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CHAPTER 01
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of This Study

The number of women entrepreneurs worldwide continues to steadily increase. Today, women represent more than one-third of all people involved in entrepreneurial activity [Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), 2007]. The public is becoming more receptive to and encouraging of these women entrepreneurs, given their valuable contribution to the economy and society. Women entrepreneurs predominantly hold roles in informal sectors, and they tend to create new businesses around their family environment.

According to Bird (1989) women entrepreneurs tend to have smaller businesses with less capital, have lower revenues and fewer employees, and work in lower-profit industries. It seems that women entrepreneurs also tend to be sole owners and have less managerial experience in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Additionally, Loscocco and Robbinson (1991) found that women-owned businesses tend to be concentrated in the retail trade and service sector. Tambunan (2009) further states that SMEs are currently critical, as they constitute part of the efforts to alleviate poverty in developing countries, especially as part of the Millennium Development Goals. Greater opportunities for women to become entrepreneurs will very much assist in poverty reduction. Minniti (2010) has also demonstrated that most researchers agree that the role played by women entrepreneurs in the context of economic development is crucial. That study showed that women's embeddedness in local communities, as well as their greater reliance on smaller strong-ties networks, produces profound effects on their immediate surroundings. Welfare resulting from women entrepreneurs tends to be larger than that resulting from the activities of men, although access to entrepreneurship tends to be more readily obtained by men entrepreneurs. Thus, the presence

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of women entrepreneurs tends to be more significant in countries with low per-capita gross domestic product; this is because entrepreneurship offers a way out of poverty, especially to women with fewer opportunities in established labor markets.

According to McGowan *et al.* (2012), this form of new-venture business creation, however, brings its own set of challenges, including more fear of failure, lower optimism, and less confidence in business than men; additionally—and most importantly—they tend to secure less start-up finances. These circumstances can lead to failure to realize their personal fulfillment (PF) as entrepreneurs and to give back to the community to a greater extent. Women entrepreneurs, as per McCracken *et al.* (2015), are thought to be more risk-averse than men when making financial decisions, and so they tend to have relatively lower growth rates and lower levels of economic performance. When women need to make their own choices about work, family, and overall well-being, they often need to build a side activity in which they can develop their own concepts and plans; being in charge of these matters is a significant factor that makes remaining in their environment attractive. Women who own and operate side activities can serve as a valuable source of entrepreneurial spirit among rural/agricultural communities and provide further assistance in improving quality of life and welfare in declining rural areas (Markantoni & van Hoven, 2012). This is why women's entrepreneurship in Indonesia started to emerge as a means of surviving poverty, especially in rural areas. Furthermore, Marsden (1999) found that rural areas have become multi-purpose spaces used for relaxation, entertainment, working, and living, and Halfacree (2006) similarly found that the growing demand made on rural regions—with the aid of society—as tourism and recreation sites, in addition to excellent and local food manufacturing, has converted the countryside from a predominantly production-based (i.e., agricultural) area to a predominantly consumption-oriented space. Moreover, as Markantoni and Van Hoven (2012) point out, rural communities can provide social and emotional services that encourage a household to remain in a area of

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economic decline, as small-scale economic activities can contribute significantly to quality of life and well-being.

In this rural case study area in Bantul district, Indonesia, women entrepreneurs, especially in coastal areas, are generally older and married, and most of them have two or more children. Little attention has been devoted to exploring these demographic characteristics among women entrepreneurs in rural coastal areas, and their noneconomic outcomes [i.e., community impact (CI) and personal fulfillment (PF)]. Especially noteworthy are the barriers that can affect the relationship between the demographic characteristics of women entrepreneurs and noneconomic benefits (as significant pull factors in their decision to stay in the neighborhood). As mentioned, most of these respondents are mature in age (i.e., middle-aged) and they have secured enough wealth to run their own micro-small business; their role models are their parents, relatives, peers, and networks, and they help them determine their new ventures. They also actively participate in gender-based, home-based, and lifestyle entrepreneurship domains.

Unfortunately, there has been a dearth of gender-based research on the development of entrepreneurs in Indonesia. Especially lacking it that which focuses on the critical challenges that women face in becoming entrepreneurs, and the main obstacles that women-owned businesses face. Among the very few salient studies available is that of Tambunan (2009), who states that the low representation of women as entrepreneurs in Indonesia is often attributed to a range factors—namely, low levels of education and a lack of training opportunities, both of which make Indonesian women severely underprivileged in both the economy and society, and also the heavy burden of household chores. Additionally, there has been little research on the barriers that rural women entrepreneurs in developing countries face. This current study addresses this research lacuna by examining the relationship between demographic characteristics and the outcomes of women entrepreneurs, as well as the barriers that moderate

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the relationship between demographic characteristics and the outcomes of women entrepreneurs in a rural coastal area of a developing country. Among these barriers are a lack of entrepreneurial education, a lack of infrastructure support, gender inequality, low competitive ability, and a lack of access to financial resources. As such, the current study contributes to a fuller global perspective of women entrepreneurship in a developing country.

1.2 Research Objectives

The aims of this study are as follows:

1. Identify the relationships between the demographic characteristics and noneconomic outcomes of women entrepreneurs
2. Analyze the effects of the barriers that moderate the relationship between the demographic characteristics and noneconomic outcomes of women entrepreneurs

1.3 Organization of The Thesis

As briefly discussed, we examine the relationship between the demographic characteristics and outcomes of women entrepreneurs in the case of small businesses in Bantul, Indonesia, and also the effects of the barriers they face, which we expect adversely affect this relationship. This study is organized into seven chapters. Following Chapter 01 (Introduction), Chapter 02 reviews the theoretical background and examines some previous studies that relate to the demographic characteristics and outcomes of women entrepreneurs, and highlights noneconomic outcomes; in so doing, it addresses the moderation of five barriers. It is here that the current study's hypotheses are presented. Chapter 03 explains the method used in this study, and Chapter 04 presents the experimental results. Chapter 05 discusses the study findings and compares them to those in the literature. Chapter 06 concludes the overall discussion of the research findings. Finally, Chapter 07 considers this study's policy implications, contributions, and limitations, and offers some directions for future research.

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CHAPTER 02

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS

2.1 Demographic Characteristics of Women Entrepreneurs

Every woman entrepreneur possesses demographic characteristics that enable and help her perform activities essential to producing related products and services. Women entrepreneurs have also made significant strides towards gender-based equality, in areas such as education and the workplace; meanwhile, their position as the family "bedrock" in terms of parenting and homemaking remains relatively unchanged (Winn, 2004). Manzanera-Roman and Brandle (2016) identify a gender discourse that reflects how entrepreneurs provide abilities considered as "belonging" to women. Entrepreneurial patterns vis-à-vis abilities and skills tend to differ between men and women, with those of women tending to center on perseverance, the ability to treat people with empathy or social sensitivity, and skills in dealing with people and communication. Based on Bass *et al.* (1996), women entrepreneurs display distinct abilities in exhibiting more "transformational" leadership, compared to their male counterparts—that is, a management style that seeks to foster positive interactions and trust relations with or among subordinates, to share power and information, and to encourage employees to subordinate their personal aims and interests to collective ends.

Furthermore, regarding to entrepreneur age, Azoulay *et al.* (2018) found that the highest entrepreneurial success rates come from middle-aged founders (i.e., 30–40 years). This finding is consistent with theories that key entrepreneurial resources (e.g., human, financial, and social capital) accumulate with age. Meanwhile, while young entrepreneurs are thought to have their own advantages (e.g., higher energy levels), they appear to be overwhelmed by other factors.

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2.2 Outcomes of Women Entrepreneurs

Cejka and Eagly (1999) studied social role theory and considered the structural account of gender-based differences in human behavior; they assert that women and men behave according to the stereotypes associated with the social roles they occupy. Eagly and Wood (1999) note that women are considered more communal, and this is characterized by attributes commonly associated with domestic activities (e.g., nurturance, connectedness, kindness, and emotional expressiveness). Likewise, McGowan *et al.* (2012) state that the key motivation for women in entering entrepreneurship is *not* making money: noneconomic factors proved more important. Women have pointed to a greater sense of well-being, PF, satisfaction, and joy in their various accomplishments in running their own businesses. Additionally, Bruni *et al.* (2004) state that women entrepreneurs socialized into gender models tend to embody values and produce behaviors that create a social expectation of behavior differences; this expectation bases itself on essentialist or culturalist assumptions and shapes a new normative model of women's experiences. Thus, it seems that noneconomic indicators are stronger motivators of women entrepreneurs. The noneconomic outcomes of entrepreneurship, according to Wacht *et al.* (2016), include social impact [which includes firm reputation and firm continuity (i.e., social responsibility among employees, firm-level social contribution, and the building of environmentally friendly firms)] and personal fulfilment [which encompasses personal aspects of success (i.e., work–life balance, personal work flexibility, autonomy in decision-making, and personal development)]. These collectively suggest considerable heterogeneity in the motivations of women entrepreneurs, ranging from self-realization, family security, and employee relations to societal contributions.

2.2.1 Community Impact

"Community impact" refers to the positive image of a firm as a contributor to its community. Women entrepreneurship contributes significantly to job creation in developed

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and developing nations, and as Shmiln (2017) reports, many women want to contribute to society and make a difference in the world. Schneider (2017) suggests that women entrepreneurs have shown strong performance in societal dimensions, including the enhancement of social relationships, public visibility, and contributions to society. These study findings align with those of Bird and Brush (2002), that women entrepreneurs satisfied with their entrepreneurial careers tend to focus more on socioemotional satisfaction stemming from interpersonal relationships with employees and customers, and their pursuit of social goals.

2.2.2 Personal Fulfillment

PF encompasses personal aspects of success. Based on Bruni *et al.* (2004), women entrepreneurs' concerns vis-à-vis relational aspects and flexibility are seen in so many supporting roles, and in their everyday coordination of family and work responsibilities; these matters are presented in the business literature as valuable and exploitable organizational resources. Shmiln (2017) offers another description of the outcomes of women entrepreneurs': in Asia, over 66% of women entrepreneurs cite the desire to have autonomy and freedom as their key reason for starting a business, followed by a sense of security and a sense of achieving goals. These include the desire for independence, being their own boss, achieving personal dreams, using their creative skills, being more fulfilled, and achieving a greater sense of power. McGowan *et al.* (2012) suggest also that they are motivated by time-use flexibility and childcare obligations.

Bougerre (2005) argues that women have a tendency to be discouraged from embracing entrepreneurial activities, especially when they face a number of constraints (e.g., lack of training, financing, gender inequality, and support for entrepreneurship, along with cultural and tradition-based constraints); this tendency influences the choices that they make and the actions executed in their businesses. The suggestion made here is that there are considerable barriers

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associated with the many cognitive biases, values, and perceptions that influence entrepreneurial decision-making. The current study, therefore, analyzes whether certain barriers affect the relationship between the demographic characteristics and outcomes of women entrepreneurs.

2.3 Relationship between Demographic Characteristics and Outcomes of Women Entrepreneurs

2.3.1 Age

A number of individual factors may play roles in women entrepreneurs' outcomes. According to many previous studies, age is a key demographic characteristic in understanding entrepreneurial behavior and intentions. Research findings have highlighted that the most active entrepreneurship is seen among individuals aged 25 years and older (Levesque & Minniti, 2006). Moreover, Wacth *et al.* (2016) state that women entrepreneurs who are older tend to bring more experience and knowledge to their small businesses, and in this way may influence outcomes. Older women entrepreneurs may also be more experienced in managing people and dealing with a wide variety of situations. Wacth *et al.* (2016) also found that the importance of specific success factors shifts with age (i.e., from financial rewards to CI).

Hypothesis 1 (H1): *There is a relationship between age and better outcomes.*

2.3.2 Marital Status

A married woman entrepreneur's work requires the consideration of her husband, as the husband's role impacts the marriage; as such, resulting marital adjustments influence the wife and her business. Nikita *et al.* (2015) found that a spouse's influence has an essential effect on women entrepreneurs' productivity, as either the husband or the wife can hold a joint utility function driven by their relative productivity, which has been accumulated through experience and training (usually on the job). In fact, it is one of the primary determinants of

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productivity. Thus, marriage is hypothesized to have a positive effect on entrepreneurial outcomes.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): *There is a relationship between being married and better outcomes.*

2.3.3 Number of Children

Parental demand is assessed in terms of the number of children and their ages. Especially in rural areas, according to Tambunan (2017), the more children a woman has, in general, the greater the demand is for them to undertake the traditional role of being responsible for housework and childcare, relative to urban women.

Ozcan (2011) reports that the presence of children might lead women to enter into a type of self-employment that requires fewer resources and accumulated skills; furthermore, Buttner and Moor (1997) state that the number of children motivates women entrepreneurs to measure success in terms of self-fulfillment and social contributions. This impact seems to specifically relate to the number of children they have: women with one child have a productivity rate 4.5% lower than women without children; this figure for women with two children increases to about 10%, and reaches approximately 22% for women with three or more children (Mari, Poggessi, & de Vita, 2014).

Hypothesis 3 (H3): *There is a relationship between number of children and worse outcomes.*

2.4 Barriers as Moderators between Demographic Characteristics and Noneconomics Outcomes

Thus far, we have offered hypotheses regarding the relationship between this study's independent variables (age, marital status, and number of children) and its dependent

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variables [noneconomic entrepreneurial outcomes (i.e., CI and PF)]. In this subsection, we determine whether the following barriers (Akehurst 2012) moderate these relationships.

Table *1.* Cross-references of the barriers to women entrepreneurs

Barriers	**Description**	**Supported literature**
(1) Infrastructure/trainings difficulties		
	lack of training	(Panda, 2018), (Moudud Ul-Huq, 2013), (Idrus, Pauzi, & Munir, 2014), (Shah, 2013), (Benzing, Chu, & Kara, 2009)
	lack of infrastructure and lack of transport facility	(Meenakshi & Mahapatra, 2015), (Panda, 2018), (work-family conflict (Panda, 2018), (Shah, 2013)
	insufficient guidelines and information on the entrepreneurship activity	(Moudud Ul-Huq, 2013), (Shah, 2013), (Benzing, Chu, & Kara, 2009)
	flexible job that allows them to combine their working lives with the needs of their families and work in the home	(Scott, 1986)
	role model and development of preference for an entrepreneurial career	(Scherer, Adams, Carley, & Wiebe, 1989)
(2) Difficulties due to gender		(Panda, 2018), (Shah, 2013),
	further explained by that gender-related personal problems amplify obstacles for women entrepreneurs,	(Jennings & McDougald, 2007)
	increase their perception of the negative influence on running their businesses	(Welsh & Kaciak, 2018)
(3) Bureaucratic and external financial difficulties		(Benzing, Chu, & Kara, 2009),
	furthermore, tax policy and taxation can have a profound negative influence on the women entrepreneurship development	(Moudud Ul-Huq, 2013),
	financial problems faced were non-availability of long-term finance, the regular need of working capital	(Meenakshi & Mahapatra, 2015)
	thus women also more likely to use loans from family members for their business	(Derera, Chitkunye, & 0'neill, 2014)
(4) competition difficulties		(Benzing, Chu, & Kara, 2009)
(5) conciliation difficulties		
	that male entrepreneurs do not have to be anxious because much about their household duties are done by the female entrepreneurs	(Moudud Ul-Huq, 2013) and (Shah, 2013)
	that male entrepreneurs do not have to be anxious because much about their household duties are done by the female entrepreneurs; thus family moral support was associated with a better women's firm performance	(Minialai & Sqalli, 2016)

The basic idea in anticipating such moderation is that we may expect a weaker relationship between age and outcomes among women entrepreneurs who face high-level

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barriers than among those who face low-level barriers. When we apply this thinking to infrastructure/training difficulties and the relationship between age and CI, we can make the following argument. As a precondition in simplifying the discussion, we expect that regardless of the level of difficulties they experience, older women entrepreneurs will realize better outcomes than their younger counterparts, based on H1. In terms of the main point, when the difficulties are not serious (e.g., those related to the quality of training or of the hard/soft infrastructures available), older women entrepreneurs pay due attention to social and environmental (noneconomic) issues by utilizing almost the full extent of their potential. In such cases, the gap between young and old entrepreneurs in terms of CI performance is relatively large. On the other hand, when the difficulties are serious (e.g., training and infrastructure is hard to access), older entrepreneurs may concentrate more on the economic aspects of performance in order to protect their businesses, and thus pay less attention to CI. Consequently, the gap between younger and older women entrepreneurs in terms of CI is likely to be small. Certainly, young entrepreneurs experience barriers, but to a lesser degree than their older counterparts, because their maximum potential is relatively lower; therefore, their absolute level of CI performance is also likely to be relatively lower. This sort of explanation applies to different types of barriers and/or different types of noneconomic outcomes—that is, self-fulfillment as well as community outcomes. Therefore, the constraints that women entrepreneurs in developing countries face on account of various issues are likely to affect the relationship between the age of women entrepreneurs and their outcomes.

Hypothesis 4 (H4): *Barriers moderate the relationship between age and outcomes, such that this relationship is adversely affected when barriers are higher.*

The next step is to examine the moderation of the relationship between marital status and outcomes among the women entrepreneurs, and that we may expect the relationship to be weaker for women entrepreneurs who face high-level barriers than for those who face low-

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level barriers. When we apply this thinking, for example, to how gender-based difficulties moderate the relationship between marital status and PF, the following argument can arise. As a precondition to simplify the discussion, we expect that regardless of the level of difficulty they experience, married women entrepreneurs achieve better outcomes than those who are widowed, based on H2. Here, we understand that the gender barrier tends to manifest in family experiences, although the survey items more generally relate to society at large. When their difficulties are not serious (i.e., the respondent finds it easy to handle problems in combining business activity and family life, as their business activity allows them to combine their working lives with the needs of their families and work inside the home), married women entrepreneurs may cite their PF, as they have the support of their husband; in such cases, the gap in PF between married and widowed entrepreneurs is relatively large. On the other hand, when their difficulties are serious (i.e., problems with combining business activity and family life), married women entrepreneurs may have more stress on account of being married. Consequently, the gap in PF between married and widowed women entrepreneurs is likely to be small. Widowed women entrepreneurs surely suffer from barriers, but to a lesser degree, because the positive or negative influence of husbands may be much stronger than that of other male family members. Overall, this explanation may also apply to other types of barriers and/or different types of noneconomic outcomes, such as PF and CI. Therefore, the constraints that women entrepreneurs in developing countries face are likely to adversely affect the relationship between the marital status of women entrepreneurs and their entrepreneurial outcomes.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): *Barriers moderate the relationship between being married and better outcomes, such that this relationship is adversely affected when barriers are higher.*

The last step in exploring the moderation of the relationship between number of children and outcomes among women entrepreneurs is that we may expect the outcomes to be

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weaker among those who face high-level barriers than those who face low-level ones. The example of the moderating effects of infrastructure/training difficulties can be applied to the relationship between the number of children and CI, as in the previous argument for H4. We expect that whatever the level of difficulty, women entrepreneurs with fewer children see better outcomes than those who have more children, based on H3. In terms of the main point, when the difficulties are not serious (i.e., good training and hard/soft infrastructures are available to the entrepreneur), women entrepreneurs with no or a small number of children may have more room to develop and utilize their own resources and capabilities and thus achieve greater CI (i.e., noneconomic outcomes), as they can allocate comparatively more time to their business role than can those with a large number of children. Consequently, the gap in CI performance between women entrepreneurs with small and large numbers of children is relatively large. On the other hand, when the difficulties are serious (i.e., it is difficult to access training and/or infrastructure), women entrepreneurs will not have opportunities to develop and utilize their resources and capabilities, even if they have few or no children. Consequently, the gap in CI between women entrepreneurs with small and large numbers of children is likely to be small. Women entrepreneurs with a small number of children are, doubtless, likely to face barriers, but to a lesser degree, because the amount of time and resources they can devote to business activities is more limited, and the relative damage of a higher barrier is also relatively more limited. This assertion is supported by Shah (2013), who found that mothers with more children will spend more time in the house, as their motherhood responsibilities are more intensive and they are more likely to set aside their business. Overall, this thinking may also be applicable to other types of barriers and/or different types of noneconomic outcomes—that is, PF and CI. Therefore, the constraints that women entrepreneurs in developing countries face are likely to adversely affect the relationship between the number of children a women entrepreneur has and her business outcomes.

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Hypothesis 6 (H6): *Barriers moderate the relationship between the number of children and outcomes, such that this relationship is adversely affected when barriers are higher.*