a business to run successfully. Research has shown that husbands of women entrepreneurs are helping out women entrepreneur the most in various aspect of business. The relationship between family size of women entrepreneurs and the nature of problem they had faced has been described here. Family size includes single family women entrepreneur and joint family women entrepreneur. Table 7.5 shows that family size does not have much impact on the problems encountered by women entrepreneur during the startup of business. Lack of capital and lack of managerial experience is the biggest problem faced by women entrepreneur.

Table 7.5: Family Size and Problem Encountered during Start-up

Mean

Family size	To get Capital	Lack of Managerial Experience	To get Machine	To get Employee	To sale product	To get material and other logistics	Family and Social Problem	Other problems
Single Family	1.33	1.27	3.17	3.29	3.01	3.014	3.17	2.53
Joint Family	1.44	1.31	2.98	3.13	2.97	2.92	2.99	2.63
Total	1.40	1.30	3.05	3.19	2.98	2.96	3.05	2.60

However, it is marginally easier for joint family entrepreneur to get capital. It could be because more family member can pool capital together or they have more contacts. Other factors are about the same.

7.1.2 Problems Faced after Starting the Business by Entrepreneurs

Problems faced by women entrepreneur are not limited to before starting their business. There are many problems that they face after starting their business. Some problems which were there before starting the business can remain and some can go away. However, some additional problems can also come to light. Table 7.6 shows the problem faced by entrepreneur after they started their business.

Table 7.6: Problems Faced by Entrepreneur

	N	Most	Least	Mean	Std. Deviation
Working capital	344	1	6	3.33	1.40
Marketing	348	1	6	2.08	1.30
Technical	338	1	6	3.67	1.33
Transportation	284	1	6	5.41	1.12
Labor	310	1	6	2.66	1.51
Raw Materials	320	1	6	3.15	1.43

The statistics shows that marketing and labor have the lowest mean of 2.08 and 2.66 respectively (1 being most problematic and 6 being not problematic at all). This means these 2 factors are most problematic for women entrepreneur. Marketing a product requires a lot of things. First of all you need a quality product, you need a demand for that product and the price needs to be right. After these things are met, you need a solid plan to advertise and make that product appealing to the target customers. This all requires training and experience in the field of marketing. It may be difficult for women entrepreneurs to get all the knowledge. Labor is another problem that women entrepreneurs are facing. Due to immigration of a lot of productive labor force, women entrepreneurs are facing a problem of getting experienced and qualified employees. The least problematic factor is transportation which has a mean of 5.41. Rest of the other factors have mean close to 3 meaning these are the factors that give average problems. This finding is in line with other researches done around the world. According to Collerett et al (1990) after launching of the business there are marketing problems, problems with associates and labor problems that women entrepreneurs have to face. Several other problems faced by Women entrepreneur were reconciling family and work, finding required funds and lack of acceptance for women in business. Singh & Belwal (2008) found out that women entrepreneurs in developing

country encounter, problems in finding the markets and distribution networks; limited opportunities for promotion and participation; limited amount of government and institutional support; absence of technological know-how and integration mechanism; and rampant corruption in an undisguised or disguised form.

7.1.2.1 Age and Problems Faced after Starting the Business

The relationship between age of women entrepreneurs and the problems they had faced after starting their business has been described here. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55. The nature of problems included are problem of securing working capital, problems with marketing the product, technical problems, transportation problems, labor and raw material problems.

Table 7.7 has the breakdown of age and problem faced after starting the business. Irrespective of age, most women entrepreneurs face marketing and labor problem after starting their business. It is hard for women entrepreneur to market their product. Labor migration to foreign country has also created problems in finding workforce.

Table 7.7 Age and Problems Faced after Starting the Business

Mean

Age	Working capital Problem	Marketing problem	Technical problem	Transportation Problem	Labor Problem	Raw Material problem
Below 25 years	3.20	2.00	3.66	5.50	2.00	2.66
26 to 35 years	3.09	1.78	3.58	5.08	3.11	3.18
36 to 45 years	3.47	2.29	3.61	5.44	2.53	3.15
46 to 55 years	3.54	2.02	3.76	5.58	2.44	3.35
Above 56 years	2.80	1.85	3.85	5.33	3.13	2.68
Total	3.33	2.08	3.67	5.40	2.65	3.15

Above table shows that women entrepreneurs between the ages of 26 to 35 face the problem of marketing most followed by above 56 years old. Women below the age of 25 face the problem of labor the most. It could be because their young age might

cause potential employee to hesitate. Their lack of experience might cause older employee to feel insecure in their jobs. All the other factors like working capital, technical problems have mean close to 3 for all age group. This suggests that these problems are faced by women of all age group equally.

7.1.2.2 Education and Problems Faced after Starting the Business

Education is important for women entrepreneur to run the business successfully. Education helps to gain self confidence. Education also makes it easier to learn new things and it also helps keep women entrepreneur motivated. Level of education has been divided into 5 categories: Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above. Following table (Table 7.8) breaks down the problems faced by women entrepreneur after starting their business with respect to education.

Table 7.8 Education and Problems Faced after Starting the Business

Mean

Education	Working capital Problem	Marketing problem	Technical problem	Transportation Problem	Labor Problem	Raw Material problem
Just literate	2.70	3.22	3.70	5.28	2.75	2.77
SLC pass	3.13	2.18	3.55	5.40	2.64	3.23
Intermediate pass	3.44	1.94	3.56	5.36	2.68	3.33
Bachelor pass	3.38	2.10	3.79	5.41	2.60	3.05
Master and above pass	3.29	2.05	3.86	5.58	2.71	2.80
Total	3.33	2.08	3.67	5.40	2.65	3.15

Table 7.8 shows that just literate women entrepreneur face the problem of working capital the most after starting their business. It is followed by labor problem and raw material problem. Lack of higher education could prevent them from getting loans. Qualified employees may try to avoid working under a person who is less educated than they are. Technical problem is faced by all group of women entrepreneurs, this could suggest that technical training needs to be organized more often. Marketing seems to be a problem for group of women who are better educated than the ones who are just literate. It is hard to explain this data but it could be that just literate get more help or ask for more help from other people. Also their business could be of smaller scale than other women and their market could also be limited. Their competition may

be less. Other group of women may have larger business and larger market so it may be difficult for them to market their product.

7.1.2.3 Training Taken and Problems Faced after Starting the Business

Training can play an important role in minimizing problem after starting a business. Women who had taken training had reported that training helped them a lot in understanding business process and helped them become a better entrepreneur. Some of the types of training taken by women entrepreneur are business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training, etc. Following table (Table 7.9) gives a better picture of impact of training on problems faced after starting business.

Table 7.9 Training Taken and Problems Faced after Starting the Business

Mean

Training	Working capital Problem	Marketing problem	Technical problem	Transportation Problem	Labor Problem	Raw Material problem
Training not taken	2.98	1.89	3.55	5.32	3.28	2.93
Business related skill development	3.41	2.26	3.74	5.42	2.38	3.04
Entrepreneurship development	3.39	1.93	3.57	5.41	2.55	3.57
Financing and Accounting	4.12	2.44	2.12	5.00	2.50	3.57
Marketing and Sales	3.53	1.91	3.56	5.46	2.77	3.43
Business Administration	2.55	1.90	4.00	4.87	3.14	3.42
Computer and IT	3.52	1.82	4.33	5.84	2.59	2.77
Other	3.00	2.00	3.77	5.37	2.55	3.88
Total	3.33	2.08	3.67	5.40	2.65	3.15

The statistics shows that women entrepreneurs that have not taken any training face marketing problem. Marketing is also the biggest problem for all the women entrepreneurs irrespective of their training. Women entrepreneurs who have taken technical training do not rate technical problem higher. However, women

entrepreneurs who have taken marketing training still face a lot of problem in marketing their product. This could suggest that marketing and sales training are not very effective. Also women entrepreneurs who have taken entrepreneurship development training face least problem in getting working capital. All these suggest that training has helped women entrepreneur in lots of ways, however, some training needs to be more effective.

7.1.2.4 Family Size and Problems Faced after Starting the Business

Women entrepreneur looked into in this study are either single family entrepreneur or joint family entrepreneur. The nature of problems included are problem of securing working capital, problems with marketing the product, technical problems, transportation problems, labor and raw material problems. Following table (Table 6.10) breaks down information regarding problems faced after starting the business with respect to family size.

Table 7.10: Family Size and Problems Faced after starting the business

Mean

Family Type	Working capital Problem	Marketing problem	Technical problem	Transportation Problem	Labor Problem	Raw Material problem
Single Family	3.33	2.14	4.01	5.59	2.57	3.01
Joint Family	3.32	2.04	3.48	5.29	2.70	3.23
Total	3.33	2.08	3.67	5.40	2.65	3.15

Single family or joint family does not make much difference in problem faced after starting the business. One thing that stands out is technical problem. Single family women entrepreneurs rate technical problem lower than the joint family entrepreneurs. However, it is still above the mean of 3 which suggests that it is not very severe problem.

7.2 Business Operation Knowledge

Women entrepreneurs need to have knowledge of business operation to run their business successfully. This section of analysis deals with their knowledge of operations, their understanding of government policies, their understanding of market conditions, their use of various management tools, etc. It also includes analysis of the critical factors that women entrepreneurs think are important for success of their business.

7.2.1 Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

To be successful in business an entrepreneur needs to understand the different aspects of their business. An entrepreneur needs to have knowledge about technology that can be used and are being used, needs to have marketing knowledge, pricing knowledge and product knowledge.

Table 7.11 shows the responses of respondents regarding knowledge of various aspects of business which include knowledge of technology, market, price and products before starting their business.

Table 7.11: Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

	N	Very Low	Very High	Mean	Std. Deviation
Technical Knowledge	368	1	4	3.05	0.78
Marketing Knowledge	368	1	5	3.21	0.76
Pricing Knowledge	368	1	5	2.90	0.74
Product Knowledge	368	1	5	3.45	0.71

Table 7.11 shows the knowledge of different aspects of business while doing the business. The statistics show that knowledge of product has the highest mean i.e. 3.45 which means that respondents have high knowledge about product or services before entering the business. Similarly, knowledge about marketing has a mean of 3.21 which also indicates women entrepreneurs have enough knowledge about marketing. Similarly, they also have moderate information about technology to be used since its mean is above 3 i.e. mid value. Pricing knowledge accounts for the minimum mean i.e. 2.9 which indicates women entrepreneurs have less knowledge about pricing. However, from the data it can be inferred that they have moderate knowledge about their

product, price, technology and market since mean value is around and greater than mid value 3.

7.2.1.1 Age and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

The relationship between age of women entrepreneurs and knowledge of different aspect of business before entering business has been described here. Knowledge of different aspects of business includes technology knowledge, market knowledge, price knowledge and product knowledge. Knowledge about business aspect has been ranked from 1 being very low knowledge and 5 being very high knowledge. Table 7.12 provides the breakdown of data with respect to age. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e. below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55.

Table 7.12: Age and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

Mean

Age	Technology Knowledge	Market Knowledge	Price Knowledge	Product Knowledge
Below 25 years	2.60	3.00	2.40	3.00
26 to 35 years	3.00	3.26	3.00	3.61
36 to 45 years	3.04	3.25	2.91	3.46
46 to 55 years	3.07	3.17	2.90	3.45
Above 56 years	3.17	3.08	2.82	3.21
Total	3.04	3.21	2.90	3.44

Above table shows that women entrepreneurs below the age of 25 had less technological knowledge and less price knowledge before starting their business. It could have happened because women entrepreneur below the age of 25 have less experience than other groups. Less experience could prevent them from knowing about the technology that are being used and are available in market. It also looks like other groups of women entrepreneur have similar technological knowledge, pricing knowledge, product and marketing knowledge before starting their business.

7.2.1.2 Education and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

Education can have some impact on knowledge of various aspects of business knowledge. Just literate, SLC passed or intermediate passed could have less knowledge about technology, market, price or product than bachelor or master passed.

In order to assess if knowledge of different aspect of business before starting business is affected by education level of women entrepreneur, following analysis has been done.

Table 7.13 breaks down women entrepreneurs' knowledge of different aspects of business with their education level.

Table 7.13: Education and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

Mean

Education	Technology Knowledge	Market Knowledge	Price Knowledge	Product Knowledge
Just literate	3.30	3.30	3.10	3.30
SLC pass	3.23	3.30	3.06	3.47
Intermediate pass	3.03	3.21	2.86	3.41
Bachelor pass	2.97	3.16	2.86	3.45
Master and above pass	2.95	3.17	2.84	3.48
Total	3.04	3.21	2.90	3.44

Table 7.13 shows that technology knowledge does not have much difference in mean. However, just literate women entrepreneur seems to have more knowledge about technology used in business. This could be because they are mostly interested in small scale industry and small scale industry does not use very sophisticated technology. It also looks like most of the women entrepreneurs had moderate knowledge of price and produce before entering business. Same is the case with market. They were attracted to certain business after knowing the market situation and profit making opportunity. Overall it shows that women entrepreneurs with higher education do not necessarily have more knowledge about different aspect of business before entering business than less educated women entrepreneurs.

7.2.1.3 Professional Training and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

Professional training taken would have certainly helped women entrepreneur to know about different aspect of business before actually entering it. Table 7.14 shows the type of training taken and knowledge of different aspect of business. Some of the training taken by women entrepreneur are business skill development training,

entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training, etc.

Table 7.14: Professional Training and Knowledge of Different Aspects of Business

Mean

Training Type	Technical Knowledge	Market Knowledge	Price Knowledge	Product Knowledge
Training not taken	3.09	3.38	3.00	3.52
Business related skill development	3.02	3.17	2.90	3.46
Entrepreneurship development	2.90	2.90	2.58	3.41
Financing and Accounting	2.88	3.11	2.88	3.33
Marketing and Sales	3.19	3.25	2.97	3.34
Business Administration	2.80	3.10	2.90	3.30
Computer and IT	3.03	3.22	2.88	3.33
Other	3.30	3.40	2.90	3.60
Total	3.04	3.21	2.90	3.44

Table 7.14 shows that women entrepreneur who had not taken any training also had moderate knowledge about the business before entering it. However, statistics shows that even after taking training most women entrepreneur only had moderate knowledge about technology, product, price and market. This can mean that the training provided were general training and did not go in detail on any subject matter. It only provided surface knowledge which might not have been very applicable to women entrepreneur. It could also be that training was not very effective in making women entrepreneur understand various aspect of business.

7.2.2 Understanding of Government Policies

Table 7.16 shows the responses of respondents regarding the extent to which they understand the government policies like fiscal policy, monetary policy, industrial policy, trade policy and labor policy before entering their business.

Table 7.16: Understanding of Government Policies

	N	Very Low	Very High	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fiscal Policy	368	1	4	2.71	.81
Monetary Policy	368	1	4	2.65	.77
Industrial Policy	368	1	5	2.75	.82
Trade Policy	368	1	5	2.91	.86
Labor Policy	368	1	5	2.93	.86

Table 7.16 shows the understanding of government policies by women entrepreneurs. The statistics shows that understanding of labor policy shows the highest mean of 2.91, however, the mean value for other policies viz. fiscal policy, monetary policy, industrial policy and trade policy has mean less than 3 which indicates that the knowledge of various policies is relatively low on women entrepreneurs. This shows that there is a necessity to educate women entrepreneurs about all the policies that have effect on the business.

7.2.2.1 Age and Understanding of Government Policies

Government has various policies to run the economic activities of a country. It can be very confusing sometimes to understand all the policies. Also they keep changing, and it might be difficult to keep track of these policies. Various government policies that were looked at are fiscal policy, monetary policy, industrial policy, trade policy and labor policy. In order to assess if age of women entrepreneur had any effect on understanding government policies, following table (Table 7.17) was created which breaks down the understanding of various policies by women entrepreneur with respect to age.

Table 7.17: Age and Understanding of Government Policies

Mean

Age	Fiscal Policy	Monetary Policy	Industrial Policy	Trade Policy	Labor Policy
Below 25 years	2.60	2.60	2.60	2.60	2.60
26 to 35 years	2.29	2.26	2.38	2.50	2.52
36 to 45 years	2.81	2.75	2.86	3.04	3.03
46 to 55 years	3.20	3.07	3.17	3.32	3.40
Above 56 years	2.13	2.13	2.17	2.39	2.39
Total	2.71	2.65	2.75	2.91	2.92

Table 7.17 shows that women entrepreneurs of all ages had low to moderate understanding of government policies before entering business. This could mean that women entrepreneur did not concern themselves with understanding about various policies before starting their business.

7.2.2.2 Education and Understanding of Government Policies

Education can play a crucial role in helping women entrepreneurs understand the various government policies employed by the government. Education can make it easier for women entrepreneurs to understand the ins and outs of various government policies. Following table (Table 7.18) presents the information regarding the understanding of government policies and breaks it down with respect to education level. Education level has been divided into 5 categories i.e. Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above. Government policies looked at, are fiscal policy, monetary policy, industrial policy, trade policy and labor policy.

Table 7.18: Education and Understanding of Government Policies

Mean

Education	Fiscal Policy	Monetary Policy	Industrial Policy	Trade Policy	Labor Policy
Just literate	2.80	2.60	2.90	2.90	3.00
SLC pass	2.61	2.63	2.75	2.92	2.96
Intermediate pass	2.70	2.62	2.71	2.86	2.89
Bachelor pass	2.77	2.69	2.78	3.03	3.02
Master and above pass	2.68	2.68	2.73	2.75	2.73
Total	2.71	2.65	2.75	2.91	2.92

The statistics shows that education does not have any significant effect on understanding of government policies. Women with different education level have problems understanding the government policies. Analysis does not show that highly educated women entrepreneur have better knowledge of government policies than the less educated women entrepreneur.

7.2.2.3 Training and Understanding of Government Policies

Training can give some information to entrepreneur regarding the various government policies like fiscal policies, monetary policies, industrial policies, trade policies and labor policies. Table 7.19 shows understanding of various government policies by

women entrepreneurs and breaks it down with respect to training taken. Some of the training taken by women entrepreneurs are business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training, etc.

Table 7.19 Training and Understanding of Government Policies

Mean

Training	Fiscal Policy	Monetary Policy	Industrial Policy	Trade Policy	Labor Policy
Training not taken	2.73	2.79	2.87	2.98	2.98
Business related skill development	2.70	2.61	2.77	2.93	2.93
Entrepreneurship development	2.51	2.38	2.38	2.61	2.70
Financing and Accounting	2.88	2.66	2.88	3.00	3.00
Marketing and Sales	2.74	2.74	2.78	3.00	3.02
Business Administration	2.60	2.50	2.60	2.50	2.50
Computer and IT	2.81	2.70	2.70	2.92	3.00
Other	2.70	2.60	2.60	2.90	2.90
Total	2.71	2.65	2.75	2.91	2.92

Even with training there is low to moderate understanding of government policies. It looks like a training session which deals with various policies needs to be provided to women entrepreneur. It will help them to know about various loan opportunities provided by government, various subsidies provided, various employee regulation made by the government. All these information will help them to follow the law and keep them out of trouble in future.

7.2.3 Factors Affecting Business Operation

Table 7.20 shows the responses of respondents regarding various factors affecting the performance of business operation (1 being not significant and 5 being most significant.) Various factors affecting business operation are cost of borrowing, transaction cost, mortgage requirement and access to financial institution.

Table 7.20: Factors Affecting Business Operation

	N	Not Significant	Most Significant	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cost of Borrowing	368	1	5	2.6196	0.8962
Transaction costs	368	1	5	2.4266	1.0149
Mortgage requirement	368	2	5	3.8505	0.7791
Access Financial Institution	368	2	5	3.8370	0.7781

Table 7.20 shows the factors affecting the business of women entrepreneurs in Nepal. The statistics shows that among all the factors, transaction cost has the lowest mean of 2.42 which means that transaction cost is the least significant economic factor that has an effect upon business operation. Cost of borrowing has the second lowest mean of 2.62. Similarly mortgage requirement has the highest mean meaning that it was the most significant factor affecting the business operation.

7.2.3.1 Age and Factors Affecting Business Operation

In order to assess if people of different age group had different perspective on factors affecting business operation, some analysis was done. Table 7.21 breaks down various factors affecting business operations like cost of borrowing, transaction cost, mortgage requirement and access to financial institution with age. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e. below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55.

Table 7.21: Age and Factors Affecting Business Operation

Mean

Age	Cost of Borrowing	Transaction costs	Mortgage requirement	Access to financial institution
Below 25 years	3.00	2.20	3.80	4.00
26 to 35 years	2.73	2.36	4.05	3.94
36 to 45 years	2.70	2.50	3.84	3.88
46 to 55 years	2.50	2.25	3.75	3.72
Above 56 years	2.26	2.60	3.76	3.67
Total	2.61	2.42	3.85	3.83

Table 7.21 shows that access to financial institution is a significant factor that affects business operations for women entrepreneur below the age of 25. Similarly, mortgage requirement is a significant factor to women entrepreneur between the ages of 26 to 35. All the other factors for women entrepreneur are moderate to less significant.

7.2.3.2 Education and Factors Affecting Business Operation

Education could have some effect on the factors affecting business operation. Highly educated women i.e. bachelor and above could have been less affected by cost of borrowing, transaction cost, mortgage requirement and access to financial institution than the less educated i.e. intermediate and below. Table 7.22 shows the factor affecting the business operation and breaks it down with the education level of women entrepreneur.

Table 7.22: Education and Factors Affecting Business Operation

Education	Cost of Borrowing	Transaction costs	Mortgage requirement	Access to financial institution
Just literate	2.80	2.90	4.60	4.10
SLC pass	2.41	2.41	3.89	3.80
Intermediate pass	2.69	2.36	3.82	3.96
Bachelor pass	2.57	2.42	3.81	3.70
Master and above pass	2.75	2.53	3.80	3.77
Total	2.61	2.42	3.85	3.83

Statistics shows that mortgage requirement and access to financial institutions are two significant problems affecting women entrepreneurs who are just literate. These 2 factors are significant to more educated entrepreneurs as well but not as much as the entrepreneurs who are just literate. Other factors like cost of borrowing and transaction cost pose similar problems to women entrepreneurs irrespective of their education level.

7.2.3.3 Training and Factors Affecting Business Operation

In order to see if significance of factor affecting business operations were different with the type of training taken by women entrepreneur, some analysis was done. Some of the training taken by women entrepreneur are business skill development

training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training, etc.

Table 7.23 breaks down information regarding factors affecting business operations with respect to training taken.

Table 7.23: Training and Factors Affecting Business Operation

Mean

Training	Cost of Borrowing	Transaction costs	Mortgage requirement	Access to financial institution
Training not taken	2.48	2.30	3.86	3.81
Business related skill development	2.70	2.51	3.87	3.78
Entrepreneurship development	2.67	2.06	3.54	3.70
Financing and Accounting	2.55	2.66	4.11	4.00
Marketing and Sales	2.63	2.55	3.93	3.95
Business Administration	2.50	2.70	3.60	4.30
Computer and IT	2.48	2.22	3.77	3.77
Other	2.50	2.40	4.10	4.20
Total	2.61	2.42	3.85	3.83

Statistics shows that women entrepreneurs who have not taken training rank mortgage requirement and financial institution as having a significant impact on business operation. It can be seen that most women entrepreneurs do not think transaction cost and cost of borrowing having significant impact on business operation.

7.2.4 Contacting with different Institutions

Table 7.24 shows the responses of respondents regarding problem faced by women entrepreneurs contacting with different institutions. Various institutions include Department of Industry, financial institution, private agencies, technical institution and Department of Inland Revenues.

Table 7.24: contacting with different Institutions

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Dept of Industry	368	1	5	2.6196	0.89616
Financial Institution	368	1	5	2.5815	0.96471
Private Agencies	368	1	5	2.337	0.8388
Technical Institution	368	1	5	2.1413	0.70932
Department of Inland Revenues	368	1	4	2.2609	0.72133

The statistics shows that the mean is around 2.5 for all the institution in the questionnaire. This could mean that it was not very difficult for most of the women entrepreneurs to contact these institutions. However it was difficult to get things done through these institution after making contact with them Most of the women interviewed mentioned that registration process in the Department of Industry was very frustrating. The rules were vague and legal procedure took a long time.

7.2.4.1 Age and Contacting with Different Institutions

In order to see if problem faced while contacting various intuitions were different with different age group, the means of age and problems contacting different institution were compared. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e. below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55. Various institutions include Department of Industry, financial institution, private agencies, technical institution and Department of Inland Revenues.

Table: 6.25 Age and Contacting with Different Institutions

Mean

Age	Department of Industry	Financial institution	Private Agencies	Technical Institutions	Department of Inland Revenues
Below 25 years	3.00	3.20	3.00	3.00	2.50
26 to 35 years	2.73	2.50	2.17	2.02	2.16
36 to 45 years	2.70	2.78	2.46	2.14	2.34
46 to 55 years	2.50	2.42	2.32	2.20	2.27
Above 56 years	2.26	2.13	2.00	2.00	2.04
Total	2.61	2.58	2.33	2.14	2.26

Women entrepreneurs below the age of 25 seem to have faced more problems contacting various different institutions than women entrepreneur of other age group. They have a mean value of 3 which can be classified as moderated problems where as other age group have mean value less than 3 which can be classified as having low problem. These disparities could have happened because women entrepreneurs below 25 are rarely seen in our society and the people working in these intuitions could have just made some judgment error and might have made it difficult for these women. Another reason could be that women entrepreneur below 25 might not be very aware of government process which are long and very tiresome. They might lose patience with the pace of the work being done and might have made judgment that contacting these institution was difficult.

7.2.4.2 Education and Contacting with Different Institutions

In order to see if problem faced while contacting various intuitions were different with entrepreneur with different level of education, the means of education level and problems contacting different institution were compared. Education level has been divided into 5 categories i.e. Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above.

Table 7.26: Education and Contacting with different Institutions

Mean

Education	Departm ent of Industry	Financial institution	Private Agencies	Technical Institution s	Departme nt of Inland Revenues
Just literate	2.80	3.00	2.40	2.50	2.40
SLC pass	2.41	2.49	2.07	1.98	2.07
Intermediate pass	2.69	2.62	2.38	2.17	2.30
Bachelor pass	2.57	2.50	2.26	2.11	2.23
Master and above pass	2.75	2.68	2.73	2.24	2.42
Total	2.61	2.58	2.33	2.14	2.26

Table 7.26 shows that all the mean values are below or equal to 3 which suggest that there was moderate or low problem contacting various intuitions irrespective of education level.

7.2.4.3 Training and Contacting with Different Institutions

In order to see if problem faced while contacting various intuitions were different with entrepreneurs with different type of training taken, the means of training taken and problems contacting different institution were compared. Some of the training taken by women entrepreneur are business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training etc.

Table 7.27: Training and Contacting with different Institutions

Mean

Training	Departm ent of Industry	Financial institutio n	Private Agencies	Technical Institution s	Departme nt of Inland Revenues
Training not taken	2.48	2.69	2.18	2.11	2.15
Business related skill development	2.70	2.49	2.24	2.12	2.23
Entrepreneurship development	2.67	2.70	2.74	2.00	2.58
Financing and Accounting	2.55	2.88	3.00	2.44	2.55
Marketing and Sales	2.63	2.57	2.48	2.21	2.36
Business Administration	2.50	2.60	2.60	2.50	2.20
Computer and IT	2.48	2.77	2.44	2.22	2.18
Other	2.50	2.00	1.90	1.90	2.00
Total	2.61	2.58	2.33	2.14	2.26

Table 7.27 shows that all the mean values are below 3 which suggest that there was moderate or low problem contacting various intuitions irrespective of training taken.

7.2.5 Factors that were given attention during the Initial Period of Business

Table 7.28 shows the factor that women entrepreneurs gave maximum attention during the initial period of business. They ranked it from 1 to 5 one being most important and 5 being least important. Some of the factors were product quality, product price, product market, personnel and financial factors.

Table 7.28 Factors that were Given attention during the Initial Period of Business

	N	Mean Value	Std. Deviation	Rank
Product Quality	366	1.56	0.95	1
Product Price	366	3.27	1.11	3
Products market	366	2.34	1.20	2
Personnel	364	4.07	0.93	5
Finance	364	3.79	1.17	4

From the above table it can be interpreted that product quality was given most importance. Product market research was second thing that was given most importance. Since most of the products produced are exported to foreign country, it is very understandable that quality and market research are given priority.

7.2.5.1 Age and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business

In order to see if factors given attention during the initial period of business are different with entrepreneur of different age group, the means of factors given attention during the initial period of business were compared by breaking it down with different age group. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e. below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55. Some of the factors given attention during the initial period of business were product quality, product price, product market, personnel and financial factors.

Table 7.29: Age and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business

Mean

Age	Product Quality	Product Price	Product Market	Personnel	Finances
Below 25 years	1.40	2.40	2.20	5.00	4.00
26 to 35 years	1.88	3.21	2.24	4.15	3.41
36 to 45 years	1.49	3.33	2.46	3.91	3.91
46 to 55 years	1.60	3.08	2.13	3.97	4.21
Above 56 years	1.30	3.65	2.43	4.52	3.17
Total	1.56	3.27	2.34	4.07	3.79

Statistics shows that women entrepreneurs of different age group have given more attention to product quality followed by product market. Product price is the third thing that is given attention to. Table 7.29 shows that there is some difference while ranking personnel and finances. Women entrepreneurs above the age of 26 and below 45 give more attention to finances than personnel whereas women between the ages of 46 to 55 give more attention to personnel than finances. Women entrepreneurs below 25 and above 56 seem to give more attention to finances than personnel.

7.2.5.2 Education and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business

In order to see if problem faced while contacting various intuitions were different with entrepreneur with different level of education, the means of factors given attention during the initial period of business were compared with different education level. Education level has been divided into 5 categories i.e. Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above. Factors given attention are product quality, product price, product market, personnel and financial factors.

Table 7.30: Education and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business

Mean

Education	Product Quality	Product Price	Product Market	Personnel	Finances
Just literate	1.70	2.90	2.30	4.20	3.80
SLC pass	1.45	3.22	2.42	4.18	3.68
Intermediate pass	1.55	3.40	2.19	4.05	3.81
Bachelor pass	1.56	3.29	2.52	3.99	3.78
Master and above pass	1.70	2.95	2.23	4.14	3.93
Total	1.56	3.27	2.34	4.07	3.79

Women entrepreneurs with different level of education rank product quality as the number one thing they pay attention to during the initial period of business. Product market or demand is next thing that they look at followed by price. Finances are the fourth thing they pay attention to and personnel is last in their priorities.

7.2.5.3 Training and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business

In order to see if problems faced while contacting various institutions were different with entrepreneurs with different type of training taken, the means of factors given attention during the initial period of business were compared with types of training taken. Some of the training taken by women entrepreneur are business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training, etc.

Table 7.31 Training and Factors given attention during the Initial Period of Business

Mean

Training	Product Quality	Product Price	Product Market	Personnel	Finances
Training not taken	1.57	2.96	2.40	4.28	3.69
Business related skill development	1.63	3.29	2.36	3.94	3.88
Entrepreneurship development	1.81	3.48	1.93	3.79	3.93
Financing and Accounting	1.33	3.67	1.78	4.33	3.89
Marketing and Sales	1.34	3.40	2.23	4.34	3.68
Business Administration	1.20	3.30	2.30	4.20	4.00
Computer and IT	1.37	3.52	2.81	3.88	3.35
Other	1.60	2.80	2.40	4.30	4.00
Total	1.56	3.27	2.34	4.07	3.79

Women entrepreneurs with different training type rank product quality as the number one thing they pay attention to during the initial period of business. Product market or demand is next thing that they look at followed by price. Finances are the fourth thing they pay attention to and personnel is last in their priorities. This is also true for women entrepreneurs who have not taken any training.

7.2.6 Use of Managerial Tools

Table 7.32 shows the responses of respondents regarding the extent to which they use various managerial tools like strategic planning, financial planning, marketing planning, and product assessment.

Table 7.32: Use of Managerial tools

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Strategic Planning	364	3.42	0.71	4
Financial Planning	366	3.70	0.57	3
Marketing Planning	366	3.80	0.60	1
Product assessment	366	3.76	0.59	2

Table 7.32 shows the extent to which women entrepreneurs in Nepal use various managerial tools. The statistics shows that marketing planning has highest mean among all i.e. 3.80 which means women entrepreneurs use this tool among all. Similarly, product assessment has second highest mean of 3.76, financial planning has 3.70 and strategic planning has 3.42 which shows that Nepalese women entrepreneurs should have to now focus on strategy making and long run development.

7.2.6.1 Age and Use of Managerial Tools

Managerial tools like strategy planning, financial planning, marketing planning and product assessment are very important for successful operation of a business. Following table (Table 7.33) looks at whether changes in age have any effect in the usages of managerial tools.

Table 7.33: Age and Use of Managerial Tools

Mean

Age	Strategic Planning	Financial Planning	Marketing Planning	Product assessment
Below 25 years	3.60	3.60	4.00	4.00
26 to 35 years	3.09	3.44	3.50	3.56
36 to 45 years	3.57	3.78	3.90	3.81
46 to 55 years	3.50	3.78	3.95	3.85
Above 56 years	3.22	3.74	3.57	3.65
Total	3.42	3.70	3.80	3.76

Women entrepreneurs below the age of 25 use product assessment and market planning extensively. Similarly women above the age of 56 also rank product assessment higher than market planning. However, women over the ages of 36 to 55 rate market planning higher than product assessment. This shows that women entrepreneurs pay special attention to product demand and product quality. Since a lot of products are exported to foreign market or are bought by tourist, quality is a very essential thing to have. All the women irrespective of age use strategy planning far less than they should. Strategy planning will help them be successful in future but this is one aspect that is being neglected.

7.2.6.2 Education and Use of Managerial Tools

In order to see if use of managerial tools were different with entrepreneurs with different level of education, the means of use of managerial tools were compared for different education level. Education level has been divided into 5 categories i.e. Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above. Various managerial tools are strategic planning, financial planning, marketing planning and product assessment.

Table 7.34: Education and Use of Managerial Tools

Mean

Education	Strategic Planning	Financial Planning	Marketing Planning	Product assessment
Just literate	3.00	3.56	3.67	3.67
SLC pass	3.40	3.72	3.71	3.75
Intermediate pass	3.37	3.66	3.83	3.74
Bachelor pass	3.54	3.79	3.77	3.77
Master and above pass	3.41	3.64	3.91	3.84
Total	3.42	3.70	3.80	3.76

Table 7.34 shows that product assessment and market planning are used more often by women with different level of education. Strategy planning is the last tool that most of the women entrepreneurs use.

7.2.6.3 Training and Use of Managerial Tools

In order to see if problems of use of managerial tools were different with entrepreneur with different type of training, the means of different training taken and use of managerial tool were compared. Some of the training taken by women entrepreneurs are business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training, etc. Various managerial tools are strategic planning, financial planning, marketing planning and product assessment.

Table 7.35: Training and Use of Managerial Tools

Mean

Training	Strategic Planning	Financial Planning	Marketing Planning	Product assessment
Training not taken	3.35	3.62	3.75	3.71
Business related skill development	3.43	3.68	3.75	3.70
Entrepreneurship development	3.30	3.65	3.94	3.87
Financing and Accounting	3.44	3.67	4.00	4.00
Marketing and Sales	3.59	3.93	3.91	4.00
Business Administration	3.50	3.50	3.40	3.50
Computer and IT	3.44	3.81	3.89	3.70
Other	3.40	3.80	4.00	3.90
Total	3.42	3.70	3.80	3.76

Women entrepreneurs who have not taken training, taken business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, business administration training and computer training use market planning tool more often than product assessment tool. However, women entrepreneurs who have taken marketing and sales training use product assessment tool more often than marketing tool. This shows that women entrepreneurs with marketing and sales training have understood that quality product sells and they do no compromises in product quality. A quality product is easy to market. Regardless of training, strategic planning is the least used management tool.

7.2.6.4 Family size and Use of Managerial Tools

Research wanted to see if family size had any impact on use of managerial tool. Women entrepreneurs interviewed either living in a single family or in a joint family. The means value for use of managerial tool was compared for two family type.

Table 7.36 Family Size and Use of Managerial Tools

Mean

Family Type	Strategic Planning	Financial Planning	Marketing Planning	Product assessment
Single Family	3.44	3.81	3.87	3.87
Joint Family	3.41	3.64	3.76	3.70
Total	3.42	3.70	3.80	3.76

Table 7.36 shows that women entrepreneurs with single family use product assessment more than joint family. However, the difference in mean is not very big. This could have happened because of high number of entrepreneur having joint family. This can pull the average down. It can also be seen that women entrepreneur with joint family prefer market planning over product assessment. Single family entrepreneur use both the tools equally on average. Irrespective of family size, strategic planning is the least often used management tool.

7.2.7 Time Allocated in Business

An entrepreneur needs to give a lot of time for his/her business. From the survey research wanted to know the amount of time (in percentage) women entrepreneur spent doing various business related activities like networking, marketing, supervision, planning, financial management, production and operation.

Table 7.37: Time Spending by Women Entrepreneurs

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Networking	366	21.72	9.05	1
Marketing	365	16.37	7.36	3
Production and Operation	362	19.77	11.83	2
Supervision	360	15.56	7.00	4
Planning	368	15.35	6.03	5
Financial Management	368	12.15	4.11	6

Table 7.37 shows that women entrepreneur spend least amount of their time in financial management. It has the lowest mean of 12.15. Networking has the highest mean of 21.72 which is what most women entrepreneurs spend their time on. Product and Operation is second most important thing that women entrepreneur spend time on. It has second highest mean of 19.77. Other researchers have found that when starting a new business, besides market research and business planning, one must also be prepared psychologically. A strong willed entrepreneur would succeed in business. An entrepreneur who is willing to take risk, is good at networking and knows the ground reality of business can succeed (Scheele, 1991). This result is in line with this research which shows that most women entrepreneur think spending more time in networking is very important.

7.2.7.1 Age and Time Allocated in Business

In order to access if time allocated in business varied with age, the mean values of time allocated in business for each age group were calculated. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55. Time allocated in business has been divided into 6 categories: networking, marketing, supervision, planning, financial management, production and operation.

Table 7.38: Time Spent by Women Entrepreneurs

Mean

Age	Networking	Marketing	Production and Operation	Supervision	Planning	Financial Management
Below 25 years	22.0000	16.0000	17.0000	18.0000	15.0000	12.0000
26 to 35 years	20.2941	18.0882	22.4242	13.2812	15.1471	12.2059
36 to 45 years	22.9012	15.8232	17.8704	16.2963	15.3049	12.5000
46 to 55 years	23.2500	16.7532	17.4359	16.2500	15.8750	11.5000
Above 56 years	16.9565	15.2174	27.1739	14.3182	15.0000	11.9565
Total	21.7213	16.3699	19.7652	15.5556	15.3533	12.1467

Statistics shows that women entrepreneurs below the age of 25 spend more time in networking followed by supervision of business. Production and operation is the third thing that they spend time on. They spend least amount of time in financial management.

Women entrepreneurs between the ages of 26 to 35 spend most of their time in production and operation, followed by networking and marketing respectively. They too spend the least amount of time in financial management. Similarly, women entrepreneurs between the ages of 36 to 45 spend most of their time in networking followed by production and supervision respectively. Women entrepreneurs above the ages of 56 allocate more time for production and operation followed by networking and marketing respectively.

The overall trend here is that networking, marketing and production and operation are the thing that are given most attention by women entrepreneurs whereas financial management gets the least amount of time. It is understandable that networking gets most attention because in Nepal networking plays a key role in keeping the business going. It helps to bring in capital, sell product and generate new ideas. Marketing is important and for a product to be marketed properly it needs to be of good quality so, spending time on production and operations is understood. However, financial planning and management is a must for a long term success of a business. Proper financial planning can help a business expand, grab new opportunity and be more profitable. Women entrepreneurs need to understand that financial planning is a very important part of business and more training regarding these needs to be provided. However, it is also possible that due to the size of business women entrepreneur feel that they can spend less time in financial planning and still run a successful business.

7.2.7.2 Education and Time Allocated in Business

In order to assess if time allocated in business varies with level of education the mean values of time allocated in business for level of education were calculated. Education level has been divided into 5 categories i.e. Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above. Time allocated in business has been divided into 6 categories: networking, marketing, supervision, planning, financial management, production and operation.

Table 7.39: Education and Time Spending by Women Entrepreneurs

Mean

Education	Network ing	Market ing	Producti on and Operati on	Supervisi on	Plannin g	Financial Managem ent
Just literate	21.50	16.50	25.00	14.44	13.00	11.00
SLC pass	21.00	15.84	22.73	14.58	15.15	12.15
Intermediate pass	21.75	16.48	19.33	15.51	15.43	11.97
Bachelor pass	21.18	16.50	19.26	15.81	15.36	12.70
Master and above pass	24.09	16.44	16.74	16.55	15.88	11.55
Total	21.72	16.36	19.76	15.55	15.35	12.14

Table 7.39 shows that women entrepreneurs who are just literate or are SLC pass spend most of their time in production and operation followed by networking and marketing. Women entrepreneurs with intermediate or above level of education spend most of their time in networking followed by production / operation and marketing. It is noteworthy that the higher the women entrepreneurs are educated, the more time they spend on networking and the least time on production and operation. Times spent on other areas are relatively same.

7.2.7.3 Training and Time Spent by Women Entrepreneurs

In order to assess if training received by women entrepreneurs affected their time allocation behaviors in various aspects of business, researcher calculated the mean for time spent by women entrepreneurs and broke it down with the various types of trainings taken. Some of the trainings taken by women entrepreneurs are business skill development training, entrepreneurship development training, financial and accounting training, marketing and sales training, computer training, etc.

Table 7.40: Training and Time Spent by Women Entrepreneurs

Mean

Training	Network ing	Marketi ng	Producti on and Operati on	Supervis ion	Plannin g	Financia l Manage ment
Training not taken	21.11	18.19	18.57	15.29	15.41	12.77
Business related skill development	22.37	15.74	19.90	15.34	15.46	12.28
Entrepreneurship development	21.12	15.32	20.00	17.74	13.87	11.93
Financing and Accounting	21.11	13.33	24.44	15.55	15.55	10.00
Marketing and Sales	22.34	17.23	19.23	14.57	14.89	12.12
Business Administration	21.00	13.50	16.50	21.00	16.00	12.00
Computer and IT	19.62	17.69	21.29	14.81	15.74	11.48
Other	21.50	14.44	22.50	15.00	18.00	10.00
Total	21.72	16.36	19.76	15.55	15.35	12.14

Women entrepreneurs who have not taken any training spend more time on networking followed by production and operation and marketing respectively. Women entrepreneurs with business related training also spend more time on networking and least time on financial management. Women entrepreneurs with entrepreneurship development training also spend a lot of time in networking followed by production and operation and supervision respectively. Women entrepreneurs with financial and accounting training spend more time on production/operation followed by networking and supervision. Women entrepreneurs with marketing and sales training also spend more time on networking followed by production/operation and marketing respectively. So the trend looks like most women entrepreneur give more attention to networking and women with knowledge about administrative side give slightly more attention to supervision of employee as well. Financial management is allocated least amount of time by all entrepreneurs irrespective of their training.

7.3 Women Entrepreneurs View on Critical Success Factors

There is no predefined formula that can guarantee success. There are various factors that if followed can lead to success more often than not. Some of the factors that many successful person have advocated in past are that a successful person should have an ability to work hard, should have determination to succeed and have perseverance to keep going forward. Success in business do depend on these above mentioned factors but it also depends on the product that a business sells, the quality of that product, design of that product, marketing of that product, etc. Researcher asked women entrepreneur respondents what was the most important factor that they thought has brought them success in their business.(1 being the highest and 7 being the lowest) Table 7.41 presents their response.

Table 7.41: Opinions on Critical Success Factors

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Hard work	368	1	7	1.95	1.29
Quality/Variety of products	368	1	7	3.16	1.23
Management/ marketing skills	368	1	7	3.18	0.94
Uniqueness of design	368	1	7	3.81	1.36
Family/ Spousal support	368	1	7	3.25	2.03
Perseverance/ Determination	368	1	7	6.26	0.77
Other critical success factors	368	1	7	6.38	0.69

Most women entrepreneurs think that hard work is the most important factor. Quality of product, management skill, uniqueness of design and family support hold somewhat equal importance among women entrepreneurs. Their means are close together. However, somewhat surprising findings have come up in the analysis. It shows that perseverance/ determination are thought of as least important factor. Hard work and determination must have gone hand in hand but the analysis shows something different.

7.3.1 Age and Critical Success Factor

In order to assess if age of women entrepreneur had any influence on their view of the critical success factor this research wanted to calculate mean of the various critical success factors like hard work, quality of product, management and marketing skills,

uniqueness of design, family support and perseverance/ determination and broke it down with age of women entrepreneurs. The age of women entrepreneurs has been categorized into 5 categories i.e below 25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and above 55.

Table 7.42: Age and Critical Success Factor

Mean

Age	Hard Work	Quality/ Variety of product	Management/ marketing skills	Uniqueness of design	Family/ Spousal support	Perseverance/ Determination	Other Factor
Below 25 years	2.30	4.10	2.90	2.90	3.00	6.60	6.20
26 to 35 years	1.81	3.21	3.26	3.81	3.31	6.25	6.35
36 to 45 years	1.98	3.12	3.11	3.81	3.34	6.26	6.39
46 to 55 years	1.95	3.16	3.21	3.78	3.25	6.29	6.36
Above 56 years	2.00	3.04	3.30	4.07	2.91	6.20	6.48
Total	1.95	3.16	3.18	3.81	3.25	6.26	6.38

Table 7.42 shows that women entrepreneurs of all age group think that hard work is very important in order to achieve success in the field of business. Determination is rated very low by all women entrepreneurs irrespective of age.

7.3.2 Education and Critical Success Factor

In order to assess if education level of women entrepreneurs had any influence on their view of the critical success factor this research calculated means of various critical success factors like hard work, quality of product, management and marketing skills, uniqueness of design, family support and perseverance/ determination and broke it down with the level of education of women entrepreneurs. Education level has been divided into 5 categories i.e. Just literate, SLC pass, Intermediate pass, Bachelor pass and Master and above.

Table 7.43 Education and Critical Success Factor

Mean

Education	Hard Work	Quality/ Variety of products	Management/ marketing skills	Uniqueness of design	Family / Spousal support	Perseverance/ Determination	Other Factor
Just literate	1.90	3.40	3.40	4.00	2.60	6.30	6.40
SLC pass	2.14	2.98	3.23	3.97	3.08	6.22	6.38
Intermediate pass	1.83	3.10	3.15	3.83	3.42	6.26	6.41
Bachelor pass	1.99	3.34	3.23	3.74	3.02	6.31	6.38
Master and above pass	1.98	3.09	3.02	3.64	3.71	6.24	6.31
Total	1.95	3.16	3.18	3.81	3.25	6.26	6.38

Statistics shows that hard work is thought of as the most important factor for the success of business. Quality of product, management/ marketing skills and uniqueness of design and family support are also thought of as important by most of the entrepreneurs. However, perseverance/ determination is thought of as the least important factor.

7.3.3 Training and Critical Success Factor

Analysis wanted to see if outlook on critical success factor as perceived by women entrepreneurs differed with the type of training they received. Table 7.44 presents the mean value of all the critical success factor and breaks it down with respect to training taken.

Table 7.44: Training and Critical Success Factor

Mean

Training	Hard Work	Quality/ Variety of products	Management/ marketing skills	Uniqueness of design	Family / Spousal support	Perseverance/ Determination	Other Factor
Training not taken	1.74	3.15	3.31	3.90	3.21	6.28	6.42
Business related skill development	2.07	3.14	3.12	3.76	3.29	6.28	6.34
Entrepreneurship development	1.84	3.16	3.03	3.87	3.45	6.16	6.48
Financing and Accounting	2.11	3.33	3.67	3.44	2.89	6.22	6.33
Marketing and Sales	1.87	3.06	3.21	3.94	3.26	6.28	6.38
Business Administration	1.90	3.10	2.70	3.80	4.00	6.30	6.20
Computer and IT	2.04	3.30	3.22	3.74	2.93	6.33	6.44
Other	2.00	3.50	3.50	3.70	2.70	6.00	6.60
Total	1.95	3.16	3.18	3.81	3.25	6.26	6.38

Table 7.44 shows that hard work is viewed as the most important critical success factor by women entrepreneurs. Determination is thought of as one of the least important critical success factors. One would think that hard work and perseverance and determination go hand in hand but the data shows the opposite.

7.3.4 Family Size and Critical Success Factor

In order to assess if family size of women entrepreneurs had any influence on their view of the critical success factor this research calculated means of various critical success factors like hard work, quality of product, management and marketing skills, uniqueness of design, family support and perseverance/ determination and broke it down with the family size of women entrepreneurs. Family sizes of women entrepreneur are divided into 2 categories: Single family and Joint family.

Table 7.45: Family Size and Critical Success Factor

Mean

Family Type	Hard Work	Quality / Variety of products	Management/ marketing skills	Uniqueness of design	Family/ Spousal support	Perseverance/ Determination	Other Factor
Single Family	1.90	3.22	3.18	3.73	3.32	6.26	6.39
Joint Family	1.99	3.12	3.18	3.86	3.21	6.27	6.38
Total	1.95	3.16	3.18	3.81	3.25	6.26	6.38

Statistics shows that there is not much difference with the ranking. Hard work is thought of by both groups of women entrepreneurs to be very important. The mean values are close together. Perseverance and determination has highest mean value for both groups of women entrepreneurs which suggests that it is not very important factor in determining success of a business.

7.4 Factors Affecting Women Entrepreneurial success in Nepal: Regression Analysis

Setting up a business does not lead an entrepreneur to success. A favorable environment and good operating condition are also very essential. Various factors can play a role in the success of an enterprise. Some of the factors such as age, education, entrepreneurial experience, marital status, professional training, initial feasibility study, export of products etc. can play a big role in determining the success of a business. A regression analysis was done in this study to understand the major success factor for women entrepreneur in Nepal (Kathmandu Valley).

Model Proposed

All variables measurement scale fall under ordinal or nominal scale. Therefore logistic regression model has been used. Here, Logistic Regression has been used to test whether there is significant relationship between dependent variables (Entrepreneurial Success) and Independent variables (Age, Education, Martital Status,

Professional Training, Feasibility Study, Experience, Exporting Product). In this case number of cases to independent variables 52.57:1.

The model proposed is: Women Entrepreneurial Success = $\alpha + \beta_1$ Age + β_2 Education + β_3 Marital Status + β_4 Professional Training + β_5 Feasibility Study + β_6 Experience + β_7 Exporting Product + ϵ_{iy}

Table 7.46: Factors affecting Women Entrepreneurship Success in Nepal

Variable	Categories	Frequency of Success		P-Value	Remarks
		No	Yes		
Age (in Years)	≤ 35	6	0.961	0.067	Sig at 10%
	36 – 45	23	141		
	46 – 55	16	64		
	≥56	8	38		
Education	Up to High School	15	0.956	0.302	Not Sig
	Intermediate	15	122		
	Bachelor	18	93		
	Master and Above	5	40		
Entrepreneurial Experience (in Years)	≤ 5	17	(0.907)	0.045	Sig at 5%
	6 – 10	10	79		
	11 – 15	14	97		
	16 – 20	6	59		
	≥21	6	36		
Marital Status	Unmarried	11	(0.977)	0.252	Not Sig
	Married	42	269		
Professional Training	Trainings were not taken	8	(0.981)	0.375	Not Sig
	Trainings were taken	45	251		
Feasibility Study of Business	F Study made	21	(0.958)	0.259	Not Sig
	F Study is not	32	215		
Exporting Product	Not exporting	21	(0.953)	0.000	Sig at 5%
	Exporting	32	106		

It was earlier proposed in the methodology that significance level would be set at 5%. Though in case of variations due to the nature of the study up to 10% was defined agreeable.

Bivariate analysis in table 7.46 shows that Age is significant at 10% level of significance. Similarly, Entrepreneurial Experience, Exporting products are significant at 5% and 1% level of significant respectively. Therefore, these three variables are selected for developing model under logistic regression.

Table 7.47 Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	20.873	3	.000
	Block	20.873	3	.000
	Model	20.873	3	.000
-2 Log likelihood			Nagelkerke R Square	
282.504			.298	

Table 7.47 presents the result of Omnibus test of model and model summary. The model is well fitted while taking Age, Experience and Exporting Products. So, simultaneous relationship between dependent and all independent variables exists in the fitted model. Nagelkerke R Square shows that 29.8 percent of variation in Women Entrepreneurial Success is explained by Age, Experience and Exporting Product.

Equation under Logistic model

$$\text{Women Entrepreneurial Success} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{ Age} + \beta_2 \text{ Experience} + \beta_3 \text{ Exporting Product} + \epsilon_i$$

Or,

$$\text{Women Entrepreneurial Success} = \alpha + \beta_{11} \text{ Age1} + \beta_{12} \text{ Age 2} + \beta_{13} \text{ Age 3} + \beta_{21} \text{ Exp1} + \beta_{22} \text{ Exp 2} + \beta_{23} \text{ Exp 3} + \beta_{24} \text{ Exp4} + \beta_{31} \text{ Not exporting product} + \epsilon_i$$

Table 7.48: Logistic Regression Analysis Table

Variables / Category	β Coefficient	P-value	Odds ratio	95% C.I. for Odds Ratio	
				Lower	Upper
Age group in years:					
≤ 35	1.146	0.058	3.144	0.962	10.273
36 – 45	0.119	0.068	1.019	0.398	2.611
46 – 55	-0.263	0.604	0.769	0.285	2.076
≥56	Ref.		1		
Experience in years:					
≤ 5	-1.064	0.054	0.345	0.117	1.019
6 – 10	0.044	0.939	1.045	0.337	3.241
11 – 15	-0.095	0.862	0.91	0.312	2.65
16 – 20	0.271	0.669	1.312	0.379	4.544
≥21	Ref.		1		
Exporting Product:					
Not exporting product	-1.088	0.001	0.337	0.179	0.632
Exporting product	Ref.		1		
Constant	3.459	0	31.78		

Age was one of the variables that determined the success of women entrepreneurs. The study takes women entrepreneur that are more than 56 years old as reference age and assumes that women entrepreneur who are more than 56 years old are more successful. Table 8.2 shows that women entrepreneurs that are less than 35 years old are three time more likely to be successful than reference age. This can mean that women entrepreneurs in their early thirties have more drive to be successful.

The study also assumes that women entrepreneurs that have more years of experience in business are more successful. Women entrepreneurs that have more than 21 years of experience are taken as reference point for this study. Table 8.2 shows that women entrepreneurs that have less than 5 years of experience are only .3 time more likely to be successful than the reference age. Similarly women entrepreneurs who have 16-20 years of experience are 1.3 time more likely to be successful than reference point.

This shows that experience in business operation plays an important role in determining the success of women entrepreneurs.

Similarly, the study assumes women who export their products to international market are more successful than those who do not export their products. Based on the table 8.1, women entrepreneurs who do not export their products are only .3 time more likely to be successful than the women entrepreneurs who export their products. So, exporting capability determines the success of women entrepreneurs.

Conclusion

This chapter studies the intricacies of women entrepreneurship in Nepal. It looked at the problem encountered during startup of business, after startup of business, understanding of government policies, factors affecting business operations, use of managerial tools for business, etc.

Overall, women entrepreneurs face the problem of getting working capital and managerial problem during the startup of business. Marketing and labor problems are the most problematic for women entrepreneurs after the startup of business. The knowledge of the government policies and procedure was very low among the women entrepreneurs. Most significant factors affecting business operation was mortgage requirement and access to financial institution.

Age, education, family size and training had little or no impact on the problems faced by women entrepreneurs during or after the startup of business. It also had very little impact on the understanding of government policies. Even the highly educated women had very little understanding of government policies regarding their business.

Looking at the women entrepreneurship success model, this study showed that success of women entrepreneurship depended on three factors i.e. age, experiences and capability of exporting products.

CHAPTER- VIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Summary

Entrepreneurship is considered a most important ingredient for economic development of a country. This is only possible only through the promotion of business and industries throughout the country. Entrepreneurs help national economy in many ways such as providing jobs, conducting business, creating and participating in entrepreneurial network, investing in priority based projects. The country's economic development can be enhanced through optimal utilization of its human resources in economic activities. Currently human resources development is a key issue in Nepal. There is an urgent need to increase general literacy and technical and managerial skill level of population which is at present growing at a rate of 1.35 percent per annum (Census, 2011). A skill labor force, whether, it may be men or women, is essential if the economy is to keep pace with the fast growth of the population and provide higher living standards in the future. In Nepal women who constitute more than half of the total population of the country, are less privileged in many instances than men in many instances such as education, health etc. (Tuladhar, 1996).

Today national need is to maximize women's participation in economic activities and there by improve the economy of the country (Tambunam, 2009). The concept of developing women entrepreneurship lays emphasis on the utilization of women labor force productively there by increasing general income and output. However, Women entrepreneurship development path is not easy. There are numbers of challenges and problems that hinder the path of development. The National Workshop on "Women in Cottage and Small Industries" held at Kathmandu in 1994 organized by SBPP, has identified the various constraints faced by the women entrepreneurs. These are (a) lack of managerial skill (b) inadequate level of technology (c) lack of skilled labour (d) difficulty in marketing and distribution (e) financial problem (f) difficulty of getting loans/ credit from financial institution.

The general scenario indicates that women's participation in entrepreneurship development is quite low mainly because of socio-economic and cultural structure of the country (Tuladhar, 1996). Exposure of women in Nepal is still not permitted by socio-cultural norms and they are confined in nourishing the domestic activities only. Various studies have shown that women are better managers if they get the opportunity, they can create jobs for themselves and others (Shah, 1991). But it may not be true unless we mobilize and motivate them properly encouraging them to undertake the role of entrepreneurship in economic activities. In this respect, despite negligible exposure in economic activities there are legal obstructions which discourage women's leadership from running the enterprises. Bajracharya (2003) had explicitly stated that acts and policies do not ensure smooth establishment and operation of business if there is lack of clarity and adequate transparency. Bajracharya (2004) had observed that the prevailing policy of the government is not very encouraging to the MSE sector. The laws and regulation generally cover only industrial enterprises and do not cover enterprises in other sectors especially for women entrepreneurs.

Similarly, it is also essential to assess the financing and promotional role of different institution in developing women entrepreneurship. The support and participation of family members in upbringing women entrepreneurs have to be judged seriously especially in the context of Nepalese socio-cultural structure. In order to sustain the economic activities, the performance of the entities undertaken by women entrepreneurs is to be evaluated in terms of its economic and financial viability. This study is intended to answer the above mentioned questions related to women entrepreneurship development.

The overriding purpose of this study was to identify the attitudinal, institutional and environmental factors for the promotion and development of women entrepreneurs in Nepal. One of the major area the study looked into was the management style of business by women entrepreneur. Various studies have shown that women are better manager; if they get opportunities, they can create job for themselves and others. Even though the leadership potential of women is very high, these potentials are hidden due to social cultural norms and economic constraints.

Study also examined the intricacies of women entrepreneurship in Nepal. There are various challenges that women entrepreneur face during and after starting their

business. This study tries to look into those factors. Many studies have repeatedly emphasized that one of the main constraints faced by women is the lack of financial support for business creation and operation. Women cannot take any financial decision without the consideration of the family members. Most of the enterprises run by women are established with low capital investment and fixed as well as working capital investments are not enough for the smooth operation of the business. Lack of access to credit has been an important limitation on women to establish and expand their business because women do not possess any tangible security to get credit.

Third objective of this study was to examine the various attributes of women entrepreneurs and its impact on the choice of business venture to operate, ownership style of business, source of startup funds etc. The fourth objective of the study was to examine the support provided by various government and non-government institution for the promotion of women entrepreneurship in Nepal.

This study has used primary and secondary data to support the analysis in different aspects. Primary data has been collected through a set of questionnaire and interviews of women entrepreneurs. Out of 400 distributed questionnaires 368 replies were collected. Most of the questionnaires were collected in trade fair organized by FNCCI, DCSI, WEAN in Kathmandu and Lalitpur. The primary data has been considered as the main basis of information. Secondary data are also used to support the primary data. The population of this research is registered members of women entrepreneurs within the DSCI, FNCCI, FWEAN, Nepal Chamber of Commerce, Trade Association. etc. Most of the variables have been presented in bi-variate table. Frequencies of response with their relative percentage, missing system, valid percentage as well as their cumulative percentage were computed along with the mean value. Chi-square values were also computed to check the associations and differences among variables.

8.2 Major Findings

Major findings can be divided into 3 sections based on the objectives of the study:

Influence of Personal attributes of Women entrepreneurs in Business development

Under this objective, the study looked at whether personal characteristics of the women entrepreneur like age, education, training taken, family background etc. has any influence on the type of venture undertaken, legal ownership of business undertaken, source of start-up fund obtained and various support received to initiate business.

Overall, most of the women entrepreneur were involved in manufacturing sector, were involved in sole proprietorship, borrowed money from their relatives/friends instead of banks or other financial institution and for married women husband were their greatest supporter and for unmarried women entrepreneurs their parent were their greatest supporter.

Age, education, marital status had no influence with the type of business venture undertaken. However, business experience, family size, parental occupation, type of training taken had some influence on the type of business venture undertaken.

Age, education, business experience, marital status, family size, parental occupation and type of training taken had no influence on the legal ownership status of the business. Most women entrepreneurs preferred sole proprietorship irrespective of all the variable looked at.

Age, education, business experience, marital status, family size, parental occupation, type of training taken had no influence on the source of start-up fund. Most women entrepreneurs borrowed money from their relatives/friends instead of banks or other financial institution.

Education, family size, type of training taken had no association with the various supports received to initiate business. However, age, experience, marital status and parental occupation had some association with the support to initiate business.

Influence of personal attributes of Women Entrepreneur in the management of enterprise

Management style of women entrepreneurs were examined. The study looked at whether age, education, training and family size had any influence on their asset, working capital and personnel management methods, their purpose of business, vision to start their business and their views on their major accomplishment.

Overall, most women entrepreneurs rented the land and building that they use for their business and they used their own equity to buy the machinery and equipment needed. Very few used the combination of debt and equity to acquire the necessary equipment to run the business.

Women entrepreneurs consulted various institutions before starting their business. Most of them took help from the Department of Industry whereas some visited banks and financial institutions to get some help in capital formation. Most of the business ideas were generated by observing the market and accessing the demand of the products and services. Most women entrepreneurs wanted to market their products overseas or to tourists and their main objective were to make Nepali products known in the international market. Almost half of the women entrepreneurs got involved in business to get involved in something rather than remaining idle and gain economic freedom.

Four variables: age, education, family size and training had no or very little effect on asset management, working capital management and personnel management. Educated women visited banks and other financial institutions to seek financial assistance and they were also more willing to visit industrial seminars to get business ideas. Trained women were more concerned about providing employment to people and making better quality product that could be marketed in international market. Their major goal was to be a star in their business and to be known nationally and internationally.

Intricacies of Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal

Intricacies of women entrepreneurship in Nepal was examined. The study looked at the problem encountered during startup of business, after startup of business, understanding of government policies, factors affecting business operations, use of managerial tools for business, etc.

Overall, women entrepreneurs face the problem of getting working capital and managerial problem during the startup of business. Marketing and labor problems were the most problematic for women entrepreneurs after the startup of business. The knowledge of the government policies and procedure was very low among the women entrepreneurs. Most significant factors affecting business operation was mortgage requirement and access to financial institution. Besides these problems faced there were other observation made during the study some of them are:

- Entrepreneurship development training, financial training was taken by entrepreneur but did not helped them to overcome the problem of getting capital. It may be that those women entrepreneurs do not get a chance to apply what they learn in the training in practice.
- Women entrepreneurs with higher education do not necessarily have more knowledge about different aspects of business before entering into business than less educated women entrepreneurs.
- Product quality and market research was given more attention during the initial period of business. Statistics showed that women entrepreneurs had high knowledge about product or services before entering the business. Similarly knowledge about market was also high.
- Marketing planning, financial planning and product assessment were the most often used managerial tools. Strategic planning was the least often used managerial tool.
- Women entrepreneur spent most amount of time on networking and least amount of time on financial management.

Age, education, family size and training had little or no impact on the problems faced by women entrepreneurs during or after the startup of business. It also had very little impact on the understanding of government policies. Even the highly educated women had very little understanding of government policies regarding their business.

Institutional Support provided by the Government

The study looked at the institutional support available in the country to promote women entrepreneurship in Nepal. Government is implementing both women specific and general entrepreneurship development programs in the country. Since the

inception of the sixth plan (1980-1985), the Government of Nepal has focused its efforts on the development of women. The subsequent plans have also focused on the issues of women empowerment. Gender equality and equity together with the relevant reforms on acts and policies to conform to the government's commitment to the implementation of provision for women development, women empowerment and gender related convention and declaration of the United Nations, as well as AAARC and National Conventions, matching programs are being carried out. During the first three year interim plan (2007-2010) and second three year interim plan (2010-2013), various activities to empower women and their skill development were proposed and were implemented through relevant government and non-governmental institutions. To guarantee women's economic, social, financial and political rights, minimum of 33% women participations has been established as a working policy in the second three year interim plan. Second three year interim plan also focused on enhancement of women's employment capabilities by providing market oriented enterprise and skill enhancement training, together with providing micro finance facility to start or strengthen their business as well as providing access to market for their products. Lack of land and capital is holding women back to establish their own productive enterprise. Micro-credit project for women (MCPW), Rural Development Bank and credit operation of the NGO have been filling these types of gaps by performing the financing and promotional roles to help women set up viable productive units. Various entrepreneurial development activities are conducted by SBPP, IEDI, DCSI, CSCIDB, MEDEP and others INGOs and NGOs. These government and non-government organization have been providing entrepreneur education, training and helping women entrepreneur set up and manage their own business. Latest statistics show that total of 18,008 cottage and small scale industries were registered in FY 2011/2012. Capital investment in industry registered in FY 2011/2012 had reached NRs. 17.27 billion and number of employment generated was 1,20,288 peoples (Economy Survey 2012/2013). Small and cottage enterprise registered in the name of women was 2102 and the number of workers in enterprises was 5633 (Gender Static Report 2069). This number is higher than previous data and is expected to improve further. This indicates that lot more women entrepreneurship are being created every year and their cumulative impact on employment are significant. However, the study shows that despite the improvement in the number of women entrepreneurs, the current legal provision to promote women entrepreneurship is not implemented at its

fullest. Current political situation has been hampering the industrial development in the country which is also affecting small and cottage industries usually run by women entrepreneurs.

8.3 Conclusion

Women entrepreneurs in Nepal have a lot of legal, institutional, financial and management hurdles. The study shows that most women entrepreneur start their business during their thirties, were involved in manufacturing sector, were involved in sole proprietorship, borrowed money from their relatives/friends instead of banks or other financial institution. A study done by Rajani and Sarada (2008) in Andra Pradesh, India, found out that generally women think of business ideas in their thirties which is in line with our findings. A study done by Sinha (2003) showed that most of the women entrepreneurs are married women and they receive most help from their husband. This holds true with this study as well. Most women entrepreneurs are married and reported that they received most support from their husband. According to the study done by Le-Gosseline et al (1990), startup capital was most likely to come from personal and family savings, investors and partners and banks. This study shows that substantial proportion of the financing came from family savings as well as they were borrowed from friends or relatives. However there was evidence of only a small portion being borrowed from financial institution like banks. Similarly, a study done by Rajani and Sarada (2008) found that most of the women entrepreneurs were involved in business like purchase and sales of product. Many women were involved in service sector and only few were involved in manufacturing sector but this study showed that women entrepreneur were mostly involved in manufacturing sector.

The study also showed that most of the business ideas were generated by observing the market and accessing the demand of the products and services. Almost half of the women entrepreneurs got involved in business to get involved in something rather than remaining idle and gain economic freedom. The desire for empowerment leading to independence has worked as a strong driver for engagement in entrepreneurship. This finding was in line with the other studies done by various researchers. Collette et al. (1990) noted major motivation factor for women to go into business was the desire for autonomy (such as desire to be own boss, desire to be financially

independent and desire to increase self-esteem). Capowski (1992) felt that a strong desire to control their future and financial destinies had motivated women to start their own business. He stated that other motives for business ownership included self-determination, financial independence and belief in a “better way” of doing things. Gaining economic freedom and getting extra income for the family was one of the most important factors for women to get into entrepreneurship as per the finding of this study.

Another finding of the study was that the most significant factors affecting business operation are mortgage requirement, getting working capital and access to financial institutions. This finding is in line with the study done by Lee-Gosselin et al, (1990). Their study indicated that the most frequent problems encountered by women entrepreneur were lack of confidence from banks, suppliers and clients, lack of start-up capital and family problems. Klein (1993) in his study also observed the problem of getting business credit and access to financial institution as the major problem for women entrepreneurs.

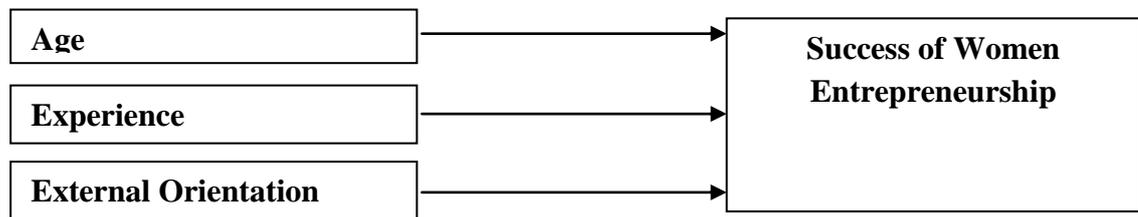
Similarly, lack of managerial experience during the startup of business was a major challenge for most women entrepreneurs. Additionally, marketing and labor problems were most problematic for women entrepreneurs after the startup of business. Women entrepreneurs also lacked the understanding of government policies and procedures which create complications in smooth operation of the business. These finding are in line with other research findings from around the world. A research done by Cham(2011) found that the common challenge faced by women entrepreneur while starting their business was access to credit and human capital, management and technical skills and the hiring and training of competent staffs during growth phase. Similarly, a study by Singh & Belwal (2008) found that women entrepreneurs in developing countries encountered problems in the areas of securing finance, lack of entrepreneurial and management competence and exposure, limited amount of government and institutional support; absence of technological know-how and integration mechanism; and rampant corruption in an undisguised or disguised form.

The study showed that the success of women entrepreneur depended on 3 factors i.e. age, experience and exporting of products. The study showed that women entrepreneurs perceived themselves to be more successful during their mid-30s. Women below the age of 35 were three times more likely to be successful than the

older entrepreneur. Similarly, Women entrepreneur with more than six years of experience running business were more likely to be successful and women entrepreneur who exported their products to foreign market were perceived to be more successful. Exporting capability determined the success of women entrepreneurs as well.

Surprisingly the study does not show level of education as one of the success factor as various studies in the past have shown. Bates (1990), in his study found that highly educated entrepreneurs were likely to create firms that remained in operation. Osirimi (1990) also cited similar results that high levels of educational attainment led to successful entrepreneurship. But this study showed education did not help women entrepreneurs in Kathmandu, Nepal a lot during or after the startup of business. Highly educated women also faced contradictory challenges of understanding government policies, understanding business processes or doing research as any other less educated counterparts. It had little or no impact on their choice of business, legal setup of business and their preference of startup capital.

Success of Women Entrepreneurship



Hence, age, experience and external orientation (in terms of their linkage for export promotion of their products) mainly explained the success of Nepalese women entrepreneurship.

8.4 Practical Implications

- Lack of easy access to credit is the biggest hurdle to women entrepreneurship. Most women entrepreneurs feel that lack of capital is the biggest problem that they face during the startup of their business. So it is necessary to encourage women entrepreneur to take loan. They need to be made aware of the potential benefits of taking loan from cooperative and various finance companies. Even bank personnel need to be trained to help them understand about the needs and problems faced by women entrepreneur. Banks should also simplify their

banking procedure. Currently most women entrepreneurs feel that going to bank and filling out all the paperwork is a big hassle. A special credit program should also be launched by the government to provide easy access to credit for women entrepreneur.

- Marketing their product was one of the biggest hurdles faced by women entrepreneur. Various workshop or training needs to be provided to women entrepreneur regularly so that they can understand how to market their products to get the best result.
- Technologies are changing rapidly and women entrepreneurs need to keep up to date. Various training programs that provide information about various new technologies that can be adopted in business should be provided in regular interval. Women entrepreneurs also need to be made aware about the potential benefit of using automation and other technology in business.
- Business registration process is very complex in Nepal. There is not a particular place where women entrepreneurs can get all the information needed to register their business. An online platform can be created that has all the rules, regulation, policies, and procedure of business registration in one place. Women entrepreneurs can also be given training about the processes of business registration.
- Fulltime services of professional should be made available by various supporting agencies or government since women entrepreneur running small and cottage industry cannot afford to pay. Support given by professionals can help women entrepreneurship grow. It can be a huge morale boost.

8.5 Implications for Further Studies

- Current study only focuses on cottage size enterprise registered with FNCCI. So, future studies should also focus upon the entrepreneur of medium and large scale enterprise as well.
- Current study does not look at the financial performance of the business operated by women entrepreneur. Future studies should look at whether training, age, education has any effect on the financial performance of the enterprise.

- Research needs to be conducted using performance based data like sales, profit, growth, etc.
- Successful and unsuccessful business run by women entrepreneurs can be studied and based on that study a comparison of the working style, education level, training, support, etc can be studied which can give an idea about the success and failure factor.
- A study which deals with how entrepreneurship has empowered women entrepreneurs. How has their social and economic status changed?
- A study on the social implication of women entrepreneurship can be conducted.
- This study does not cover how policy changes affect business run by women entrepreneurs, so a study can be done which compares performance based data with the policy changes.

Questionnaires of Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal

Part: One

Demographic Information:

1. Age:
 - a. Below 25 Years
 - b. 26 - 35 Years
 - c. 36 - 45 Years
 - d. 46 - 55 Years
 - e. above 56 Years

2. Level of education:
 - a. Just literate
 - b. SLC pass
 - c. Intermediate (10+2) pass
 - d. Bachelors pass
 - e. Mastered and above pass

3. How long are you involving in entrepreneurships?
 - a. Less than five years
 - b. Six to ten years
 - c. Eleven to fifteen years
 - d. Sixteen to twenty years
 - e. More than twenty one years

4. Marital status: (at the time of starting of business)
 - a. Married
 - b. Unmarried
 - c. Divorced
 - d. Widow

Part: Two

Characteristics of Women Entrepreneurs

5. Family type:
 - a. Single Family
 - b. Joint Family

6. What type of business you are in?
 - a. Manufacturing
 - b. Services
 - Hotel and Restaurant
 - Travel Agency
 - Consulting
 - Educational Institute
 - Beauty Parlour
 - Interior Designing
 - E services
 - Others (specify)
 - c. Trading
 - Retail
 - Wholesale

- d. Others (specify)
7. Parental occupation (at the time of starting business)
- a. Agriculture []
 - b. Manufacturing business []
 - c. Trading business []
 - d. Government services []
 - e. Private services []
8. What is the legal ownership status of the establishment?
- a. Sole ownership
 - b. Partnership
 - c. Corporation
 - d. Cooperative
 - e. If any (please specify) _____
9. What was your main source of start-up funding?
- a. Personal saving
 - b. Household
 - c. Borrowed from relatives or friends/money lenders
 - d. Financial institutions
 - e. Others (specify)
10. Are you a member of any associations of women entrepreneurs?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
11. Have you undergone any professional training?
- a. Yes []
 - b. No []
- 11 a. If yes, what sort of training did you take?
- a. Business related skill development
 - b. Entrepreneurship development
 - c. Financing and Accounting
 - d. Marketing and Sales
 - e. Business Administration
 - f. Computer and IT
 - g. If any please specify

12. Who had supported to actualize your interest in this sector?

Options	To initiate the business	To solve the problems
Husband		
Father/ Mother		
Father in Laws/Mother in Laws		
Brother/Sisters		
Other Relatives		
Friends		

13. How have you managed the following assets?

Area	Equity	Borrowing	Both	Rented
Land/Building				
Machine/Equipment				
Furniture				
Other assets				
Working capital				

- d. Transportation []
- e. Labor []
- f. Raw Materials []
- g. Other (if any)...
22. Which of the following institutions did you personally visit before initiating your business?
- a. Bank / FIs [] b. Dept of Industry []
- c. FNCCI [] d. Machine suppliers []
- e. Others (Please specify).....
23. How did you develop vision to involve in the business/ industry? Choose one or more if appropriate.
- a. Internal curiosity []
- b. Self Confidence []
- c. Participating in industrial seminar []
- d. Inspiration from family members []
- e. Inspiration from other persons involving in business []
- f. Demonstration effect []
24. What was major /critical information that you collected before starting the business? Choose one or more if appropriate.
- a. Product's market []
- b. Products technical aspects []
- c. Financial Provision []
- d. Competitor's situation []
- e. If any (please specify)... []
25. How did you identify your business to start with?
- a. Market Survey []
- b. Generate ideas on new product/ services by own self []
- c. Generate ideas on the product/services with the help of others []
26. Did you conduct feasibility study of your business before starting the business?
- a. Yes []
- b. No []
27. What is the purpose of your venture? Choose one or more if appropriate.
- a. To introduce Nepali products in international market []
- b. To substitute imports []
- c. To provide employment opportunities to the people []
- d. To utilize the resources []
- e. If any (please specify...) []
28. What do you want to accomplish with the business? Choose one or more if appropriate.
- a. To make a large profit []
- b. To be star in the business field []
- c. To make involved in the certain task []
- e. If any (please specify...) []

29. To what extent did you know the following aspects of your business before involving in it? (Specify in the continuum very Low to Moderate to Vey High in the scale of 1,2,3,4,5)

Area	Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
Technology	1	2	3	4	5
Market	1	2	3	4	5
Pricing	1	2	3	4	5
Product	1	2	3	4	5

30. To what extent did you understand the government's policy before initializing your business?

Area	Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
Fiscal Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Monetary Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Industrial Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Trade Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Labor Policy	1	2	3	4	5

31. To what extent did you think that the following policies have an effect upon business operation?

Area	Not significant at all	Significant to some extent	Moderate	Significant	Very Significant
Fiscal Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Monetary Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Industrial Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Trade Policy	1	2	3	4	5
Labor Policy	1	2	3	4	5

32. To what extent did you think that the following economic factors have an effect upon business operation?

Area	Not significant at all	Significant to some extent	Moderate	Significant	Very Significant
Cost of borrowing	1	2	3	4	5
Transaction costs	1	2	3	4	5
Mortgage requirement	1	2	3	4	5
Access to financial institution	1	2	3	4	5

33. Did you face any problem while making contact with these institutions?

Area	Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
Dept of Industry	1	2	3	4	5
Financial Institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Private Agencies	1	2	3	4	5
Technical Institutions	1	2	3	4	5
	1	2	3	4	5

34. Did you encounter frustrating experience during the initial phase of your business?

Quite often None
 1 2 3 4 5

35. If you had faced the problems how did you solve it?

- a. By oneself b. By friends
 c. By family d. By counseling with others
 e. All of them

36. Did you visit abroad in the context of business operation before starting your business?

- a. Yes b. No

37. Where did you visit? Name the countries you visited?

.....

38. What specific factor did you know in visiting these countries?

- a. Technical aspects of the product
 b. Marketing aspects of the product
 c. Linkage with other countries
 d. If any (Please specify)...

39. When you started your business, which of the following aspects did you pay more attention (please rank 1-5)

- a. Product Quality
 b. Product Price
 c. Products market
 d. Personnel
 e. Finance

40. Did you hire professional managers for your business?

- a. Yes
 b. No
 If yes how many and in which sector?

41. To what extent did you face the problem in the areas below after starting the business?

Areas	Very Low	Low	moderate	High	Very High
Technical aspect of product					
Marketing of the product					
Raw materials					
Technical Personnel					
Technology					

42. To what extent do you use following managerial tools?

Area	Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
Strategic Planning					
Financial Planning					
Marketing Planning					
Product assessment					

43. How much time do you allocate in the following areas of your business? (Allocate time in percentage)

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------|
| a. Networking with others | [] |
| b. Marketing and Sales | [] |
| c. Production and Operation | [] |
| d. Supervision and Control | [] |
| e. Planning | [] |
| f. Financial Management | [] |
| | 100% |

44. Do you export your product?

- a. Yes []
b. No []

If yes, which are those countries?.....

45. Do you know your customer?

- a. Yes []
b. No []

If yes, they are,

- i) Local%
ii) International%

46. Do you consider your entrepreneurship successful?

Very Successful Successful Moderately Successful Less Successful

Very Less Successful

47. Which are the strengths and weakness of your products? Please indicate appropriate ones.

Features of Products	Strengths	Weakness
Product Durability		
Product Appearance		
Consistency in quality		
Product Price		
Product Availability		
Others (specify)		

48. What is the major strength of your business? (Please rank 1 to 6)

Features of Products	Strengths	Weakness
Product itself		
Your commitment		
Technology adopted		
Employees commitment		
Market		
Financial soundness of your business		

49. Please read each of the factors of your business and then put a tick mark (√) under the choices below.

Performance Indicators	Highly Increasing (2)	Slightly Increasing (1)	No change (0)	Slightly Decreasing (-1)	Highly Decreasing (-2)
Sales Turnover					
Market Share					
Profit					
No. of Employees					

50. Please read each of the factors of your business and then put a tick mark (√) under the choices below.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a) My business is better than the similar business operated by males					
b) Women are more successful than male to do business					
c) Business run by women are easily accepted by society than the business run by male					
d) Women face more problems than male to do business					
e) Women entrepreneurs are good managers					

51. What do you think of the critical success factors of women entrepreneurs?

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. Hard work | <input type="checkbox"/> | b. Quality/Variety of products | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c. Management/ marketing skills | <input type="checkbox"/> | d. Uniqueness of design | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e. Family/ Spousal support | <input type="checkbox"/> | f. Perseverance/ Determination | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| g. Others (specify)..... | | | |

Thank You!

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abor, J. & Biekpe, N. (2006). SME's access to debt finance: a comparison between male-owned and female-owned business in Ghana. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*: 105-112.
- Adams, G. A., King, L. A. & King, D. W. (1996). Relationship of job and family involvement, family social support and work family conflict with job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(4), 411–420.
- Ademokun, F. & Ajayi, O. (2012). Entrepreneurship Development, Business Ownership and Women empowerment in Nigeria. *Journal of Business Diversity*, 12(1): 72-85
- Adeyemi, S. L. (2004). The characteristics of Successful Nigerian Women Entrepreneurship. *Gender Discourse*, Vol 1, No.1.
- Adhikari, K. B. (1996). Industrial Development in Nepal. *Industrial Digest*, 1(1).
- Adhikari, M. (1997). Women Entrepreneurship in Small Scale industries in Nepal. Unpublished Master Degree thesis submitted to Tribhuvan University.
- Akingunola, R. & Onayemi, S. (2010). The Role of Informal Finance in the Development of Women in Micro-Business in Nigeria: A Case Study of Ogun and Oyo States. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 2 (5): 331-338.
- Allen, I. E., Elam, A., Langowitz, N. & Dean, M. (2007). Report on women and entrepreneurship. Retrived from www.google.com
- Amha, W., & Ademassie, A. (2004). Rural financial intermediation program and its role in strengthening the rural financial system in Ethiopia. *Journal of Microfinance Development Review*, 3(2), 230–365.
- Anderson, A. & Miller, C. (2003). Class matters: human and social capital in the entrepreneurial process. *The Journal of Socio – Economics*, 32, pp. 17-36.
- Anitha, H. S. & Lakxmisha, A. (1999). Women entrepreneurs. *Southern Economist*, 38(9), 1–9.

- Anwar & Rashid, Gul (2006). Entrepreneurship. A review of the literature and proposed conceptual framework. 2nd International Conference on Business Management (ISBN: 978-969-9368-06-6)
- Assad, R. (2006). Employment and Unemployment Dynamics. Paper prepared for the Egypt Labor Market Panel Survey, Dissemination Conference, Cairo.
- Austin, J., Stevenson, H. & Wei-Skillern, J. (2006). Social and Commercial Entrepreneurship: Same, Different or Both?. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30: 1–22.
- Aylward, E. (2007). Traditional and Non Traditional Female Entrepreneurship: An exploration. Retrieved 12 August 2012, from www.google.com
- Ayyadurai, S. (2006). An insight into the constraints faced by women entrepreneurs in a war-torn area: case study of the northeast of Sri Lanka. *Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability*. Retrieved 25 November 2010, from http://findarticles.com/P/articles/mi_qa5499/is_200607/ai_n21407208/
- Bailey, C. L. (2011). African-American Female Entrepreneurs: What motivates them to pursue Entrepreneurism. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Pepperdine University, School of Psychology
- Bajracharya, P. (2007). *Regional Development Strategy*. Kathmandu:ADB-NPC.
- Bajracharya, P., Maharjan, B. & Parajuli, B. R., (2003): Micro and Small Enterprises Policy Review in Nepal, Assessment of the MSE Sector (project Component II). Kathmandu: MEDEP/ILO.
- Barnett, R. (1998). Towards a review and reconceptualization of the work/family literature. *Genetic, Social and General Psychology Monographs*, 124, 1–50.
- Basu, A. & Virick, M. (2012). Assessing entrepreneurial intentions among students: A comparative study. Available at <http://nciia.org/conf08/assets/pub/basu2.pdf>
- Bates, T. (1990). Entrepreneur Human Capital Inputs and Small Business Longevity. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 72 (4):551-559
- Bekele J. P. (2008). Women entrepreneurship in micro, small and medium enterprises: the case of Ethiopia. *Journal of International Women's Study*. Bridgewater, 10(2): 3-17.

- Berik, G. & Bilginsoy, C. (2002). Unions and women's training for the skilled trades in the United States. *Review of Black Political Economy*, (29)(4): 97–122.
- Bertaux, N., & Crable, E. (2007). Learning about women. Economic development, entrepreneurship and the environment in India: A case study. *Journal of Development Entrepreneurship*. Norfolk, 12(4): 467-12.
- Bhardwaj, G. N., Parashar, S., Pandey, B. & Sahu, P. (2011). Women Entrepreneurship in India: Opportunity and Challenges. *CHIMC*, Vol 2, issue 7.
- Bhargava S. (2007). *Towards Entrepreneurship Development Aspects of Entrepreneurship*. New Delhi: Sage Publication.
- Bharti, K. & Parikh, I. J. (2005). A Reflection of the Indian Women in Entrepreneurial World, Research Publication Institute of Management, Ahmedabad India, Working Paper No. 205.
- Bhattarai, M. P. (1986). Entrepreneurship Development Programmes in Nepal: A Case Study of the Small Business Promotion Project. Unpublished Master Degree Thesis. Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu.
- Bhuvaneshwari, P. & Annapoorani K. (2013). Prospects and Challenges of Women Entrepreneurship with Specific Reference to Dalits. *International Journal of Research in Commerce and Management*, 4 (1).
- Bista, N. B. & Shrestha, B. K. (2000). Entrepreneurship and Development in SMEs in Nepal: Challenges & Opportunity, *Economics Journal of Development Issues*, 1 (2), July-December, Patan Multiple Campus (TU), Lalitpur.
- Blim, M. (2001). Italian women after development employment, entrepreneurship and domestic work in the third Italy. *History of the Family*, 6, 57–270.
- Bohle, P., & Tilley, A. J. (1989). The impact of night work on psychological well-being. *Ergonomics*, 32, 1089–1099.
- Bohle, P., Quinlan, M., Kennedy, D., & Williamson, A. (2004). Working hours, work-life conflict and health in precarious and permanent employment. *Revista De Saúde Publica*, 38, 19–25.
- Botha M., Nieman, G. H., Van-Vuuren J. J. (2006). Evaluating the women entrepreneurship training programme: a South African study. *International*

Indigenous Journal of Entrepreneurship, Advance Strategic Education, Tauranga, 2(1): 1-16.

- Bowen, D. D., & Hisrich, R. D. (1986). The Female Entrepreneur: A Career Development Perspective. *Academy of Management Review*.
- Brand, S., Hermann, B., Muheim, F., Beck, J. & Tranchsler, E. H. (2008). Strain among young students in hospitality and tourism. *Industrial Health*, 46, 199–209.
- Brockhaus, R. H. & Howrwitz, P. S. (1986). The psychology of the entrepreneur, in D.L. Sexton and R.W. Smith (eds.), *The Art and Science of Entrepreneurship*, Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Brownell, J., Goldsmith, M. (2006). Meeting the competency needs of global leaders: A partnership approach. *Human Resource Management*, 45(3): 309-336.
- Bruin, A. D, Brush, C. & Welter, F. (2007). Advancing framework coherent research on women's entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(3), 323-339.
- Bruin, A. D.; Brush, C. & Welter, F. (2007). Advancing framework coherent research on women's entrepreneurship: 323-339.
- Brush, C. G. (1992). Research on women business owners: Past trends, a new perspective and future directions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16, 5 p30.
- Bushell, B. (2008). Women entrepreneurs in Nepal: what prevents them from leading the sector? *Gender and Development*, 16 : 549-564.
- Buttne, E. H. & Moore, D. P. (1997). Women's organizational exodus to entrepreneurship: Self-reported motivations and correlates with success. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 34-46.
- Canadian Imperial Bank of Commerce (CIBC). (2004). Women entrepreneurs: leading the charge. Retrieved 2 December 2010, from <http://www.cibc.com/ca/pdf/women-entrepreneurs-en.pdf>
- Candida, B.; Nancy, C.; Elizabeth, G. & Patricia, G. (2001). *The Diana Project, Women Business Owners and Equity Capital The Myths Dispelled*. Kauffman Report.

- Cantillon, R., Essai S. L., *Nature du Commerce in General (Essay on the Nature of Trade in General)*. Henry Higgs, ed. And trans. 1959.
- Capowski, Genevieve S. (1992). Be your Own Boss? Millions of Women Get Down To Business. *Management Review*, 81 (24-30)
- Carter, Nancy M., Candida G. Brush, Patricia G., Greene, Elizabeth Gatewook & Myre M. Hart, 2003. Women Entrepreneurs Who Break Through to Equity Financing: The Influence of Human, Social and Financial Capital, *Venture Capital*, 5 (1), 1-28.
- CBS .(2011).*Census report (Nepal) 2011*. Kathamandu:CBS
- CEDA (Centre for Economic Development and administration) (1981), *The Rural Women of Nepal: An Aggregate Analysis, Summary of Eight Village Studies*, Kathmandu, Nepal.
- Cham, I. (2011). Challenges Faced by Female Entrepreneurs Within Small and Medium Enterprise (SME's): A study of salon business in Ghana.
- Chamlou, N. (2008). *The Environment of Women's Entrepreneurship in the Middle East and North Africa Region*. Washington DC: The World Bank,
- Chotkan, R. (2009). Female entrepreneurship: Surinamese Women Acting Entrepreneurial.
- CIA world factbook: Nepal, Retrieved 30 July 2012.
- Clark, S. C. (2000). Work/family border theory: A new theory of work-life balance. *Human Relations*, 53(6), 7470–7770.
- Cochran, T., C. (1965), *The Entrepreneurship in Economics Change, Exploration in Entrepreneurship History*, Fall, London: The McMillan Co.
- Cohoon, J. M.; Wadhwa, V. & Mitchell, L. (2010). The Anatomy of an Entrepreneur- Are Successful Women Entrepreneurs Different From Men? *The foundation of entrepreneurship*.
- Cole, A. H. (1949), *Entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurial History in Change and the Entrepreneur, Prepared by the research center in Entrepreneurial History*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Coleman, L. (2009). Being Alone Together: From Solidarity to Solitude in Urban Anthropology. *Anthropological Quarterly*: 755–77.

- Collerette, P. and Aubry, Paul G. (1990). Socio-Economic Evolution of women Business Owners in Quebec. *Journal of Business Ethics (Netherlands)*, 9 (4,5): 417-422.
- Collin, O.F. & Moore, D.G. (1970), *The Organization Makers*. New York: Applenton-Century-Crofts.
- Cook, L. (2009). Rebuilding Russia's Population: The State, Mothers, and Markets. Paper presented at the Pembroke Seminar, Brown University, Providence, RI.
- Cooper, A. C., Folta, T. Gimeno-Gascon, F. J. & Woo, C. Y. (1992). Entrepreneurs, process of founding, and new firm performance, in
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2007). *Business research methods*. New Delhi, India: Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Ltd.
- Dabic, M., Daim, T., Bayraktaroglu, E., Novak, I. & Basic, M. (2012). Exploring gender differences in attitudes of university students towards entrepreneurship: An international survey. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 4 (3), 316 – 336.
- Dabke, S., Salem, O., Genaidy, A., and Daraiseh, Nancy (2008). Job Satisfaction of Women in Construction Trades. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*: 205 -216.
- Dafna, K. (2008). Managerial performance and business success: Gender differences in Canadian and Israeli entrepreneurs, *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 2(4), 300-331.
- Das, M. (2000). Women entrepreneurs from India: Problems, motivations and success factors. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, 15(4), 67.
- Davidsson, P. (1989), *Continued Entrepreneurship and Small Firm Growth*, Stockholm School of Economics, The Economic Research Institute.
- Davidsson, P. (1989). Entrepreneurship and after? A study of growth willingness in small firms, *Journal of Business Venturing*, 4, 211-226.
- Deakins, D. & G. Whittam, (2000). *Business start-up: Theory and practice and policy*, in S. Carter and D.en Jones-Evans (eds.). Enterprise and Small Business, Essex;Pearson.

- Deere, C. D. and Cheryl R. D. (2006). The Gender Asset Gap: What Do We Know and Why Does It Matter? *Feminist Economics* 12 (1 & 2): 1–50.
- Delmar, F. & Davidsson, P. (2000). Where do they come from? Prevalence and characteristics of nascent entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 12, 1-23.
- Deshpandey, Sunil & Sethi, Sunita (2009), “Women entrepreneurship in India” International research Journal, Issu – 9-10 Oct.
- Dewey, S. (2009). Dear Dr. Kothari: Sexuality, Violence against Women, and the Parallel Public Sphere in India. *American Ethnologist*: 124–39.
- Dhakal, D. P. (2006), Women Empowerment through Micro-Enterprise Development Programme: A Case Study of Nuwakot District. Master Thesis submitted to Central Department of Rural Development. Tribhuvan University. Kathmandu. Nepal.
- Dileepkumar, M. (2006). Problems of women entrepreneurs in India. Retrieved 3 December 2010, from http://www.indianmba.com/Faculty_column/FC293/fc293.html
- Dixon, M. A., & Bruening, J. (2007). Work-family conflict I: A top-down perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*, 27, 377–406.
- Drucker, Peter (1985), *Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Practice and Principal*. London: Heinemann.
- Drucker, Peter F (1964), *Managing for Results*. New York: Harper and Row. p.5.
- Dube, L., & Palriwala, R. (1990). Structures and strategies: Women, work and family. New Delhi: SAGE Publication.
- Dunlop, J. E., & Velkoff, V. A. (1999). Women and the economy in India (WID/98-2). US: Bureau of the Census.
- DuRietz, A. & Henrekson, M. (2000). Testing the female underperformance hypothesis, *Small Business Economics*, 14(1), 1 – 10.
- Dzisi, S. (2008). Entrepreneurial activities of indigenous African women: a case of Ghana, *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 2, (3), 254-264.

- Edmonds, A. (2007). The Poor Have the Right to Be Beautiful: Cosmetic Surgery in Neoliberal Brazil. *Journal of the Royal Anthropological Institute*, 363–81.
- Edwards, A. D. (2012). Women Entrepreneurs Access to Finance in the Developing World. Manchester.
- Ehrenreich, B. (2009). *Bright-Sided: How the Relentless Promotion of Positive Thinking is Undermining America*. New York: Metropolitan.
- Ellis, A. (2005). *Engendering Private Sector Development*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Evans, D. S. (1987). The Relationship between Firm Growth, Size and Age: Estimates for 100 Manufacturing Industries. *The Journal of Industrial Economics*, 35, 567-581.
- Faraha, N. (2009). Critical factors of women entrepreneurship development in rural Bangladesh. Rajshahi University, *Bangladesh Development Research Working: 5*.
- Fernandes, E. & Cabral C. (2006). The social stereotypes of the Portuguese female and male manager. *Women in Management Review*, Vol. 21 Iss: 2, pp.99 - 112
- Fernandes, E., and Carlos C (2006). “The Social Stereotypes of the.....
- Financial Sector and Sustainable Development in Nigeria at University of Ado – Ekiti from 8th – 10th
- Fisher, G. (2001). Work/personal life balance: A construct development study. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Bowling Green State University, Ohio. Work-life balance of women entrepreneurs 101
- FNCCI. (2009). Report on women entrepreneurship.
- Gadar, K., Yunus, N. (2009). The Influence of Personality and Socio-Economic Factors on Female Entrepreneurship Motivations in Malaysia. *International Review of Business Research papers* vol. 5 No.1: Page 149-162.
- Gallant, M., Majumdar, S. & Varadarajan, D. (2010). Outlook of female students towards entrepreneurship: An analysis of a selection of business students in Dubai. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues*, 3, 3, pp.218 – 230.

- Garland, J. W., Hoy, F., Boulton, W. R., & Garland, J. A. C. (1984). Differentiating entrepreneurs from small business owners: A conceptualization. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(2), 354–359.
- Gartner, W.B (1989), Who is an Entrepreneur? – is the Wrong Question, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, Vol. 13, No. 4.
- Gautam, Sumedha & Singh, Ashok Man (1994). Report on National Workshop in Cottage and Small Industries SBPP, Kathmandu.
- GEM Report (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor), 2007
- Ghosh, P., & Cheruvalath, R. (2007). Indian female entrepreneurs as catalysts for economic growth and development. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*: 139-148.
- Gibbs, G. (2007). Analyzing Qualitative Data. Part of the Qualitative Research Kit, Ed. U. Flick, London: Sage,.
- Giri, H. P. (1976). Contribution of Private Sector in Industrialization, (Audyogikiran Ma Niji Chhetra Ko Den) Udyog Banijya Patrika, Vol. 10 No. 7, Issue 132.
- Godwyn, M. (2009). This place makes me proud to be a women: Theoretical explanation for success in entrepreneurship education for low-income women. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 27(1), 50–64.
- Goffee, R., & Scase, R. (2008). *Women in Charge: The experience of Women Entrepreneurs*. London: George Allen and Unwin
- Goheer, N. A. (2002). *Women entrepreneurs in Pakistan: How to improve their bargaining power*. Geneva: ILO SEED.
- Goheer, N. A. (2003). Women entrepreneurs in Pakistan: How to improve their bargaining power. International Labour Office, Geneva and ILO South Asia Advisory Team (SAAT), New Delhi.
- Goodrum, P. M. (2003). Worker satisfaction and job preferences in the US construction industry. Proc., Construction Research Congress, March.
- Goyal, M. & Jai, P. (2011). Women Entrepreneurship in India – Problems and Prospects. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* Volume No. 1, Issue 5 sep. 2011.

- Greenhaus, J. H. Collins, K. M., & Shaw, J. D. (2003). The relation between work, family balance and quality of life. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 63, 510–531.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 101, 76–88.
- Gundry, L. K. & Welsch, H. P. (1997). *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, available at <http://www.babson.edu/entrep/fer/papers97>, retrieved, August 2009.
- Gyawali, D. R. (1983) Back Home Action Plan Submitted in partial Fulfillment of Requirement of 5th Training Course on Entrepreneurship Development, University of Philippines, Philippines.
- Hackler, D., Harpel, E., & Mayer, H. (2008). Human Capital and Women's Business Ownership. *Small Business Administration*.
- Hada, D. R. & Shrestha, B. K. (1992), *Aspiration and Motivations of Nepal Women Entrepreneurs (A study of Women Entrepreneurs with a Special Reference to the Kathmandu valley)*, Small Business Promotion Project, Kathmandu Nepal, February.
- Hagargi, A. K. & Rajnalkar, L. (2011). Women Entrepreneurship in India: Opportunity and Challenges. *International Journal of Research in Commerce and Management*, 7(1), (50-54).
- Hair, Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2005). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson/Prentice Hall.
- Halkias, D., Nwajiuba, C., Harkiolakis, N. & Caracatsanis, S. M. (2011). Challenges facing women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. *Management Research Review* , 34 (2): 221 - 235.
- Hamburg, M. (1985). *Basic statistics: A modern approach* (3rd ed.). San Diego: Houghton, Mifflin Harcourt School.
- Harris, K (2003). Small business and the woman's prerogative. *ABA Banking Journals*, 95,3.
- Harris, K. (2003). Small business and the woman's prerogative. *ABA Banking Journal*, 95, 3, p7.

- Hayton, J.C.& McEvoy, G.M. (2006). Competencies in practice: An interview with Hanneke C. Frese. *Human Resource Management*, 45(3): 495-500.
- Heggade, O.D. (1998), *Finances and Cost of Higher Education in India*, New Delhi.
- Heilman, M. & Chen, J. (2003). Entrepreneurship as a solution: the allure of self-employment for women and minorities. *Human Resource Management Review* : 347-364.
- Helms, M. (1997). Women and entrepreneurship: The appealing alternative. *Business Perspectives*,. 10, pp. 16-19.
- Hendricks, L. (2005). South African women entrepreneurs: A burgeoning force in our economy. A special report. Republic of South Africa: Department of Trade and Industry.
- Herbert, R. F & Link, A. N. (1982). *The Entrepreneur: Mainstream Views and Radical Critiques*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Hisrich, H. D. (1986). The women Entrepreneurship – Characteristics, Skills, Problems and Prescriptions for Success in D. L. Sexton and R.W. Smilor (Eds.), *The Art and Sciences of Entrepreneurship*, Cambridge, M. A. Ballinger.
- Hisrich, R. D (1996). The Women Entrepreneur: A Comparative Analysis. *Leadership and organization Development Journal*. 7 (2): 8-16
- Hisrich, R. D. (1986), Entrepreneurship and Intra-preneurship: Methods for Creating New Companies that have an Impact on Economic Renaissance of an Area, in Entrepreneurship, Intra-preneurship and Venture Capital, ed. Robert D. Hisrich, Lexington, MA: Lexington: Harvard University Press.
- Hisrich, R. D. and Brush, C. (1985), The Women Entrepreneur, *Journal of Small Business Management*, 22 (1).
- Holt, D. H (2000), *Entrepreneurship: New Venture Creation*, Prentice Hall of India, New Delhi.
- Hornaday, J. A. and Aboud, J. (1971), Characteritics of Succesful Entrepreneures, *Personnel Psychology*, 24.
- Hoselitz, B. F. (1951). *The Early History of Entrepreneurship Theory, Exploration in Entrepreneurship History*, Vol. 3.

- Hossain, A., Naser K., Zaman A., Nuseibeh R. (2009). Factors influencing women business development in the developing countries: evidence from Bangladesh. *International Journal of Organanal*. Bowling Green, 17 (3): 202.
- Hossain, A. (2007). Challenges of women entrepreneurs in Bangladesh. Retrieved 2 December 2010, from http://www.assocaitedcontent.com/article/411265/challenges_ofwomen_entrepreneurs_in_pg5.html? Cat = 4
- Iakovidou, O., Koutsou, S. & Partalidou, M. (2009). Women entrepreneurs in the Greek countryside: a typology according to motives and business characteristics. *Journal Dev. Entrepreneurship*, Norfolk: 14(2): 165.
- Iakovleva, T., Solesvik, M., Trifilova, A. (2013). Financial availability and government support for women entrepreneurs in transitional economies: Cases of Russia and Ukraine. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 20 (2): 314 – 340.
- Iakovleva, T., Solesvik, M., Trifilova, A. (2013). Financial availability and government support for women entrepreneurs in transitional economies: Cases of Russia and Ukraine. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 20 (2): 314 – 340.
- IEDI Survey Report, 2013
- Illie, G. (2008). Women Entrepreneurship in the current International Business Environment. *Cogito*, 4(1): 1-10.
- Indarti, N. & Langenberg, M. (2004). Factors affecting business success among SMEs: Empirical evidences from Indonesia, Proceedings of the Second Bi-annual European Summer University, University of Twente, Enschede, The Netherlands.
- International Finance Corporation (IFC). (2011). Strengthening Access to Finance for Women-Owned SME's in Developing countries. Washington, DC.
- Jahanshahi, A., Pitamber, B. K., & Nawaser, K. (2010). Issues and challenges for women entrepreneurs in global scene, with special reference to India. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 4(9), 4347–4356.
- Jalbert, S. E., (2008). Women entrepreneurs in the global economy. *Education Research*.

- Jamali, D. (2009). Constraints and opportunities facing women entrepreneurs in developing countries; A relational perspective. *Gender in Management: An International Journal* 24 (4): 232-251.
- Jha, B. K. (2009). *Rural Women and Development of Entrepreneurship with Special Reference to Panjab in Empowerment of Rural Women in India*. New Delhi: Kanishk Publisher.
- Jha, P. and Upadhaya, K. (2002). *Micro and Small Enterprise Policy Review in Nepal: Analysis of Policy Gaps*. Kathmandu: HURDEC.
- Jhlhankangas, M. (2007). Motivational factors of Finnish women to become Entrepreneurs. Bachelors Thesis, Jyvaskyla University of Applied Sciences: School of Business Administration.
- Jianwen L., Patrick, J. Murphy, & Welsch, H. (2011). Developing and validating a Construct of Entrepreneurial Intensity. *New England Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 31-38 available at works.bepress.com/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1017&context=profpjm, retrieved on Jan, 2013
- K.C., F. B. (1989). Role of Entrepreneurship in Industrialization of Nepal. *Nepalese Economic Review*, 2 (5), Kathmandu.
- Kanugo, R. N. (1998). *Entrepreneurship and Innovation, Models for Development*, New Delhi: Sage Publication.
- K'Aol, G.O. (2008). The role of microfinance in fostering women entrepreneurship in Kenya. International council for small business (ICBS). World Conference Proceedings. Washington, 1: 14.
- Karki, R. D. (2001). Performance Assessment Report on IEDI. Unpublished BBA Thesis, Kathmandu University, Kathmandu.
- Karki, Y. B.; Regmi, M. P.; Agrawal, G; Guthier, R. and Rana, P. (1993). Attitudes towards Entrepreneurship in Nepal- A Preliminary Report, Small Business Promotion Project, July, Kathmandu, Nepal.
- Kerin, A., & Aguirre, A. (2005). Improving health safety and profiles in extended hours operations (shift work). *Industrial Health*, 43, 201–208.

- Key, R., Gunterberg, B., Holz, M., & Wolter, H. J. (2003). *Female entrepreneurs in Germany*. Germany: Institute for Mittelstandsforschung.
- Khanka, S. (1998). Woman entrepreneurship in India. *Journal Assam University*, 3(1), 11–16.
- Khatiwada, Y. (2001). *Small and medium enterprises development in Nepal: Issues and opportunities*. (ed) B.K. Maskay, Kathmandu: Centre for Development and Governance.
- Khatri B. B. (2002). Mahilai Uddyami Banna Punji Ra Gharayeshi Sahayog Ko Kahancho. *Gorakhapatra Daily*, Kathmandu, June 6.
- Khatri-Chhetri, K. (2003). Micro and Small Enterprise Policy Review in Nepal. Survey of Micro and Small Enterprises, Owners/Managers, Third Component Report, HMG,ILO,UNDP/MEDEP, Kathmandu.
- Kilby, P. (ed). (1971). *Competition and Entrepreneurship*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Kilby, P. (ed). (1971). *Entrepreneurship and Economic Development*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kirchmeyer, C. (2000). *Working life initiatives: Green or benevolence regarding workers time: In C. L. Cooker, & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), Trends in organisational behaviour* (pp. 79–93). UK: Wiley Chichester.
- Kirkwood, J. (2007). Igniting the entrepreneurial spirit: is the role parents play gendered? *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 13 (1): 39-59.
- Kirkwood, J. (2009). Is a lack of self-confidence hindering women entrepreneurs? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*. 1 (2): 118-133.
- Kirzner, M. (1973). *Competition and Economic Development*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Kivimaki, M., Vahtera, J., Pentti, J., & Ferrie, J. E. (2000). Factors underlying the effect of organisational down sizing on health employees: Longitudinal cohort study. *British Medicinal Journal*, 320: 971–975.
- Klein, E. (1993). Getting Credit When Credit is due. *D & B Reports*, 42 (2): 28-31.
- Knight, F.H. (1921). *Risk, Uncertainty and Profit*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co.

- Kote, A. K. & Honnakeri, P.M (2012). Impact of Microfinance on Poverty Alleviation and the Empowerment of Women with Special Reference to Rural Women Empowerment and Entrepreneurship Development in India. *International Journal of Trade, Economic and Finance*, 3 (4), April, 2012.
- Kourilsky, M. L., & Walstad, W. B. (1998). Entrepreneurship and female youth: Knowledge attitudes, gender differences and educational practices. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 13, 77–88.
- Krueger, N. F., Reilly, M. D., & Carsrud, A. L. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15: 411-432.
- Kumar, V. A. and Jayachitra, S. (2013). Women Entrepreneurs in India – Emerging Issues and Challenges. *IJDR International Journal of Development Research*, 3 (April 2013).
- Kumbhar, B. (2013). Some Critical Issues of Women Entrepreneurship in Rural India. *European Academic Research*, I (2) May 2013.
- Kunt, A., Klapper, L., & Panos, G. (2006). *The Origins of Self-Employment and Entrepreneurial Performance in Transition Economy*. Draft paper. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Kuratko, D. & Welsch, H. (1994). *Entrepreneurial strategy, text and cases*. Fort Worth: Dryden Press.
- Kwabena, N. S. (2011). Entrepreneurship theories and empirical research: A summary of review of literature. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 3(6): 1-8.
- Lall, M., & Sahai, S. (2008). Women in Family Business,. Asian invitational conference on family business. Hyderabad.
- Lamb, R. K. (1952). *Entrepreneur and Community*, in W. Miller (Ed). Men in Business, Cambridge: Harvard University Press
- Lappen, A. (1992). The Working Twenty-Five: American's Top Women Business Owners. *Working Woman*, 17 (5): 63-69
- Lathwal, S. (2011). Women Entrepreneurs In India. *International Journal of Research in IT & Management (IJRIM)*, 1 (3): 115-139

- Lawsche, C. H. (1975). A quantitative approach to content validity. *Personal Psychology*, 28(4): 563–575.
- Lee-Gosselin, H. and Grise, J. (1990). Are Women-Owners Challenging Our Definitions of Entrepreneurship? An In-Depth Survey. *Journal of Business Ethics* (Netherlands), 9 (4,5): 423-433.
- Leitch, C. M., and Frances M. H. (2006). Guest Editorial: Women and the Financing of Entrepreneurial Ventures: More pieces for the Jigsaw. *Venture Capital*, 8 (2): 89–92.
- Lerner, M., Brush, C. & Robert Hisrich. (1997). Israeli women entrepreneurs: An examination of factors affecting performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 12(4), 315-339.
- Lew, P. (2000). Factors in the Growth of Micro-enterprises: Part 1, Developing a Framework, *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 6(4): 363-389.
- Lewis, P. (2006). The Quest for Invisibility: Female Entrepreneurs and Masculine Norm of Entrepreneurship. *Gender, Work, and Organization* 13 (5): 453–69.
- Li, C., Bao L. & Jiang, Q. (2013). Leadership styles of entrepreneurial women in eastern China: characteristics and differences. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 41 (3): 421-432.
- Li, L. (2010). A study on the relationships among gender roles, leadership styles and self-efficacy of female entrepreneurs [In Chinese]. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fudan University, People's Republic of China.
- Liang, Q. Z., Yang, L., & Di, G. F. (2006). An empirical study on characteristics of gender roles and sex differences in leadership style [In Chinese]. *Women Studies* (3): 72-76.
- Lilian, D. (2009). A cross-cultural study of entrepreneurial role stress among Eritrean and Indian women entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Management Sciences*, 5(2): 9–19.
- Lin, Y. M. (2008). A study on Chinese female leadership style [In Chinese]. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fudan University, People's Republic of China.

- Livani, T. (2007). *Middle East and North Africa: Gender Overview*. Washington,
- Maas, G., & Herrington, M. (2006). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) . South African report .
- Malach-Pines, A. & Schwartz, D. (2008). Now you see them, now you don't: gender differences in entrepreneurship. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23(7): 811 – 832.
- Mann, A. & Phukan, R. (1998). *The motivational aspects of women entrepreneurs in India*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Mark, Michael (2007). Women Entrepreneurship – A Nordic Perspective. Nordic Innovation Centre .
- Marlow, S. (2002). Women and self-employment; a part of or a part from theoretical construct?" *International entrepreneurship and management journal*, 3 (2): 83-91.
- Marlow, S. (1997). Self-employed women: New opportunities, old challenges? *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Regional Developmen*: 199-210.
- Mathew, R. V., & Panchanatham, N. (2011). An exploratory study on the work life balance of women entrepreneurs in south India. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*. Vol 16. No 2. 77-105.
- Mazzarino, A. (2013). Entrepreneurial Women and the Business of Self-Development in Global Russia. *The University of Chicago Press*, 38 (3): 623-645
- McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The Achievement Society*. Princenton, N.J: Von Nostrand.
- MEDEP report, 2007.
- MEDEP report, 2010.
- Menger, Carl (1871). *Principles of Economics*, Dingwall, James & Hoselitz, Bert, ed. and trans.
- Merrett, C. & Gruidl, J. (2000). Small business ownership in Illinois: The effect of gender and location on entrepreneurial success. *Professional Geographer*, 52(1), 425-436.
- Merwe, S. P. & Lebakeng, M. (2008). *An Empirical Investigation Of Women Entrepreneurship In Lesotho*.

- Mitchell, L. (2011). *Overcoming the Gender Gap: Women Entrepreneurs as Economic Drivers*. Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation.
- Mitra, R. (2002). The growth pattern of women run enterprises: an empirical study in India. *Journal of developmental entrepreneurship*, 7(2), 217-237.
- Mohinuddin, A. (2006). Entrepreneurship among women: Retrospect's and Prospects. *SEDME*, 10.
- Mohit: Publications,
- Mordi, C., Simpson, R., Singh, S. & Okafor, C. (2010). The role of cultural values in understanding the challenges faced by female entrepreneurs in Nigeria. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 25, 1, pp.5 – 21.
- Morris, M. H. & Sexton, D. L. (1996). The concept of entrepreneurial intensity: implications for company performance. *Journal of Business Research*, 36, 5-13.
- Mueller, S. M., & Conway Dat-On, M. (2008). Gender-role orientation as a determinant of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, (13): 3-20. <http://doi.org/dkdrfr>
- Nachimuthu, G. S. & Gunatharan, B. (2012). Empowering Women through Entrepreneurship: A study in Tamil Nadu, India, *International Journal of Trade, Economic and Finance*, 3(April 2012).
- Nachimuthu, G. S., & Gunatharan, B. (2012). Empowering women through entrepreneurship: a study in Tamil Nadu, India. *International Journal of Trade, Economics and Finance*, 3(2), 143–147.
- Nassif, V. M., Andreassi, T., Tonelli, M. J., & Fleury, M. T. (2012). Women entrepreneurs: Discussion about their competencies. *African Journal of Business Management*, 6 (26): 7694-7704.
- National Conference on Informal Financial Sector and Sustainable Development in Nigeria at the University of Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State.
- National knowledge commission report. Retrieved on Spetember, 2012 from [http://www.knowledgecommission.gov.in/downloads/documents/NKC_Entrepreneurs hip.pdf](http://www.knowledgecommission.gov.in/downloads/documents/NKC_Entrepreneurs%20hip.pdf)

- Nawaz, F. (2009). *Critical Factors of Women Entrepreneurship Development in Rural Bangladesh*. Bangladesh Development Research Center (BDRC) .
- Nedelcheva, S. (2012). Female Entrepreneurship in Denmark. MSc Thesis. Denmark: International Business, Aarhus University, Business and Social Sciences.
- Nelasco, S. (2008). Factors deciding enterprising capacity of women. *Rai Management Journal*, 5(1), 109–115.
- Nelton, S. (1989). The Age of the Women Entrepreneur. *Nation's Business*, 77 (5): 22-30
- North, D. & Thomas, R. (1973). *The Rise of the Western World: A New Economic History*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Noya, A. (2006). Women's entrepreneurship in Romania: First results and policy orientations. Paper presented at 9th CEI Summit Economic Forum, Tirana, Albania.
- Nyamwanza, Tonderal, Mapetere, Denver, Mavhiki, Severino, Dzingiral, Canacio (2012). Financial Management: Case Study of Gweru Women Entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, 3 (18): 99-106.
- OECD. (2012). *Measuring Women Entrepreneurship*, In Entrepreneurship at a Glance 2012, OECD Publishing.
- Ogunrinola et al (2005). Informal Savings and Economic Status of Rural Women in Nigeria. A paper Presented at the National Conference on Informal Financial Sector and Sustainable Development in Nigeria at University of Ado-Ekiti from 8th – 10th June.
- Okafor, F.O. (2000). Micro-Credit: An instrument of economic growth and balanced development. *Journal of the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria*, July – Dec. 2000: 38 – 45.
- Olanrewaju, P.O. (2002). Micro-Credit as a Strategy for Sustainable Development in Nigeria. ESUT. *Journal of Development Management*, Enugu 4 (1 & 2).
- Oluwalana, E.O. and Adegbite, D.A. (2005). Effect of Informal Credit on Agricultural Productivity on Women Cooperatives in Ogun State. A paper presented at the National Conference on Informal Financial Sector and Sustainable Development in Nigeria at University of Ado – Ekiti from 8th – 10th June.

- Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD). (2004). Women's entrepreneurship issues and policies, Istanbul, Turkey: Author.
- Orhan, M., & Scott, D. (2001). Why women enter into entrepreneurship: an explanatory model. *Women in Management Review*, 16 (5): 232-243.
- Orhan. (1999). Holding the purse strings, but not business finance, their cup of tea?
- Orsolya, G. (2010). Female entrepreneurship; The profile and motivation of women entrepreneurs in Szeklerland.
- Osirimi, M. J. (1990). Characteristics of Entrepreneurship in Nigerian Industry that Started Small. PhD Thesis, Harvard University, 25pp
- Owualah, K. (2005). Financing SMEs through the informal Financial Sector. Paper presented at the
- Pant, S. K. (2013). Socio-Cultural influence in Entrepreneurship Development in Nepal. Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal
- Parikh, I. & Mahruk, J. (1999). Women in Management-A movement from fifties to next millennium, Working Paper No. 99-12-00, Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad, Research and Publication Department.
- Parker, S. (2009). *The Economics of entrepreneurship*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Parker, S. C. (2008). Entrepreneurship among married couples in the United States: A simultaneous profit approach. *Labour Economics*, 15, 451–481.
- Parrek, U. and Ventreswoere, R. T. (1978). *Entrepreneurship: The concept and social context*. New Delhi: Learning system
- Peeters, M. C. W., Montgemery, J. J., Bakker, A. B. & Schaufeli, W.B. (2005). Balancing work and home: How job and home demands are related to burnout. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 12, 43–61.
- Pradhan, R. S. (1984). Industrialization in Nepal, New Delhi: NBO Publishers Distributors.
- Pretorius, M. V. Vuuren, J. J. & Nieman, G.H. (2005). Critical evaluation of two models for entrepreneurial education: An improved model through integration. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, 19(5):413-427.

- Rajani, N and Sarada, D (2008). Women Entrepreneurship and Support System. *Study Home Common Science*, 2(2): 107-11
- Ramana, N. & Sorensen, J. (2010). Workplace peer effects and entrepreneurship. *Management Science*, forthcoming.
- Rami, A. & Ahmed, A. (2007). Critical analysis and modeling of small business performance (Case study: Syria). *Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability*, 3(2): 0- 131.
- Ranabhat, B. R. (1995). *Women Entrepreneurs in Nepal: Their Profile, Problems and Prospects*. Kathmandu: Small Business Promotion Project.
- Ranabhat, Baburam (IEDI) and Kiruna, Carl E (GEFAK) (2010), How do we enhance entrepreneurial skills + MFI clients? – Presentation of GTZ Programme, Microfinance Summit 2010, Kathmandu.
- Ranasinghe, S. B. (2008). Factors Contributing to the Success of Women Entrepreneurs in Sri Lanka. *Sri Lanka Journal of Advanced Social Studies*, 1(2) .
- Rao, J. E. (2011). Women Building Business in a Man's World. The saga of Women Entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Research in Computer Application & Management*, 2 (1) (2011 March).
- Rao, V. & Venakatachalam., A. (2012). Challenges faced by women entrepreneurs running micro, small and mediums scale fashion and apparel business: A study on fashion and apparel enterprises in Coastal Karnataka.
- Rao, V. & Venkatahalm, Joshi, H. G. (2013). A study of Entrepreneurial characteristics and success of women entrepreneurship operating Fashion and apparel business. *Asian Journal of Management sciences and education*, Vol 2, No 2.
- Reddy, P. N. (1991). Problems of women entrepreneurs in Goa: A pilot study. *Khadi Gramadyog*, 37(4), 157–159.
- Reddy, V. (2012). Problems and Prospects of Women Entrepreneurship in India: *An Investigative Study in Chittoor Dispoet of Andhra Pradesh*. *International Journal of Research in Commerce and Management*, Vol. 3.

- Rehman, S. & Roomi, M. A. (2012). Gender and work-life balance: a phenomenological study of women entrepreneurs in Pakistan. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 19, 2, pp.209 – 228.
- Reynolds, P., Hay, M. & Camp, S. (2002). *Global entrepreneurship monitor*. London: London Business School.
- Richardson, P., Howarth, R. & Finnegan, G. (2004). The Challenges of Growing Small Businesses: Insights from Women Entrepreneurs in Africa. International Labour Organization, Series on Women's Entrepreneurship Development and Gender Equality – WEDGE, 47
- Rincy, V. M. & Panchanatham, N. (2011). An Exploratory Study on the Work-Life Balance of Women Entrepreneurs in South India. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 16(2), 77-105.
- Rincy, V. M., & Panchanatham, N. (2010). Development of a psychometric instrument to measure work-life balance. *Continental Journal of Social Sciences*, 3, 50–58.
- Rizvi, A. F. & Gupta, K. L. (2009). Women entrepreneurship in India – problems and prospects. *OORJA Journal of Management and I.T.*, 7(2), 35–41.
- Roomi, A. M., Harrison, P. & Beaumont-Kerridge, J. (2009). Women-owned small and medium enterprises in England: Analysis of factors influencing the growth process. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 16 (2), 270-288.
- Saidapur, S. et.al. (2012). Women candle entrepreneurs in Gulbarga district – A micro analysis. *Spectrum: A Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 4: 7-17.
- Saini, J. S. (1996). *Entrepreneurship Development Program and Practices*. New Delhi: Deep & Deep Publication.
- Sathiabama, K. (2010). Rural Women Empowerment and Entrepreneurship Development. *Business Perspectives*. 6 (2): 212-235.
- Say, J. B. (1845). *A Treaties on Political Economy* (4th ed.). Philadelphia: Grigg & Elliot.
- Scase, R. & Goffee, R. (1985). *Women in charge. The experience of female entrepreneurs*. London: Sage publications, pp. 153.

- Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). *The Theory of Economic Development*, Cambridge, Mass, Harvard University Press.
- Scott, C. E. (1986). Why women are becoming entrepreneurs? *Journal of small business management*, 24 (4): 37-45.
- Seguino, S. (2006). Feminist-Kaleckian Macroeconomic Policy for Developing Countries. Working Paper 446. Bard College, Levy Economics Institute.
- Sexton, D. and Kassandra, J. (eds.) *The State of the Art in Entrepreneurship*, Boston, MA: PWS Kent Publishing Co.
- Shah, H. (1987). *Fostering Women Entrepreneurship: A Study Distinctive Features*. Research Report Serial 3, New Delhi: NIESBUD.
- Shah, H. (1991). Need Assessment Report for Women Entrepreneurship in Nepal, Foundation for Asian Management Development/ Small Business Promotion Project, Nepal.
- Shakti, S. (1995). Women Development, Democracy, A Study of the socio-Economic changes in the studies of Women in Nepal.
- Shane, N. & Venkataraman, O. (2000). The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Academy of Management Review*.
- Shane, S. & Venkataraman, S. (2000). The Promise of entrepreneurship as field of research. *Academy of Management Review*, 25 (1):217-226.
- Sharma, N. P., Kishtawaria, J., Rana, A., & Vyas, N. (2007). Causes and constraints by women entrepreneurs in entrepreneurial process. *Journal of Social Science*, 14(2), 99–102.
- Shrestha R. & Shrestha, M. (1989). Economic Development in Nepal. *Annual Bulletin of Social Institute for Social Sciences*, No.19, Kyoto, Japan.
- Shrestha R. (2007). Entrepreneurship development in Nepal. Unpubelised Ph.D Thesis, Faculty of Management, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal.
- Shrestha, B. K. (2001). Entrepreneurship Development: Issues & Oppurtunity, Bishwa Keshar Maskay (ed.) in *Small and Medium Enterprises Development in Nepal*, Kathmandu, Nepal, Center for Development and Governance.

- Shrestha, S. K. (2001). Modernizing small and medium enterprise: Imperatives for paradigm shift. *Small and Medium Enterprise Development in Nepal*. (ed.) B.K. Maskay, Center for Development and Governance, Kathmandu.
- Singh, G. & Belwal, R. (2008). Entrepreneurship and SMEs in Ethiopia: Evaluating the role, prospects and problems faced by women in this emergent sector. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 23 (2): 20 – 136.
- Singh, N. P. & Sengupta, R. (1986). Potential Women Entrepreneurs: Their Profile, Visions and Motivation, National Institute for Entrepreneurship and Small Business Development, New Delhi.
- Singh, S. P. (2008). An Insight Into The emergence of women-owned businesses as an economic Force In India. Special Conference of the Strategic Management Society. Hyderabad.
- Sinha, P. (2003). Women Entrepreneurship in the North East India: Motivation, Social Support and Constraints. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 38 (4): 425-443.
- Sinha, S. (2007). Developing women entrepreneurs in south asia: issues, initiatives and experiences.
- Smith, A. (1776). *Inquiry into the nature and cause of the wealth of nation (originally printed in Glasgow, Scotland 1776, reprinted as the Wealth of Nature)*, New York: Random House, 1937.
- Smith, N. R., Bracker, J. S., & Miner, J. B. (1987). Correlates of firm and entrepreneurial success in technologically innovative companies, In *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship research*, Wellesley, MA: Babson College, pp. 337-356.
- Sokejima, S., & Kagamimori, S. (1998). Working hours as a risk factor for acute myocardial infarction in Japan: Case control study. *British Medical Journal*, 317, 775–780.
- Spelten, E., Totterdell, P., Barton, J. & Folkard, S. (1995). Effect of age and domestic commitment on sleep and alertness of female shift workers. *Work Stress*, 9(2&3): 165–175.
- Srivastava, T. N. & Rego, S. (2008). *Statistics for management* (1st ed.). New Delhi, India: Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Ltd.

- Stanger, A. M. J. (2004). Gender-comparative use of small business training and assistance: A literature review. *Education and Training*, 46(8/9): 464-473.
- Stevenson, L. (2004). Multi-country prospective on policy for women entrepreneurs: where does Canada fit? Paper presented at the Economic Forum for Women Entrepreneurs: Sustaining the Momentum, Ottawa, Kanada.
- Steward, J. & Boyd, R. (1988). Teaching Entrepreneurs: Opportunities For women and Minorities. *Business Forum*, 13 (3): 8-10
- Stewart, W. H., Watson, W. E., Carland, J. C. & Carland, J. W. (1998). A proclivity for entrepreneurship: a comparison of entrepreneurs, small business owners and corporate managers. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 14, 189–214. Work-life balance of women entrepreneurs 103
- Storey, D. & Westhead, P. (1994). Management training and small firm performance: A critical review. Unpublished document (Working Paper no. 18). Warwick: Warwick University - SME Centre.
- Storey, D. (1994). *Understanding the Small Business Sector*. London: Routledge.
- Subedi, B. (2006), *Products and Services Marketing by Entrepreneurs: A Case of Micro-Enterprises Development Program in Dhanusha District*. Master thesis submitted to the Central Department of Rural Development, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal.
- Tambunan, T. (2009). Women entrepreneurs in Indonesia: their main constraints and reasons. *Journal Asia Entrep. Sustain. Tauranga*, 5(3): 37.
- Tambunan, T. (2009). Women entrepreneurship in Asian developing countries: Their development and main constraints. *Journal of Development and Agricultural Economics*, 1(2): 027-040.
- Thakral, S. (2010). Challenges Faced by Women Entrepreneurs in Developing Economy. *International Journal of Research in Commerce and Management*, 1 (4): 216-227.
- Thapa, K. B, Timilsina, P., Dahal, M. K. (1997). *Adhunik Nepal Ko Arthik Etihas*, Nepal Asian Research Center, Tribhuvan University.

- Thomson, S. (2002). *Women's Entrepreneurship Development in Micro and Small Enterprises: A Study in the Ukraine*, School for International Training, Geneva.
- Timmons, J., & Spinelli, S. (2004). *New venture creation – entrepreneurship for the 21st century*. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Todaro M.P. (2004). *Economic Development 8th Edition*. India: Peerson Education Plc Ltd.
- Tripathi, A. (2012). *Present Status, Growth and Impact of Women Entrepreneurs – Women Entrepreneurs Rising above the Challenges*, Published by Emerald Group Publishng Limited.
- Tuladhar, J. (1996). *Factors Affecting Women Entrepreneurship in Small and Cottage Industries in Nepal, A Study of ILO & Sidu*.
- Ucbasaran, D., Westhead, P. & Wright, M. (2001). The Focus of Entrepreneurial Research: Contextual and Process Issues. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 25(4), 57-80.
- UNDP (2008). *Innovative Approaches to Promoting Women's Economic Empowerment*. New York: UNDP headquarter,.
- UNIDO (2013). *Report on Creative industries and micro & small scale enterprise development – A contribution to poverty alleviation*. Retrieved on September, from www.unido.org/fileadmin/user.../69264_creative_industries.pdf
- United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO). (2001). *Women entrepreneurship development in selected African countries*, UNIDO Working Paper 7. Vienna: Author.
- United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO). (2003). *A path out of poverty (V.03-81817, April 2003-10000)*. Austria: Vienna International Centre, Small and Medium Enterprise Branch.
- Van der Merwe, M. & Nieman, G.H. (2003). *Women entrepreneurs and their needs in terms of financial assistance and products and services offered by commercial banks in South Africa*. Unpublished research report for ABSA Bank. Pretoria: University of Pretoria, South Africa.

- Van der Merwe, M. (2002). A study of discrimination against women entrepreneurs when applying for financial assistance. Unpublished M Phil thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria, South Africa.
- Verheul, I. & Thurik, R. (2001). Start-up Capital: Does Gender Matter? *Small Business Economics* . *Small business economics* 16 (4), 329-346
- Verheul, I., Andre, V. S. & Roy, T. (2006). Explaining Female and Male Entrepreneurship at the Country Level. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development* 18 (2): 151–83.
- Verma, S. T. (2010), Challenges Faced By Women Entrepreneurs in Developing Economy – Entrepreneurial Problems, Successful Entrepreneurial Guidelines. *International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management*, 1(4).
- Vesper, K. H. (1980). *New Venture Strategies*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Vikas, K. (2007). Problems of women entrepreneurs in India. Retrieved 3 December 2010, from <http://www.123eng.com/form/viewtopic.php?P=18304>
- Waddell, J. & Carr, P. (2007). Who benefits from work life balance? Paramount considerations for the Global H. R. M. Practitioner. *H.R.M. Review*, 10–15.
- Wendy, Ming-Yen, Siong-Choy. (2007). Theorising a framework of factors influencing performance of women entrepreneurs in Malaysia. *Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability*, III(2).
- Wennekers, S. & Thurik, R. (1999). Linking entrepreneurship and economic growth. *Small Business Economics* 13: 27–55.
- Williamson, H. F. (1966). Business History and Economic History. *Journal of Economic History*. 26 (4), Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Women's Enterprise Taskforce. (2009). Myths and Realities of Women's access to Finance.
- Wong, S. C. & Ko, A. (2009). Exploratory study of understanding hotel employees' perception on work-life balance issues. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28, 195–203.
- Woodhams, C., & Lupton, B. (2006). Does Size Matter? Gender-based Equal Opportunity in UK Small and Medium Enterprises. *Women in Management Review* 21 (2): 143–69.

- Wortman, M. S. (1987). Entrepreneurship: an integrating typology and evaluation of the empirical research in the field. *Journal of Management*, 13(2): 259-279.
- Wube, M. C. (2010). Factors affecting the performance of Women Entrepreneurs in Small and Medium Enterprise.
- Yates, J. K. (2001). Retention of nontraditional engineering and construction professionals. *Journal. Manage. Eng.*, (17)(1): 41–48.
- Zein, S. M., Widad, A. A., Ahmed, H. E., & Lorenzl, G. (2008). Women in Food and Beverages Business in Urban Markets of Khartoum State. *The Ahfad Journal*, 25 (1): 38-59.
- Zhang, Z., Zyphur, M. J., Narayanan, J., Arvey, R. D., Chaturvedi, S., Avolio, B. J., Lichtenstein, P. & Larsson, G. (2009). The genetic basic of entrepreneurship: Effects of gender and personality. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Process*, 110, 93–107.
- Zivetz, L. (1992). *Private enterprise and the state in modern Nepal*. Madras: Oxford University Press.
- Zuniga, J. & Benhassine, N. (2005). Where Did All the Women Go? Female Economic Participation in the Middle East and North Africa. Internal document. World Bank, Private Sector Unit.