ISSN (Online): 2455-3662
EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (IJMR) - Peer Reviewed Journal
Volume: 11| Issue: 2| February 2025|| Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra2013 || SJIF Impact Factor 2025: 8.691 || ISI Value: 1.188

EMPOWERING WOMEN THROUGH INNOVATIVE ENTREPRENEURSHIP: THE ROLE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTION

Ms. S. Indhirapratha[1], Dr. H. Samuel Thavaraj[2]
[1]*Full Time Research Scholar, Department of Rural Industries and Management, The Gandhigram Rural Institute – Deemed to be University, Gandhigram, Tamil Nadu, India.*
[2]*Associate Professor, Department of Rural Industries and Management, The Gandhigram Rural Institute - Deemed to be University, Gandhigram, Tamil Nadu, India.*
[*]*Corresponding Author*

Article DOI: https://doi.org/10.36713/epra20094
DOI No: 10.36713/epra20094

ABSTRACT
Research highlights that empowering women through creative entrepreneurship is essential for social and economic progress. This research looks at the relationship among women's empowerment and entrepreneurial intention, highlighting key factors that contribute to it. The findings indicate that risk-taking intent is a strong analyst of empowerment and is shaped by resources, family support, and education. Family support provides essential emotional and material backing, while education enhances skills, confidence, and decision-making capabilities. However, persistent hurdles such as limited access to networks, subsidy, and entrepreneurial training hinder progress. Addressing these issues requires strategic measures, including financial assistance, mentorship programs, and specialized educational initiatives tailored to women entrepreneurs. Leveraging creativity and technology, innovative entrepreneurship enables women to overcome traditional barriers, access untapped markets, and achieve financial independence. This transformative process not only empowers women but also drives social change, fostering equality and sustainable development. By supporting women's entrepreneurial efforts, societies can unlock their potential as change-makers and contributors to economic resilience and inclusivity.

KEYWORDS: *Entrepreneurship, Women, Innovative, Empowerment, Entrepreneurial Intention*

INTRODUCTION

The empowerment of women through the avenue of entrepreneurship has been widely acknowledged and documented as an essential strategy that plays an important role in advancing both cost-effective growth and transformative societal change within societies. (C. G. Brush et al., 2020; GEM, 2020). The engagement of women in entrepreneurial endeavours has been empirically demonstrated to yield a multitude of positive effects on various aspects, including economic growth, the alleviation of poverty, and the enhancement of overall social welfare within communities (C. G. Brush et al., 2010; Carter et al., 2006; Coleman, 2000). Nonetheless, it is important to recognize that women entrepreneurs frequently encounter a myriad of substantial barriers that impede their ability to initiate and expand their businesses, which include, but are not limited to, a pronounced lack of access to essential capital, supportive networks, and requisite resources (C. G. Brush et al., 2010; S. Robinson & Thavaraj, n.d.)

The intention to engage in entrepreneurship is a critical determinant that significantly influences the overall success of women entrepreneurs, as this intention profoundly impacts their decisions regarding the initiation of business ventures and their capacity to surmount various obstacles that may arise along their entrepreneurial journey (Al-Dajani & Marlow, 2013; Fayolle & Liñán, 2014; Guerrero et al., 2008; Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006). Moreover, the construct of entrepreneurship intention itself is inherently complex and multifaceted, having been the subject of extensive scholarly investigation and analysis within the academic literature (Al-Dajani & Marlow, 2013; Fayolle et al., 2006)

Empirical investigation has shown that females' involvement in entrepreneurial activities not individual promotes their financial independence but also fosters job creation and enhances community welfare. (Minniti, 2010; Terjesen et al., 2016). Therefore, the progress of females' plays a crucial role in driving both commercial and societal advancement in diverse contexts (S. Thavaraj, 2012). Nevertheless, women entrepreneurs frequently encounter distinctive obstacles that impede their business success. These obstacles comprise restricted access to financial capital, inadequate professional networks, and societal norms that deter entrepreneurial endeavors, particularly within male-dominated sectors (Klapper & Parker, 2011). Academic findings suggest that women are often regarded as less capable of thriving in high-growth industries, which constrains their prospects for business expansion and innovation(Marlow & McAdam, 2013).Such systemic impediments reflect overarching gender disparities in

ISSN (Online): 2455-3662
EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (IJMR) - Peer Reviewed Journal
Volume: 11| Issue: 2| February 2025|| Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra2013 || SJIF Impact Factor 2025: 8.691 || ISI Value: 1.188

the labor market and entrepreneurial landscape, highlighting the necessity for policies and initiatives aimed at lecturing the sole tasks faced by female entrepreneurs. (Henry et al., 2016).

Entrepreneurial intention, a pivotal factor influencing business formation, occupies a central position in women's entrepreneurial trajectories(S. Thavaraj, 2015). Intentions are influenced by a multitude of factors, including individual attitudes, perceived behavioural control, and social dynamics, which either encourage or deter entrepreneurial activities (Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014). For women, nurturing entrepreneurial intention frequently necessitates surmounting gender-specific challenges, such as societal expectations and a dearth of role models in the entrepreneurial arena (H. S. Thavaraj & Haorei, 2020; Verheul et al., 2012). Educational initiatives, mentorship programs, and access to business resources have been demonstrated to significantly bolster women's entrepreneurial intentions and their overall success in trade ventures (Acuña-Duran et al., 2021; Shinnar, Powell, et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2007). By cultivating a conducive ecosystem, the entrepreneurial potential of women can be fully actualized, thereby contributing to wider economic and social transformation.

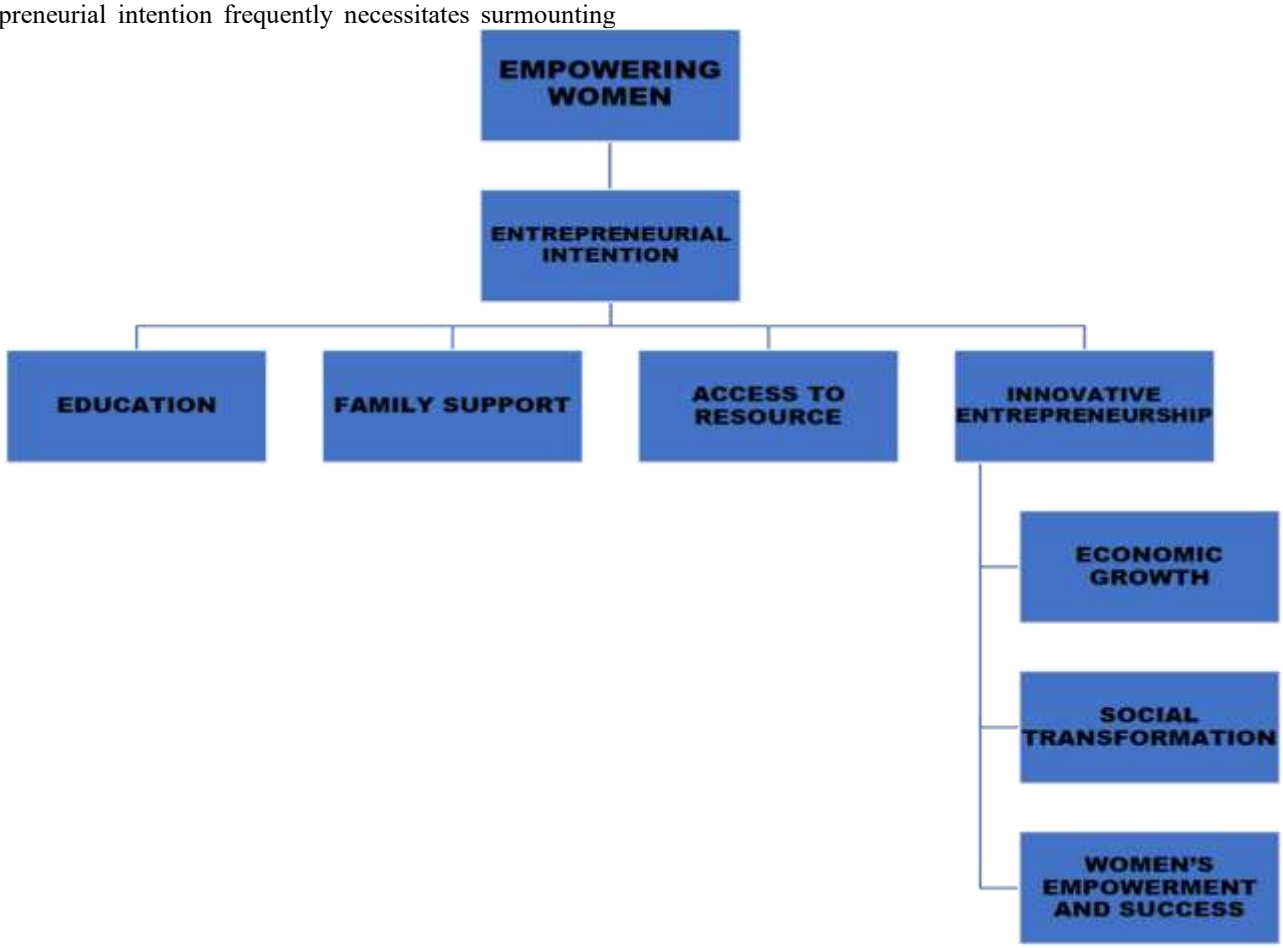


Fig. Conceptual Framework

METHODOLOGY

A comprehensive literature revision was undertaken to identify the key aspects that impact business intent and women's empowerment. The review included publications from Google Scholar. The keywords included in the search were "women's entrepreneurship," "empowerment," "entrepreneurship intention," and "innovative entrepreneurship."

FACTORS

The review identified several factors that influence entrepreneurship intention and the empowerment of women. These factors include:

EDUCATION

Education has been revealed to positively impact business intent and the success of women entrepreneurs. (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006) (Kolvereid, 1996). Education plays a vital role in the improvement of innovative goals, particularly among women, by furnishing them with the requisite skills, knowledge, and confidence to embark upon business endeavors. Empirical research consistently affirms that education augments critical thinking, problem-solving capabilities, and decision-making acumen, all of which are indispensable for achieving entrepreneurial success (Nabi et al., 2024). In particular, entrepreneurship education facilitates the growth of entrepreneurial self-efficacy in women, which pertains to their conviction in their capability to competently execute tasks associated with entrepreneurship. This elevated self-efficacy is closely linked to improved entrepreneurial intentions and an increased probability of initiating a business(H. S. Thavaraj, 2014; Wilson et al., 2007) .

ISSN (Online): 2455-3662
EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (IJMR) - Peer Reviewed Journal
Volume: 11| Issue: 2| February 2025|| Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra2013 || SJIF Impact Factor 2025: 8.691 || ISI Value: 1.188

Furthermore, education avails women of access to networks, mentors, and resources that they may not have otherwise encountered, thereby further augmenting their entrepreneurial competencies. Scholarly investigations have indicated that women possessing higher educational qualifications are more likely to pursue opportunity-driven enterprise slightly than a necessity-driven business person, which is often more prevalent among women with lesser educational attainment (Reynolds et al., 2004). Opportunity-based entrepreneurs exhibit a greater propensity to innovate and expand their businesses, thereby contributing to enhanced economic development and employment generation (Acs et al., 2015).

In addition, formal education and training in business-related disciplines amplify the likelihood of women establishing and sustaining prosperous enterprises. This educational experience not only imparts technical skills, such as financial management and marketing but also enhances their ability to navigate intricate regulatory frameworks and manage risk (Pittaway & Cope, 2007). By cultivating an entrepreneurial mindset and improving resource mobilisation capabilities, education profoundly elevates both the entrepreneurial intent and long-term success of female entrepreneurs(P. B. Robinson & Sexton, 1994).

FAMILY SUPPORT

Family support has been recognized as a crucial factor in fostering entrepreneurship intention and the empowerment of women (C. G. Brush et al., 2010).Family support has been persistently acknowledged as an essential determinant impacting entrepreneurial intentions, especially among women. The family unit assumes a vital function in furnishing both emotional and material resources that promote entrepreneurial endeavours. Family members can extend financial assistance, distribute business responsibilities, and provide psychological encouragement, which are indispensable for women entrepreneurs who confront various societal and business-related obstacles (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003; Carr & Sequeira, 2007).

Furthermore, empirical studies suggest that women entrepreneurs who benefit from robust family support are more inclined to persist in the face of adversities, given that they possess a safety net to rely upon in instances of failure or setbacks (Powell & Eddleston, 2013). The endorsement of family members mitigates the mental and financial strains often encountered by entrepreneurs, permitting them to concentrate on the strategic dimensions of business development (Chang et al., 2009). This degree of support is particularly significant in cultures where women are anticipated to harmonise household obligations with business pursuits, as family participation can ease the burden of juggling both roles(Welsh et al., 2013).

Additionally, the role of the family as a social and financial asset is exceedingly vital in developing economies where access to formal financing and networks may be restricted for women entrepreneurs (Eddleston & Powell, 2012). In such contexts, family members frequently furnish seed capital or assist in business management, acting as informal partners who are dedicated to the achievement of the industry (Sequeira et al., 2007). Moreover, family enterprises often assist as a fundamental training ground for females, offering them early exposure to entrepreneurship and business management, which significantly bolsters their entrepreneurial intentions (Dyer Jr, 2003; Sharma et al., 2003).

Family support also assumes a psychological dimension by enhancing business self-efficacy, which states to the trust in one's ability to accomplish achievement as an entrepreneur. Women who receive encouragement from their families are v. This psychological reinforcement is crucial, as numerous women contend with societal and cultural pressures that dissuade them from engaging in business opportunities (Verheul et al., 2012). This exposure functions as a variant of informal education, equipping women with the requisite skills, networks, and resilience to adeptly navigate the multifaceted nature of entrepreneurship (Chrisman et al., 2005).

ACCESS TO RESOURCES

Access to wealth such as capital, linkages, and abilities is essential for the achievement of female business persons (C. G. Brush et al., 2020). Insufficient access to such resources constraints entrepreneurial endeavours and limits growth prospects, thereby impeding females' capability to compete on equal terms with their male complements (Carter et al., 2006). The absence of adequate resources frequently results in women initiating businesses with diminished capital, operating within less lucrative sectors, and experiencing lower rates of business sustainability(Marlow & McAdam, 2013).

A major obstacle for woman tycoons is the partial access to financial investment. Empirical investigation has revealed that women are less likely than men to obtain funding from old-fashioned financial institutions, such as banks and undertaking capital firms, owing to both institutional and societal biases (Colman et al., 2019; Henry et al., 2016).Consequently, numerous women depend on personal savings or family loans to fund their ventures, potentially restricting the size and growth potential of their businesses (Carter et al., 2006).

In addition to capital, professional networks are instrumental in facilitating entrepreneurial success by enabling access to essential information, opportunities, and resources that are critical for business expansion (Klyver & Grant, 2010). Nevertheless, research suggests that female entrepreneurs often have diminished access to high-quality professional networks compared to their male peers, which may hinder their capacity to establish strategic alliances, secure investments, and penetrate markets (Burt, 1998). These networks are vital not only for acquiring financial resources but also for enhancing credibility and obtaining invaluable industry insights (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003) . The gendered dynamics of numerous business networks can exacerbate this issue, as male-dominated networks frequently exclude women, whether intentionally or unintentionally (Ibarra, 1992). This exclusion from influential networks engenders additional barriers to growth and restricts women's entrepreneurial prospects (Eddleston & Powell, 2008).

ISSN (Online): 2455-3662
EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (IJMR) - Peer Reviewed Journal
Volume: 11| Issue: 2| February 2025|| Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra2013 || SJIF Impact Factor 2025: 8.691 || ISI Value: 1.188

Furthermore, access to entrepreneurial skills and knowledge constitutes another pivotal factor affecting women's entrepreneurial success. Entrepreneurial education and training initiatives furnish women with the requisite skills to adeptly navigate the challenges associated with initiating and scaling a business, including aspects like financial management marketing, and strategic planning (Henry et al., 2005). However, in numerous regions, women encounter diminished access to both formal and informal educational opportunities, which can impede their entrepreneurial advancement (C. G. Brush et al., 2010). The lack of access to such competencies not only compromises women's ability to effectively manage their enterprises but also constrains their capacity to innovate and adapt to market fluctuations (Minniti, 2010).

Furthermore, cultural and societal conventions can intensify the obstacles that women encounter in their pursuit of resource accessibility. In numerous cultural contexts, the roles assigned to women are predominantly characterised as caregivers, thereby constraining their access to formal financial resources and the requisite time necessary for the cultivation and maintenance of professional networks (Ahl, 2006; Ramesh et al., n.d.; H. S. Thavaraj, 2014). Such societal expectations frequently dissuade women from engaging fully in entrepreneurial endeavours or from pursuing businesses oriented towards growth (Marlow & McAdam, 2013). Consequently, even when women possess the requisite skills and motivation, they may find themselves devoid of the external support and resources essential for achieving success (Carter et al., 2015; S. Robinson & Thavaraj, n.d.).

Mitigating these barriers necessitates a holistic strategy that encompasses financial assistance programs, broadened networking opportunities, and improved entrepreneurial education exactly tailor-made to encounter the unique requirements of females (Henry et al., 2005). By creating an equitable environment concerning resource accessibility, women can attain enhanced success in entrepreneurship, thereby contributing to both economic development and the advancement of gender equality (C. Brush et al., 2019)

INNOVATIVE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Innovative entrepreneurship serves as a formidable instrument for the empowerment of women, facilitating opportunities to tackle distinctive challenges and cultivate novel pathways for economic and social integration. Women engaged in innovative entrepreneurship frequently harness creativity, technological advancements, and pioneering business paradigms to fabricate goods and services that cater to the requirements of underserved markets or offer alternative remedies to prevailing issues (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). This innovative capacity not only allows women to establish a competitive edge in saturated markets but also promotes sustainable economic growth by adapting to the shifting demands of consumers (Fagerberg, 2006).

Women entrepreneurs, particularly within developing geographical areas, frequently discern unmet needs in their local environments, which may encompass products or services that tackle challenges associated with health, education, or household management (Wilson et al., 2007). By fostering innovation in these domains, women are capable of establishing new enterprises that not only confer financial autonomy but also elevate the overall quality of life within their communities (C. G. Brush & Cooper, 2012) .

Furthermore, technological innovation has emerged as a pivotal catalyst for females' enterprise, especially in the digital age, the availability of technology and digital platforms empowers women to transcend geographical limitations, engage with wider markets, and efficiently scale their entrepreneurial endeavours (Marlow & McAdam, 2013). Empirical studies indicate that women entrepreneurs employing technology-driven business models, such as e-commerce or digital platforms, tend to experience enhanced business growth rates and increased autonomy over their enterprises (Hisrich et al., 2017). This transition towards digital innovation is vital for women in both advanced and developing economies, as it enables them to circumvent traditional gatekeeping mechanisms and gain access to new customer bases and resources (Acs et al., 2018).

Moreover, collaboration and open innovation represent fundamental components of innovative entrepreneurship that facilitate the empowerment of women. By participating in collaborative networks and strategic partnerships, women entrepreneurs can access a plethora of new ideas, technologies, and resources that significantly bolster their innovative capabilities (Foss et al., 2011). This approach allows women to integrate into entrepreneurial ecosystems that offer mentorship, funding, and knowledge-sharing opportunities, which are critical for fostering innovation and ensuring business sustainability(C. G. Brush & Cooper, 2012). Collaborative innovation proves particularly efficacious in sectors where women are significantly underrepresented, such as technology and manufacturing, as it provides the necessary support to surmount systemic obstacles (Minniti & Nardone, 2007).

Additionally, social innovation has emerged as an expanding field wherein women entrepreneurs have made noteworthy contributions. Social entrepreneurs concentrate on devising products and services that confront societal challenges, including poverty, inequality, and environmental degradation, with women often leading these initiatives (Nicholls, 2006). By crafting innovative solutions to social issues, women entrepreneurs not only generate economic benefits but also contribute significantly to societal transformation and empowerment of marginalised populations (Austin et al., 2012). This dual emphasis on profitability and social purpose epitomises the characteristics of women-led innovative enterprises and underscores the broader societal implications of women's entrepreneurship (Dees, 2007).

CONCLUSION

Empowering women through innovative entrepreneurship is crucial for economic growth and social transformation. Entrepreneurial intention drives women's empowerment and success, with education, family support, and access to resources enhancing entrepreneurial capabilities. Education equips women with skills, confidence, and self-efficacy, while family

ISSN (Online): 2455-3662
EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (IJMR) - Peer Reviewed Journal
Volume: 11| Issue: 2| February 2025|| Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra2013 || SJIF Impact Factor 2025: 8.691 || ISI Value: 1.188

support provides emotional and material assistance, balancing business and familial responsibilities. However, limited access to crucial wealth such as fiscal funds, professional networks, and entrepreneurial education poses significant barriers to women's entrepreneurial success. Comprehensive strategies, including financial support programs, enhanced networking opportunities, and tailored educational initiatives, are needed to address these challenges. Innovative entrepreneurship allows women to leverage technology and creativity to address societal needs, penetrate new markets, and achieve financial independence. Digital platforms and technological advancements empower women to scale businesses, overcome traditional barriers, and engage in global commerce. Social innovation driven by women entrepreneurs generates substantial social impact by addressing pressing societal issues.

REFERENCES

1. *Acs, S. J., Desai, S., & Klapper, L. F. (2015). What does '"entrepreneurship"'data really show? In Global Entrepreneurship, Institutions and Incentives (pp. 464–480). Edward Elgar Publishing.*
2. *Acs, S. J., Estrin, S., Mickiewics, T., & Sserb, L. (2018). Entrepreneurship, institutional economics, and economic growth: an ecosystem perspective. Small Business Economics, 51, 501–514.*
3. *Acuña-Duran, E., Pradenas-Wilson, D., Oyanedel, J. C., & Jalon-Gardella, R. (2021). Entrepreneurial intention and perceived social support from academics-scientists at Chilean Universities. Frontiers in Psychology, 12, 682632.*
4. *Ahl, H. (2006). Why research on women entrepreneurs needs new directions. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 30(5), 595–621.*
5. *Al-Dajani, H., & Marlow, S. (2013). Empowerment and entrepreneurship: A theoretical framework. International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research, 19(5), 503–524.*
6. *Aldrich, H. E., & Cliff, J. E. (2003). The pervasive effects of family on entrepreneurship: Toward a family embeddedness perspective. Journal of Business Venturing, 18(5), 573–596.*
7. *Austin, J., Stevenson, H., & Wei-Skillern, J. (2012). Social and commercial entrepreneurship: same, different, or both? Revista de Administração, 47(3), 370–384.*
8. *Brush, C., Edelman, L. F., Manolova, T., & Welter, F. (2019). A gendered look at entrepreneurship ecosystems. Small Business Economics, 53, 393–408.*
9. *Brush, C. G., & Cooper, S. Y. (2012). Female entrepreneurship and economic development: An international perspective. Entrepreneurship & Regional Development, 24(1–2), 1–6.*
10. *Brush, C. G., De Bruin, A., Gatewood, E. J., & Henry, C. (2010). Women entrepreneurs and the global environment for growth: a research perspective.*
11. *Brush, C. G., Greene, P. G., & Welter, F. (2020). The Diana project: a legacy for research on gender in entrepreneurship. International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship, 12(1), 7–25.*
12. *Burt, R. S. (1998). The gender of social capital. Rationality and Society, 10(1), 5–46.*
13. *Carr, J. C., & Sequeira, J. M. (2007). Prior family business exposure as intergenerational influence and entrepreneurial intent: A theory of planned behavior approach. Journal of Business Research, 60(10), 1090–1098.*
14. *Carter, S., Mwaura, S., Ram, M., Trehan, K., & Jones, T. (2015). Barriers to ethnic minority and women's enterprise: Existing evidence, policy tensions and unsettled questions. International Small Business Journal, 33(1), 49–69.*
15. *Carter, S., Shaw, E., Wilson, F., & Lam, W. (2006). Gender, entrepreneurship and business finance: Investigating the relationship between banks and entrepreneurs in the UK. Growth-Oriented Women Entrepreneurs and Their Businesses – A Global Research Perspective, 373–392.*
16. *Chang, E. P. C., Memili, E., Chrisman, J. J., Kellermanns, F. W., & Chua, J. H. (2009). Family social capital, venture preparedness, and start-up decisions: A study of Hispanic entrepreneurs in New England. Family Business Review, 22(3), 279–292.*
17. *Chrisman, J. J., Chua, J. H., & Steier, L. (2005). Sources and consequences of distinctive familiness: An introduction. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 29(3), 237–247.*
18. *Coleman, S. (2000). Access to capital and terms of credit: A comparison of men-and women-owned small businesses. Journal of Small Business Management, 38(3), 37.*
19. *Colman, M., Da, J., Westermann, S. Ben, & Dlamini, S. (2019). The impact of perceived innovativeness, perceived risk and perceived educational support on University student's entrepreneurial intention. The Business and Management Review, 10(2), 217.*
20. *Dees, J. G. (2007). Taking social entrepreneurship seriously. SOCIETY-NEW BRUNSWICK-, 44(3), 24.*
21. *Dyer Jr, W. G. (2003). The family: The missing variable in organisational research. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 27(4), 401–416.*
22. *Eddleston, K. A., & Powell, G. N. (2008). The role of gender identity in explaining sex differences in business owners' career satisfier preferences. Journal of Business Venturing, 23(2), 244–256.*
23. *Eddleston, K. A., & Powell, G. N. (2012). Nurturing entrepreneurs' work–family balance: A gendered perspective. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 36(3), 513–541.*
24. *Fagerberg, J. (2006). Innovation: A guide to the literature.*
25. *Fayolle, A., Gailly, B., & Lassas-Clerc, N. (2006). Assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education programmes: a new methodology. Journal of European Industrial Training, 30(9), 701–720.*
26. *Fayolle, A., & Liñán, F. (2014). The future of research on entrepreneurial intentions. Journal of Business Research, 67(5), 663–666.*
27. *Foss, N. J., Laursen, K., & Pedersen, T. (2011). Linking customer interaction and innovation: The mediating role of new organisational practices. Organisation Science, 22(4), 980–999.*
28. *GEM. (2020). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM). Global Report.*
29. *Guerrero, M., Rialp, J., & Urbano, D. (2008). The impact of desirability and feasibility on entrepreneurial intentions: A structural equation model. International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 4, 35–50.*
30. *Henry, C., Foss, L., & Ahl, H. (2016). Gender and entrepreneurship research: A review of methodological approaches. International Small Business Journal, 34(3), 217–241.*
31. *Henry, C., Hill, F., & Leitch, C. (2005). Entrepreneurship education and training: can entrepreneurship be taught? Part I. Education+ Training, 47(2), 98–111.*
32. *Hisrich, R. D., Peters, M. P., & Shepherd, D. A. (2017). Entrepreneurship. McGraw-Hill Education.*

ISSN (Online): 2455-3662
EPRA International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research (IJMR) - Peer Reviewed Journal
Volume: 11| Issue: 2| February 2025|| Journal DOI: 10.36713/epra2013 || SJIF Impact Factor 2025: 8.691 || ISI Value: 1.188

33. *Ibarra, H. (1992). Homophily and differential returns: Sex differences in network structure and access in an advertising firm. Administrative Science Quarterly, 422–447.*
34. *Klapper, L. F., & Parker, S. C. (2011). Gender and the business environment for new firm creation. The World Bank Research Observer, 26(2), 237–257.*
35. *Klyver, K., & Grant, S. (2010). Gender differences in entrepreneurial networking and participation. International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship, 2(3), 213–227.*
36. *Kolvereid, L., & Isaksen, E. (2006). New business start-up and subsequent entry into self-employment. Journal of Business Venturing, 21(6), 866–885.*
37. *Lumpkin, G. T., & Dess, G. G. (1996). Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance. Academy of Management Review, 21(1), 135–172.*
38. *Marlow, S., & McAdam, M. (2013). Gender and entrepreneurship: Advancing debate and challenging myths; exploring the mystery of the under-performing female entrepreneur. International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research, 19(1), 114–124.*
39. *Minniti, M. (2010). What do we know about the patterns and determinants of female entrepreneurship across countries? Springer.*
40. *Minniti, M., & Nardone, C. (2007). Being in someone else's shoes: the role of gender in nascent entrepreneurship. Small Business Economics, 28, 223–238.*
41. *Nabi, G., Liñán, F., Fayolle, A., & Krueger, N. (2024). The Impact of Entrepreneurship Education in Higher Education : A Systematic Review and Research Agenda. 16(2).*
42. *Nicholls, A. (2006). Social Entrepreneurship: The Structuration of a Field. Social Entrepreneurship: New Models of Sustainable Social Change/Oxford ….*
43. *Pittaway, L., & Cope, J. (2007). Simulating entrepreneurial learning: Integrating experiential and collaborative approaches to learning. Management Learning, 38(2), 211–233.*
44. *Powell, G. N., & Eddleston, K. A. (2013). Linking family-to-business enrichment and support to entrepreneurial success: do female and male entrepreneurs experience different outcomes? Journal of Business Venturing, 28(2), 261–280.*
45. *Ramesh, S., Thavaraj, H. S., & Ramkumar, D. (n.d.). EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE COMPETENCIES ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AMID COLLEGE STUDENTS: A STRATEGIC APPROACH.*
46. *Reynolds, P. D., Carter, N. M., Gartner, W. B., & Greene, P. G. (2004). The prevalence of nascent entrepreneurs in the United States: Evidence from the panel study of entrepreneurial dynamics. Small Business Economics, 23, 263–284.*
47. *Robinson, P. B., & Sexton, E. A. (1994). The effect of education and experience on self-employment success. Journal of Business Venturing, 9(2), 141–156.*
48. *Robinson, S., & Thavaraj, H. S. (n.d.). THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON ADMINISTRATORS IN SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS.*
49. *Schlaegel, C., & Koenig, M. (2014). Determinants of entrepreneurial intent: A meta–analytic test and integration of competing models. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 38(2), 291–332.*
50. *Sequeira, J., Mueller, S. L., & McGee, J. E. (2007). The influence of social ties and self-efficacy in forming entrepreneurial intentions and motivating nascent behavior. Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, 12(03), 275–293.*
51. *Sharma, P., Chrisman, J. J., & Chua, J. H. (2003). Succession planning as planned behavior: Some empirical results. Family Business Review, 16(1), 1–15.*
52. *Shinnar, R. S., Hsu, D. K., Powell, B. C., & Shou, H. (2018). Entrepreneurial intentions and start-ups: are women or men more likely to enact their intentions? International Small Business Journal, 36(1), 60–80.*
53. *Shinnar, R. S., Powell, B. C., & Shou, H. (2018). i s b j Entrepreneurial intentions and start-ups : Are women or men more likely to enact their intentions ? https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242617704277*
54. *Terjesen, S., Bosma, N., & Stam, E. (2016). Advancing public policy for high-growth, female, and social entrepreneurs. Public Administration Review, 76(2), 230–239.*
55. *Thavaraj, H. S. (2014). IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON WORK CONTENT AMONG URBAN AND RURAL ENTREPRENEURS OF SMALL ENTERPRISES IN DINDIGUL DISTRICT, SOUTH INDIA. International Journal of Retailing & Rural Business Perspectives, 3(4), 1299.*
56. *Thavaraj, H. S., & Haorei, W. (2020). Discriminant Dimensional Personality Inventory Among Owners with Special Reference to Small-scale Industries in Dindigul District, Tamil Nadu, India. SEDME (Small Enterprises Development, Management & Extension Journal), 47(1), 78–84.*
57. *Thavaraj, S. (2012). Entrepreneurship among students–A two group discriminant model. International Journal of Business Management & Research (IJBMR), 2(4), 53–58.*
58. *Thavaraj, S. (2015). Managerial Ability Among Rural and Urban Bank Managers in Tamilnadu, South India. SSRN.*
59. *Verheul, I., Thurik, R., Grilo, I., & Van der Swan, P. (2012). Explaining preferences and actual involvement in self-employment: Gender and the entrepreneurial personality. Journal of Economic Psychology, 33(2), 325–341.*
60. *Welsh, D. H. B., Memili, E., Kaciak, E., & Ahmed, S. (2013). Sudanese women entrepreneurs. Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, 18(02), 1350013.*
61. *Wilson, F., Kickul, J., & Marlino, D. (2007). Gender, entrepreneurial self–efficacy, and entrepreneurial career intentions: Implications for entrepreneurship education. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 31(3), 387–406.*