



ENTREPRENEURIAL PERSPECTIVES (LCDB7001)

Assignment-3



STUDENT NAME: PUJA CHOWDHURY
STUDENT NUMBER: 1817680
MODULE LECTURER: DR. GLADIUS KULOTHUNGAN

Can women without any family support be successful entrepreneurs? A case study of success stories in India.

Major studies have stated that family plays a key-role in development of women entrepreneurs (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003; Sieger et al., 2009; Sciascia et al., 2012). Infact, many families take the decision of pushing their women to be an entrepreneur against her choice and personal aspiration (Hughes, 2013). Family can either act as a positive role by giving the required financial support and resources or as a negative role by retraining, obligating and throwing family duties on their women (Ram and Holliday, 1993; Dyer and Handlar, 1994; Dumas, 1998; McElwee and Al-Riyami, 2003; Zamberi-Ahmad, 2011).

Researchers have found a co-relation between family's influence and family members' career choices, where an individual from a family and its family culture can shape the offspring's' course plan (Schroder et al., 2011). According to Zellweger et al. (2011) individuals with a family business background tend to have their own enterprises and dislikes being in control in their venture career. This behaviour is more prominent in families having successful entrepreneurial ventures (Cooper and Dunkelberg, 1981; Shapero and Sokol, 1982; Hill and Welsh, 1986; Duchesneau and Gartner, 1990). As the business's principles, values, behaviours and other business related information & knowledge keeps passing within the family members through generation, the possibility of the close and nearby family members to be an entrepreneur enhances (Selamat and Endut, 2020).

However, it is necessarily not need to be true that without having any positive support from the family, or having previous history of family business/enterprises/entrepreneurial behaviour women cannot be a self-made successful entrepreneur, for example, JK Rowling, who has a net market value of £750 million, which makes her the 191st richest person in the UK (Sunday Times Rich List, 2019). JK Rowling is a globally recognised entrepreneur for her original book series 'Harry Potter', which did not earn sales only from the books, but also from the movie adaptations and its popular 'Harry Potter' merchandising rights she owns over the series (Smith, 2001). Being a single mother, having a broken marriage, no family support, battling with depression and suicidal thoughts and relying on welfare benefits (Smith, 2001)- nothing stopped her to be a successful entrepreneur by becoming one of the most

commercial popular authors of all the time. Oprah Winfrey, founder of Harpo Productions Inc., and CEO of OWN is an illegitimate daughter of a Mississippi sharecropper who fought with poverty, parental neglect, sexual abuse and racism to become one of the richest and influential women entrepreneur in the world (Telegraph, 2017). Sara Blakely who was just a mere fax machine saleswoman, with her all personal savings which was less than £5000 starts her business venture with her patented creative pantie-design (women shapewear) and today her company Spanx worth more than multi-million pounds (£826 million) (Forbes, 2019).

Although there are various studies central to women entrepreneurship, but majority of them deals with the various challenges such as financial issues, societal culture, masculine hegemony, gender relations, etc. (Kohler-Rollefson, 2018; Dlamini & Adams, 2014; Kwon, Mahutga & Admire, 2017) that women deal with on her way to be an entrepreneur with anticipated solutions such as gender sensitizing trainings, women friendly policies, schemes, benefits, reservations, etc. (Grunow, Begall & Buchler, 2018; Mies & Shiva, 2014; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Vasavada, 2012). Many suggested how the positive family profile providing required support and resources is key to be a women-entrepreneur (Cesaroni and Paola, 2016; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk & Beutell, 1996; Dima, 2009) but to bring in a uniform paradigm shift across the world within the organizational and societal mind-set it needs time and sometimes generations. So, the question lies, how women without family support can vouch herself to be an entrepreneur? This paper will critically study a few typical women in India, their family relationship, influence of family as a central role in shaping their (women) choices and its implication on entrepreneurial behaviour in a positive or negative way. It will further try to understand those women who managed to challenge the patriarchal society that limits the growth of women entrepreneurs and despite being dominated by the masculine hegemony how they (women) negotiated themselves to cross through all the barriers of becoming an entrepreneur by themselves.

Research Aim

Investigating the factors that trigger women to be a self-made entrepreneur in India.

Research Question

How women in India manage to become an entrepreneur by themselves without having any support from their family?

What encourage a woman to be a self-made entrepreneur instead of relying on family support in India?

Sub-research questions

1. Can women without any family support be a successful entrepreneur?
2. Which are the traits that encourages women to be entrepreneur despite of having no support from their family?
3. Do women with no family support have different entrepreneurial behaviour compared to women with family support?

Research Objectives

1. The differences between self-made women entrepreneurs and family-supported women entrepreneurs.
2. Evaluating the success rate of self-made entrepreneurs and family-supported entrepreneurs.
3. Findings towards the needs that can assist women to be an entrepreneur in absence of any family support

Research Gap

Studies suggested that family plays a very important role in the entrepreneurial process of women entrepreneurs. Families who supports their women in terms of work division at home along with financial support & required resources manage to be a successful entrepreneur and vice versa (Cesaroni and Paola, 2016; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk & Beutell, 1996; Dima, 2009). However, in case of men entrepreneurs' family support is not considered as a stepping stone for their entrepreneurial journey, but obviously having family support makes it comparatively easier for men as well (Martino and Barbato, 2003; Manolova, Carter, Manev & Gyoshev, 2007). Researches on women entrepreneurs have always focussed on the significance of family-support which creates an image that family-support act as a back-bone for women entrepreneurs, especially in patriarchal society. It makes an illusion within the 'potential' women entrepreneurs that without their family support they cannot aspire to be an entrepreneur. There is no proper research on women entrepreneurs who managed to taste success solely by themselves, without any support from their

family members (Byrne, Fattoum & Garcia, 2019). This research work will study those women entrepreneurs who re-designed the entrepreneurial perspective and has become successful entrepreneurs by themselves. It will try to find out how these women are different from the traditional women entrepreneurs who come from privileged families and how they alone managed to successfully establish their businesses by challenging patriarchy.

This paper may help women to aspire for entrepreneurial roles regardless of their family support and can add a new definition to women entrepreneurship on which further researches can be done.

Literature review

Family and women entrepreneurs

In a highly patriarchal Indian society, the career choice of individuals is often conditioned by their gender and is limited/restricted towards female family members (Cesaroni & Paoloni, 2016). Families running family businesses tend to include the male members of their family, whereas the female members are socially and culturally conditioned to pursue and prioritize the feminine roles in the family, i.e., being a responsible wife and a caring mother; which is why generally sons are considered to be successors of family businesses (Curimbaba, 2002; Garcia-Alvarez et al., 2002; Vera and Dean, 2005; Haberman and Danes, 2007).

In rare cases, women voluntarily opt out to be a part of their family businesses, whereas frequently they are conditioned and convinced to believe that their family commitments are more crucial and honorary rather than managing businesses and both cannot be managed together (Cesaroni and Sentuti, 2015). In this kind of typology, family is considered as a major responsibility and women plays the central role to manage the family as a wife and a mother (Goffee and Scase, 1985). These roles proliferate into a number of duties and commitments, which pushes women to give secondary importance to their career (Goffee and Scase, 1985).

Even 'conventional' women who actively participates in their family businesses by considering their primary role as an entrepreneur still maintains a strong relation with their traditional gender roles and do not sacrifice their family commitments for their career (Cesaroni and Paoloni, 2016). Such women often

step into the entrepreneurial role not due to their personal aspiration but to support their family earnings (Cesaroni and Paoloni, 2016).

There is another typology, where women do not enter into family businesses and entrepreneurial career due to having any previous family business history or entrepreneurial atmosphere, but because they are highly career-oriented women who want to return to work after having a maternity leave (Goffee and Scase, 1985). Such women view entrepreneurship as an opportunity to have a balance between their work life and family life (Goffee and Scase, 1985). Women who aspire to achieve high in their career life but at the same time do not want to cut off their time from their responsibilities get easily attracted towards the flexible nature of entrepreneurship that allows them to run their own company according to their availability (OECD, 2004; Wellington, 2006; Ronsen, 2012). Women with young children struggle more with work-life balance and tend to look for self-employment to get rid of fixed working hours and less flexible job roles (OECD, 2004; Wellington, 2006; Ronsen, 2012).

Family relationship plays an important role for financing a new business, especially with women entrepreneurs (Paoloni, 2011; Paoloni and Demartini, 2012; Paolini and Dumay, 2015). In fact studies have revealed that women generally start their businesses with less capital compared to men, which reduces the likelihood of getting funds from external sources for their next phases of business cycle which clearly reflects 'think entrepreneurs think men' image of the society. Thus women entrepreneurs tend to rely more on family and friends for personal loans, resulting in lower rates of financial debts (Constantindis et al., 2006; Carter et al., 2007; Coleman and Robb, 2009; Fairlie and Robb, 2009; Cesaroni, 2010; Alesina et al., 2013; Cesaroni et al., 2013).

Venturing into motherhood plays a crucial role in differentiating between various female profiles and how it affects them psychologically towards their career aspiration (Kwon, Mahutga & Admire, 2017). Cromie and Hayes (1988) identified three distinctive profiles of women entrepreneurs: 'innovators' who aspire for self-growth and autonomy, 'dualists' - generally have history of family businesses try to have balance between work and family, and 'returners' who want to carry on their self-fulfilment and autonomy after their pregnancy without disrupting their family life.

Women entrepreneurs bargaining with patriarchy

India has a high score of 'masculinity' factor in Hofstede's cultural dimension, indicating that the Indian society prefers masculinity over femininity (Hofstede's Insights, 2019). From the pre-historic age, power and control is associated with men and masculinity and women are conditioned to be submissive right from their birth (Dlamini & Adams, 2014; Chakravarty & Bhatnagar, 2017). Even men with feminine attributes are not recognised within the society. The patriarchal Indian society has given men the virtual right to control on their women's production, reproduction and sexuality (Walby, 1990). These societal norms mould the organizational culture and the people working in these organizations as a part of the society they themselves influence back the societal culture. This keeps going on as a vicious cycle by reinforcing the stereotyped gender-roles both in society (family) and organizations (Diamini & Adams, 2014; Mahutga & Admire, 2017). Indian women are convinced to believe that true women-hood is achieved by being an ideal wife, rearing children and performing house chores. Therefore, in most of the cases they do not feel suppressed by the masculine hegemony, rather sub-consciously encourages patriarchy by actively practising it with herself and by preaching it to the next generation such as children, daughter-in-law, etc. (Kohler-Rollefson, 2018; Dlamini & Adams, 2014).

Under the masculine supremacy, women entrepreneurs having a history/atmosphere of family business or from well-to-do/elite families with the privilege to keep things under their control indicates that in both the cases they are mainly supported by their family and directly or indirectly they are controlled by their family members only and in absence of their family support such women entrepreneurs may collapse (Cesaroni and Paola, 2016; Dima, 2009). Thus it can be inferred that under the patriarchal society with conditioned mind-sets of gender-roles and in absence of family support for finance and other resources women may not aspire to be entrepreneurs, for instance successful Indian women entrepreneurs such as Vandana Luthra who hails from a very well-educated and a rich family who got immense support both from her family, in-laws and her husband to set up VLCC (Telegraph India, 2014). Suchi Mukherjee who is the founder of the Limeroad is a graduate from Economics and Finance from the London School of Economics and Political Science. Needless to say about the tuition fees of this premium institute which is more than £21,000 for the first year only for the international students, which indicates how privileged she was at the first place compared to both men and women in a country like India which is still battling with poverty. There are other similar examples of women entrepreneurs such as Richa Kar, Falguni Nayar, Vani Koala, etc. The

common attributes they all share is they had the privilege to study from premium educational institutes across the world, hail from upper economical class family background and had huge family support, which encouraged them to be an entrepreneur.

Theoretical Grounding

Governmental policy, entrepreneurship and gender

With the last worst recession from 2008 to 2013 in all over the world, various reforms and policies were introduced to improve the condition of the labour market (Gravey, 2014). However, it was believed that it did not improve the unemployment condition, rather just increased the number of part time jobs and lowly paid jobs only (Gravey, 2014). At this time of global and Eurozone financial crisis, entrepreneurship was used as a major tool to reduce unemployment and enhance the economic condition of the country with the assumption that with it will create more job opportunities (Byrne, Fattoum & Garcia, 2019).

It was found that women were under-represented as entrepreneurs and there is a huge scope of economic boost if women also join to be an entrepreneur. Thus women centric entrepreneurial policies get introduced with the hope of improving the economic condition of the countries (Carter et al. 2015). Later with times concern increases regarding the market-oriented gender-inequality. To address the 'global gender gap' further policies get introduced with the rationale of empowering women and to make them independent business owners (Carter et al. 2015). However, the neo-liberal governments made their citizens responsible for the risks involved in starting a new business venture, which were previously a governmental agenda (Inoue, 2007). Due to transferring the responsibilities from the government to the individuals, Elomaki (2015) stated that those economic policies failed to make any impactful changes in terms of gender-equality.

Although in recent years the number of women entrepreneurs have relatively increased, but in majority of cases this growth is in form of part-time activity, who are efficient enough to manage their business hours in between their domestic chores (Causer and Park, 2009). When women prefer to manage their entrepreneurial activities from home, the share of domestic work get further increased (due to their increased presence at home) which is already gendered

before (division of labour based on gender) (Gurley-Calvez, Biehl and Harper, 2009).

Although women see entrepreneurial opportunity as a flexible and fulfilling work, but the growth in number of women entrepreneurs is mainly driven from the 'necessity' of survival may be due to no/less job opportunities, redundancy, increase in women's retirement age or to fulfil the financial need of the family, but a section of women entrepreneurs are 'opportunity-driven' who tries to promote their self-growth and gain autonomy by negotiating with the patriarchal perspectives to successfully establish themselves as an entrepreneur (Scott, 1986; Moore and Buttner, 1997; Caputo and Dolinsky, 1988; Hughes, 2003).

Albeit women do well as an entrepreneur, but they mainly engage themselves in low-skilled and low-paid occupation (Ahl and Nelson, 2014). Often these real facts get ignored in governmental policies and media campaigns. Setting up examples by portraying successful women entrepreneurs can make them to aspire for higher targets (Kelley et al. 2010).

Role models of women entrepreneurs

A role model should be someone whose behavioural traits, personal styles and specific attributes are emulated by other (Shapiro, Hasltine and Row, 1978). It helps in identity-construction (Sealy and Singh, 2009) and major developments within young professionals (Gibson, 2004; Ibarra, 1999). A right women entrepreneurial role model can trigger other 'potential' women entrepreneurs to believe in their true potential by comparing themselves with the role model and by imagining possibilities of what they can achieve and what they can become into (Radu and Loue, 2008). Researchers have stressed that the role models should have similar background, physical & mental attributes (sex, age, etc.) and situational context both socially and economically with whom the 'potential' entrepreneurs can easily identify themselves to able to make a significant impact on them (Sealy and Singh, 2009). It does not only help in developing the identity of 'potential' women entrepreneurs by emulating the attributes of their role model but it also makes a positive shift within the patriarchal mind-sets by emphasising on the presence of women role models in powerful positions within the same patriarchal society by challenging the gender definition and the processes that leads to segregation of gender roles at

workplace and home (Ely, 1994; Sealy and Singh, 2009; Eriksson-Zetter-quist, 2008).

Gender stereotypes, post-feminism & entrepreneurial femininities

Deeply rooted social stereotypes act as a barrier for aspiring women entrepreneurs. According to the meta-analysis by Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & Van (2003) men are perceived and expected to have agentic qualities, which are aligned with masculine traits, such as aggressiveness, dominance, self-confidence, assertiveness, forceful, self-reliance, individualism, independent, etc. Typically, these agentic traits at workplace are used for power and control (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Women are considered to have communal qualities, such as compassion, nurturance, gentle, soft-heartedened, affectionate, soft-spoken, sympathy, kindness, sensitivity, etc. which are perceived as femininity. These communal traits deal with others' welfare and well-being at workplace (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Conditioning men and women with stereotyped gender-roles right from their birth impact the way they perceive their (self) identity in the society and their basis of legitimise practices as an entrepreneur (Pailot et al., 2015). Sex becomes their gender identity and they are judged accordingly based on their gender roles (Eagly and Karau, 2002).

The long history of men building/setting up their kingdoms/organizations and their association with leading/managing people has made an illusion of entrepreneurs to be men and men to be entrepreneurs. Due to incongruity between the gender-role of women, women entrepreneurs find themselves trapped in a cross-bind situation (Kugler, Reif, Kaschner & Brodbeck, 2018). At work women need to show agentic traits to prove their capabilities equal to a man (which implies that they can as well successfully run a business), and at the same time they need to behave like a woman by showing their communal traits to justify their gender roles in the society (Kugler, Reif, Kaschner & Brodbeck, 2018). If both the traits are not rightly balanced, women entrepreneurs may be blamed of being 'too manly' for a woman or 'too feminine' to have an own business and manage it (Kugler, Reif, Kaschner & Brodbeck, 2018).

However, in the post-feminist era which simultaneously both accepts and rejects feminism (Tasker and Negra, 2007) has redirected 'empowerment' from social transformation to self-transformation (Anderson, 2015). The post-

feminist associates themselves with a new sets of femininity traits which includes 'self-determinism', 'individualism' and 'empowered' (McRobbie, 2015). This new form of femininity does not compare itself with men, rather it impels themselves to take the full responsibility of their own personal and professional growth in quest of perfection and success (McRobbie, 2015). The post-feminist entrepreneurs are self-empowered, autonomous, ambitious and make their own choices by over-riding the traditional femininity and pre-femininity (McRobbie, 2009) (which includes a balance between heterosexual desires and emotional sensitivity (Budgeon, 2011)).

Lewis (2014) have theorized various types of 'femininities' leading to different types of women's entrepreneurial experiences. She highlighted four types of entrepreneurial femininities: 'individualized', 'maternal', 'relational' and 'excessive' by focusing on how they do entrepreneurship. All these femininities are not equally valued in entrepreneurial process and the different types of femininities have a hierarchical relation within them (Lewis, 2014). Instead of studying the typologies, the entrepreneurial femininities will be studied based on their entrepreneurial performances of the research participants.

This research work will study Indian self-made women entrepreneurs and their entrepreneurial journey using the above discussed theoretical framework.

Methodology

Entrepreneurial behaviour deals with human interaction which involves social constructions such as responsiveness, speech and shared connotation, which indicates towards interpretivist research philosophy (Husserl, 2012). It will help the researcher to recognize the triggering factors that lead them (women) to be an entrepreneur despite of having any family support and it will also critically analyse their entrepreneurial processes/journey (Husserl, 2012).

Research philosophy

Interpretivism philosophy is based at social and experimental levels by considering individuals' beliefs which reflects the factual data by interpreting the truth intersubjectively (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015). It allows the researcher to build a less-formal relationship with the research participants which helps them to be more comfortable with the researcher and share

data/information with less/no biasness (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2011). In addition to it, it assists the researcher to compare and understand the difference in the interpretation of the subjective meaning within the participants and the social realm (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015).

Although, it does not include the factual knowledge and objective meaning of the social world like positivism research philosophy (Bryman & Bell, 2015) but it helps to understand the social truth with its constructive social approach which considers that human behaviour is evolving and dynamic in nature (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015).

Research Approach

The focus of this research area is how women without any family support manage to become an entrepreneur in a male-dominated society. In this case, where the research premises are known, an inductive research approach will be used as the conclusion is open-ended (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The right research approach is very crucial to the research methodology because of its implication on data collection process which will assist the researcher to understand the entrepreneurial behaviour, femininity traits, perception and aspiration of the research participants (who are women entrepreneurs) and their understanding of the norms of patriarchal society (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Methodological Choices

As this research will deal with human behaviour, their aspirations and perception of various events and contexts, it is better to reproduce it in form of language or text as it is hard to represent it in absolute values (Kothari, 2004; Neuman, 2013). A quantitative analysis may not be capable enough to have an in-depth understanding behind the reasoning of any phenomenal behaviour or pattern in their actions (Klenke, 2016). Thus, qualitative analysis, which includes collecting data in form of language, texts or photograph (Kothari, 2004) will be more helpful to unfold the experiences of the research participants which lead them to be successful entrepreneurs. However, quantitative researchers can argue that qualitative data may have a risk of having biased and inconsistent data (Sutton & Austin, 2015). Moreover, at times it may become difficult to

segregate the qualitative data into groups or patterns and each data set can result into different interpretation, making it difficult to conclude anything (Kothari, 2004; Neuman, 2013).

To ensure the reliability and validity of this research work, a multi-method qualitative study will be done where data will be collected by using three qualitative data collecting techniques and later the data sets will be triangulated with each other along with the existing literature (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

Research Strategy

To collect the qualitative data, narrative inquiry research strategy will be applied, where the participants will undergo through a series of semi-structured and open-ended questions to share their experiences in a story telling format by linking their experiences in a series of events chronologically based on its action of occurrence (Yin, 2014). It will let the researcher to understand their perception and their experiences over a period of time (Yin, 2014). It will also allow the researcher to identify which experiences/perception of things/event made a significant impact in the minds of participants which lead them to be a successful entrepreneur (Yin, 2014). The narrative inquiry research strategy compliments the complex subjective quantities of the concept of entrepreneurship and femininity. This strategy will let the researcher to dig deep into the minds of the participants to understand the entrepreneurial process of women entrepreneurs who did not get any family support to start up their business venture. It will assist in analysing the complex entrepreneurial perspectives by recognizing the relationships, behavioural traits and aspirations with the socially connected explanations which will come in the participants' narrative quite naturally (Yin, 2014). It can be a short story or a detailed explanation of any significant event or long-life story or anything in between which has impacted the participant significantly (Yin, 2014). However, it is best exercised with small groups of participants as it is a very intensive and time-consuming process (Yin, 2014).

Sampling Method

As collecting data from the true/actual population is not practically possible, so sampling should be done critically which can reflect the typical characterises of

the overall population of the targeted group of people (Neuman, 2005). In this case, convenience sampling method will be used, where participants belonging to the targeted research group who are easy to access will be considered as research participants (Neuman, 2005).

The author has worked previously in a prestigious national level non-governmental organization (NGO) in India, which is interlinked with various governmental and private bodies. She was a project manager on women empowering programs which were based on sustainable development approaches. Due to the nature of her work, she has close connection with banks that runs various schemes on women empowerment with the help of NGOs. Bharatiya Mahila Bank (Indian women's bank) is such a bank which with partnership of State Bank of India in 2017 introduces a scheme called Bharatiya Mahila Bank Business Loan (BMBBL) which offers women entrepreneurs business loans upto £2million and collateral free loan upto £1million under credit guarantee fund trust for micro and small enterprises cover (Bharatiya Mahila Bank, 2020).

The author will contact the local branch manager with whom she has closely worked before and after sharing the purpose of the research work will request for contact details of thirty women who have taken loans under BMBBL scheme and are financially doing well. The manager will be requested to select customers from various social class groups who have taken small, medium and big loans and are doing well financially according to the bank. The purpose is to have a heterogeneous sample group having participants from various social backgrounds, challenges, experiences and so on to have a holistic view of the targeted group population (Neuman, 2005). The bank will first contact their customers stating the purpose of the research and later their details will be shared with the author once they agree to volunteer as a research participant.

Ethical Consideration, Data Collection and Data Analysis

All ethical considerations will be followed while taking data. No personal data will be taken and confidentiality will be maintained throughout the research work (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015). No one will be pushed, forced or harmed physically or mentally or any other possible forms to participate in the research work (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015). The data collection processes

will be designed in such a way that it does not cause any harm/threat to anyone in any possible ways (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015).

After taking consent from both the bank and individual volunteers formally and informally, data will be collected using three different techniques: Semi-structured interview, focussed group discussion and participant observation. In semi-structured interview the researcher will use a list of themes and some key questions, which may evolve from interview to interview (Sandy & Dunmay, 2011). The questions will be open-ended and descriptive in nature allowing the participant to express herself in her own way (Sandy & Dunmany, 2011). The whole interview will be recorded after taking consent from the participants and later will be transcribed for data-analysis.

In focused group discussion, a topic will be shared and explained in a group of 4-10 participants, where the volunteers will be asked to have an interactive discussion around the given topic which will be recorded with consent. Data from focussed group discussion helps in developing patterns and trends in data analysis (Belzile and Oberang, 2012).

Under participant observation technique, researcher observes the participant's activities in natural setting, such as at her workplace, to able to observe her day-to-day's activities (Scgensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999). The researcher should be able to build trust and relationship so that the participant and others in the workplace starts to treat the researcher as part of their own community (Scgensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999). It will help the researcher to observe their true-self which will add quality to the data. The researcher collects the data mainly in form of notes based on her observation and understanding (Scgensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999).

After collecting and transcribing all data, it will be analysed by using template analysis where all the data forms will be grouped into various codes and themes to form a template (King, 2012). By following an exploratory process, the codes will be continuously arranged and rearranged as long as the theme does not represent any significant relationships within the set of collected data to able to fulfil the research aim (King, 2012).

References

- Ahl, H., and Nelson, T. (2014) '*How Policy Positions Women Entrepreneurs: A Comparative Analysis of State Discourse in Sweden and the United States*,' *Journal of Business Venturing*, 30(2), pp. 273–291.
- Aldrich, H.E. and Cliff, J.E. (2003) '*The pervasive effects of family on entrepreneurship: Toward a family embeddedness perspective*,' *Journal of business venturing*, 18(5), pp. 573–596.
- Alesina, A., Lotti, F., and Mistrulli, P.E. (2013) '*Do women pay more for credit? Evidence from Italy*. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 11(1), pp. 45–66.
- Anderson, K. (2015) *Modern Misogyny: AntiFeminism in a Post-Feminist Era*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). '*The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team, and organizational development*,' *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 4, pp. 231-272.
- Bryman, A. (1992) *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. London: Sage.
- Budgeon, S. (2011) *Third-Wave Feminism and the Politics of Gender in Late Modernity*, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Caputo, R.K., and Dolinsky, A. (1998) '*Women's choice to pursue self-employment: the role of financial and human capital of household members*,' *Journal of Small Business Management*, 36(3), pp. 8–17.
- Carter, S., S. Mwaura, M. Ram, K. Trehan, and T. Jones (2015) '*Barriers to Ethnic Minority and Women's Enterprise: Existing Evidence, Policy Tensions and Unsettled Questions*,' *International Small Business Journal*, 33(1), pp. 49–69.

Carter, S., Shaw, E., Lam, W., and Wilson, F. (2007) '*Gender, Entrepreneurship, and Bank Lending: The Criteria and Processes Used by Bank Loan Officers in Assessing Applications*', *Entrepreneurship. Theory and Practice*, pp. 427–444.

Causser, P., and N. Park (2009). '*Women in Business*,' *Regional Trends*, 41, pp. 31–51.

Cesaroni, F.M. and Sentuti, A. (2015) *Family Business Succession: A Female Perspective*. Proceedings of the XXIX RENT Conference, Zagreb, Croatia.

Cesaroni, F.M., Lotti, F., and Mistrulli, P.E. (2013) *Female firms and bank's lending behavior: What happened during the great recession?* Banca d'Italia, Questioni di Economia e Finanza, Occasional Papers, http://www.bancaditalia.it/pubblicazioni/econo/quest_ecofin_2/qef177/QEF_177.pdf.

Chakravarty, A., & Bhatnagar, J. (2017) '*Engendering leadership in the Indian workplace - a framework on cross-level linkages*', *South Asian Journal of Business Studies*, 6(3), pp. 337.

Coleman, S., and Robb, A. (2009) '*A comparison of new firm financing by gender: Evidence from the Kauffman firm survey data*', *Small Business Economics*, 33, pp. 397–411.

Constantinidis, C., Cornet, A., and Asandei, S. (2006) '*Financing of women-owned ventures: The impact of gender and other owner- and firm-related variables*', *Venture Capital*, 8(2), pp. 133–157.

Cooper, A.C., and Dunkelberg, W.C. (1981) *Influences upon entrepreneurship. A large scale study*, *Academy of Management Meetings*, San Diego: CA.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2008) *Business research methods* (10th, International ed.). London; New York; McGraw-Hill, distributor; McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Cromie, S., and Hayes, J. (1988) '*Towards a typology of female entrepreneurs*', *The Sociological Review*, 36(1), pp. 87–113.

Curimbaba, F. (2002) '*The dynamics of women's roles as family business managers*', *Family Business Review*, 15(3), pp. 239–252

Dlamini, E. T., & Adams, J. D. (2014) '*Patriarchy: A case of women in institutions of higher education*', *Perspectives in Education*, 32(4), pp. 121-133.

Duchesneau, D.A., and Gartner, W.B. (1990) '*A profile of new venture success and failure in an emerging industry*', *Journal of Business Venturing*, 5(5), pp. 297–312.

Dumas, C. (1998) '*Women's pathways to participation and leadership in the family owned firm*', *Family Business Review*, 11(3), pp. 219–228.

Dyer, W.G., and Handler, W. (1994) '*Entrepreneurship and family business: Exploring the connections*', *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 19, pp. 71–71.

Eagly, A., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. (2001) '*Characteristics of women's leadership: The leadership styles of women's leadership: The leadership styles of women and men*', *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), pp. 781.

Eagly, A., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. & Van Engen, M. (2003) '*Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men*', *Psychological Bulletin*, 129, pp. 569-591.

Elomaki, A. (2015) '*The Economic Case for Gender Equality in the EU: Selling Gender Equality to Decision Makers and Neoliberalism to Women's Organization*', *European Journal of Women's Studies*, 22(3), pp. 288–302.

Ely, R. (1994) '*The Effects of Organizational Demographics and Social Identity on Relationships among Professional Women*', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39(2), pp. 203–238.

Eriksson-Zetterquist, U. (2008) '*Gendered Role Modelling—A Paradoxical Construction Process*', *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 24(3), pp. 259–270.

Fairlie, R., and Robb, A. (2009) '*Gender differences in business performance: Evidence from the characteristics of business owner survey*', *Small Business Economics*, 33(4), pp. 375–395.

García-Álvarez, E., López-Sintas, J., and Gonzalvo, P.S. (2002) '*Socialization patterns of successor in first- to second-generation family businesses*', *Family Business Review*, 15(3), pp. 189–204.

Gibson, D. (2004) '*Role Models in Career Development: New Directions for Theory and Research*', *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 65, pp. 134–156.

Goffee, R., and Scase, R. (1985) *Women in Charge: The Experiences of Female Entrepreneurs*. Allen & Unwin: London.

Gravey, V. (2014). '*Austerity at EU Level? How the Crisis Impacted EU Budget and Policies*', *Political Perspectives*, 8(2), pp. 1–19.

Grunow, D., Begall, K., & Buchler, S. (2018). '*Gender ideologies in Europe: A multidimensional framework*', *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 80(1), pp. 42–60. <http://dx.doi/10.1111/jomf.12453>

Gurley-Calvez, T., Biehl, A., and Harper, K. (2009) '*Time-Use Patterns and Women Entrepreneurs*', *The American Economic Review*, 99(2), pp. 139–144.

Haberman, H., and Danes, S.M. (2007) '*Father-daughter and father-son family business management transfer comparison: Family FIRO model application*', *Family Business Review*, 20(2), pp. 163–184.

Hill, G.E., and Welsh, H.P. (1986) *Entrepreneurship behavioural intentions and student independence characteristics and experiences*. In: Ronstadt R, Hornaday JA, Peterson R and Vesper KH (eds). *Frontiers of Entrepreneurial Research*. Center for Entrepreneurial Studies, Babson College, MA

Hofstede's Insights. (2019). *Compare countries*. Retrieved from <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/product/compare-countries/>

Hughes, K. (2003) '*Pushed or pulled? Women's entry into self-employment and small business ownership*', *Gender, Work and Organization*, 10(4), pp. 433–454.

Husserl, E. (2012) *Ideas: General introduction to pure phenomenology*, Routledge.

Ibarra, H. (1999) 'Provisional Selves: Experimenting with Image and Identity in Professional Adaptation,' *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44, pp. 764–791.

Inoue, M. (2007) 'Language and Gender in the Age of Neoliberalism,' *Gender and Language*, 1(1), pp. 79–91.

Kelley, D., Brush, C., Greene, P., and Litovsky, Y. (2010). *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Women's Report*. Wellesley, MA: Babson College

Kothari, C. (2004) *Research methodology*, New Delhi: New Age International (P) Ltd.

Kwon, R., Mahutga, M. C., & Admire, A. (2017). 'Promoting patriarchy or dual equality? Multiculturalism and the immigrant household division of labor', *The Sociological Quarterly*, 58(3), pp. 373-404.

<http://dx.doi/10.1080/00380253.2017.1331416>

Lewis, P. (2014) 'Postfeminism, Femininities and Organization Studies: Exploring a New Agenda,' *Organization Studies*, 35(12), pp. 1845–1866.

McElwee, G., and Al-Riyami, R. (2003) 'Women entrepreneurs in Oman: Some barriers to success', *Career Development International*, 8(7), pp. 339–346.

McRobbie, A. (2009) *The Aftermath of Feminism*, London: Sage

McRobbie, A. (2015) 'Notes on the Perfect: Competitive Femininity in Neoliberal Times,' *Australian Feminist Studies*, 30(83), pp. 3–20.

Mies, M., & Shiva, V. (2014). *Ecofeminism*. London: Zed Books.

Moore, D.P. and Buttner, E.H. (1997) *Women Entrepreneurs. Moving Beyond the Glass Ceiling*. Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA

Neuman, W. L. (2013) *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Pearson Education.

OECD. (2004) *Women's entrepreneurship: Issues and policies*. Franco Angeli: Milano, Italy

Paoloni, P., and Demartini, P. (2012) 'The relational capital in female smes', *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics*, 2(1), pp. 23–32.

Paoloni, P., and Dumay, J. (2015) 'The relational capital of micro-enterprises run by women: The start-up phase', *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 15(2), pp. 172–197.

Radu, M., and Redien-Collot, R. (2008) 'The Social Representation of Entrepreneurs in the French Press: Desirable and Feasible Models?', *International Small Business Journal*, 26(3), pp.259–298.

Ram, M., and Holliday, R. (1993) 'Relative merits: Family culture and kinship in small firms', *Sociology*, 27(4), pp. 629–648.

Rønsen, M. (2012) *The family – a barrier or motivation for female entrepreneurship?* Discussion paper no. 727, Statistics Norway Research Department: Oslo

Sandy, Q., & Dumay, J. (2011) 'The qualitative research interview', *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*, 8(3), pp. 238-264.

<https://doi.org/10.1108/11766091111162070>

Saunders, M. N., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2015) *Research methods for business students*. Retrieved from <https://ebookcentral.proquest.com>

Schröder, E., Schmitt-Rodermund, E., and Arnaud, N. (2011) 'Career choice intentions of adolescents with a family business background', *Family Business Review*, 24(4), pp. 305–321.

Sciascia, S., Mazzola, P., Astrachan, J.H., and Pieper, T.M. (2012) 'The role of family ownership in international entrepreneurship: Exploring nonlinear effects', *Small Business Economics*, 38(1), pp. 15–31.

Scott, C.E. (1986) *'Why more women are becoming entrepreneurs'*, *Journal of Small Business Management*, 24(4), pp. 37–44.

Scott, M., and D. Twomey. (1988) *'The LongTerm Supply of Entrepreneurs: Students' Career Aspirations in Relation to Entrepreneurship'*, *Journal of Small Business Management*, 26, pp.35–13.

Sealy, R., and Singh, V. (2009) *'The Importance of Role-Models and Demographic Context for Senior Women's Work Identity Development,'* *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12(3), pp. 284–300.

Shapero, A., and Sokol, L. (1982) *The social dimensions of entrepreneurship*. In: Kent C, Sexton D and Vesper KH (eds). *The Encyclopedia of Entrepreneurship*. Prentice-Hall: Englewood Cliffs, NJ, pp 72–90

Shapiro, E., Haseltine, F., and Rowe, M. (1978) *'Moving Up: Role Models, Mentors, and the 'Patron System','* *Sloan Management Review*, 6(1), pp. 19–47.

Sieger, P., Nason, R.S., Zellweger, T., and Nordqvist, M. (2009) *'Family Portfolio'*, *Entrepreneurship*, 29(14).

Sutton, J., & Austin, Z. (2015) *'Qualitative research: Data collection, analysis, and management'*, *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 68(3), pp. 226–231.

Tasker, Y., and Negra, D. (2007). *Interrogating Postfeminism: Gender and the Politics of Popular Culture*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Vasavada, T. (2012). *'A cultural feminist perspective on leadership in non-profit organizations: A case of women leaders in India'*, *Public Administration Quarterly*, 36(4), pp. 462-503.

Vera, C.F. and Dean, M.A. (2005) *'An examination of the challenges daughters face in family business succession'*, *Family Business Review*, 18(4), pp. 321–345.

Walby, S. (1990) *From private to public patriarchy* In *Theorizing patriarchy*, eds. S. Walby. Oxford: Basil Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.7202/040760ar>

Wellington, A.J. (2006) '*Self-employment: the new solution for balancing family and career?*', *Labour Economics*, 13, pp. 357–386.

Yin, R.K. (2014) *Case study research: Design and methods*. (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Zamperi-Ahmad, S. (2011) '*Evidence of the characteristics of women entrepreneurs in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: An empirical investigation*', *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*; 3(2), pp. 123–143.

Zellweger, T., Sieger, P., and Halter, F. (2011) '*Should I stay or should I go? Career choice intentions of students with family business background*', *Journal of Business Venturing*, 26(5), pp. 521–536.