

Minority Women Entrepreneurs and the Impediments They Face in the Engineering, Mining and Construction Fields

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While minority women entrepreneurs have increased their numbers in non-traditional industries such as construction, mining, engineering and wholesale trade in the last decades, most remain concentrated in lower paying industries such as services and retail trade. Research done in the entrepreneurship field in non-traditional industries of engineering, mining and construction has been predominantly samples of male entrepreneurs – albeit white male entrepreneurs. This study has identified several aspects of the minority female entrepreneurial experience in these fields and sought to elaborate on and validate factors that may differentiate between minority women entering traditional industries from those entering non-traditional ones. The findings from the current study echo results produced in other research projects and can thus present a level of confidence in the outcomes of the current study. The results indicate that women entrepreneurs in non-traditional industries across racial lines do differ on various characteristics. Hispanic women entrepreneurs had the most profitable ventures, they also operated the largest businesses, while African American women entrepreneurs were in business for the longest period of time.

INTRODUCTION

It has long been known that women in general experience barriers when trying to enter or advance in non-traditional industries (Menches and Abraham, 2007). This applies particularly to women who choose to pursue entrepreneurial ventures in such industries where women have historically had very limited representation. Researchers have looked at the difference between women in traditional and non-traditional occupations from many different angles or perspectives. Non-traditional industries can be defined as those industries that represent 5% or less of all women-owned businesses, specifically agricultural services, mining, construction, manufacturing, wholesale trade, transportation, communication and public utilities (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005). In contrast, traditional industries for women have larger percentages of women dominating, industries such as: services, finance, insurance, real estate and retail trade (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005).

Research on women entrepreneurs' entry, progress and function in traditional industries, such as retail and services has been well documented (Smith-Hunter, 2006; Moore and Buttner, 1997). What remains lacking is a focus on women entrepreneurs' participation in industries, such as engineering, mining and construction. Industries where women's representation is limited are a primary concern since it points to their underutilization as "human resources" in such fields of study. This is pivotal to the national economic growth in countries where women are often approximately 50% of the workforce (Ramirez and Wotipka, 2001).

The research shows that early concentrations of women and even minorities were limited in certain industries (De Graaf, 1980; Jordan, 1989; Riley, 1999; Blackburn and Richards, 1993; Hurtado, 1989). As early as the 1800s and into the early 1900s women's existence in industries such as engineering, mining and construction were non-existent (Jordan, 1989; Riley, 1999; Blackburn and Richards, 1993; Botticelli, 1997; Chauncey, 1981). The range of opportunities for women in such industries was tragically restricted (Rakowski, 1995; Bystydzienski, 2004). A number of reasons have been advanced for this concentration by women entrepreneurs in the services and retail trade industries. They include the fact that these industries require less start-up capital on average, when compared to others such as construction, mining and engineering and thus afford entrepreneurs with limited financial resources easy access (Horton and DeJong, 1991). A second explanation advanced for the concentration of women entrepreneurs in the services and retail industry is that the type of businesses that encompass such industries are seen as extensions of women's roles as wives, mothers and homemakers. The concentration of the women entrepreneurs in the services and retail sector, even across racial lines reinforces the statement made by Collette and Aubry (1990), Devine (1994) and Hisrich and Brush (1984) that women entrepreneurs tend to concentrate in female-dominated industries. Other factors relate to the fact that for those industries, the required technical skills are low. The fact that women in the mainstream labor market are also concentrated in these industries, it seems natural that they would also extend this concentration to the entrepreneurial sector.

A second stream of work regarding women and technology emerged during the 1970s, looking at the continued underrepresentation of women in certain industries (Riley, 1999; Ramirez and Wotipka, 2001; Lunn and Perry, 1993). Part of the underrepresentation for women in non-traditional fields comes from the gender identification and alliance of some occupational fields that purport a male/female focus. Gender has been said to be socially constructed (Faulkner, 2000), thus creating an environment where occupations that are aligned with male characteristics (hard physical labor, high scientific component) are labeled as male-like or having a "maleness" to them and thus becoming dominated by males, with very low female employees and a continued derisory of women entering such fields (Faulkner, 2000).

Another explanation for women's under representation in non-traditional fields comes from the dual discrimination hypothesis. The dual discrimination hypothesis originally proposed by Becker (1993) and expanded on more recently by Tang (1995) would purport that it would not be in the economic interest of women to participate in the entrepreneurship sector because discrimination in the labor market can spill over to this latter sector (Becker, 1993; Tang, 1995). Tang (1995) contended that belonging to a racial minority, especially for African Americans, lowers a person's odds of entering and staying in the entrepreneurship sector (Tang, 1995). This argument could be extended to include women who are seen as gender minorities in such non-traditional fields. Thus, women entrepreneurs would be less likely enter the non-traditional fields.

LITERATURE REVIEW: WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN NON-TRADITIONAL INDUSTRIES

Over the last three decades, three key areas of advancement, focusing on process, context and outcomes have emerged in the literature on women entrepreneurs. A first area in the literature has focused on the characteristics of women entrepreneurs and the impact of these characteristics. A second area looks at how women entrepreneurs use their knowledge, networks and constructs to operate their businesses. A third area proposes a wider scope and looks at how women entrepreneurs are impacted by their environments around them, including the organizations they currently operate, as well as organizations they previously worked at, the community and the wider society in which they operate their businesses.

All three of the above areas have been explored extensively for women entrepreneurs in traditional industries. However, comprehensive research on women entrepreneurs in non-traditional areas such as engineering, mining and construction has not been adopted. This is particularly tragic, since these non-traditional fields such as engineering are seen as the creators of a richer, more rational civilization and the natural leaders of a country's future (Carlson, 1988). While an overwhelming level of research does not exist for women entrepreneurs in non-traditional industries, a few studies do exist.

An early study examined 56 business owners (27 females and 29 males) in fields traditionally dominated by men in a large southeastern metropolitan area of the United States (Smith et al, 1992). The findings from the study indicated that the women entrepreneurs in the sample had been in business for significantly less time than their male counterparts, were younger, less likely to be married, less educated and operating smaller businesses (Smith et al, 1992). However, with the exception of marital status and industry experience, there was no significant pattern of differences in personal characteristics between the female and male business owners (Smith et al, 1992). In the sample, the female business owners were more alike than different from their male business owners; differences that are less acute than when the analysis is done for women in traditional female industries (Smith et al, 1992).

One study which looked at entrepreneurs in the engineering, mining and science fields was completed by Tang (1995). The author looked at males and females in these fields, all across racial lines, for Whites, African Americans and Asians. The study did not explicitly focus on women entrepreneurs per se, but looked more at the exit and entry of the racial groups – sans gender – into and out of self-employment (Tang, 1995). The author concluded that native-born Asian and African Americans with paid employment are less likely than comparable native-born Whites to enter self-employment, while the opposite is true for post-1965 white immigrants (Tang, 1995). Among the self-employed, compared to native-born Whites, post-1965 White immigrants had a higher tendency to remain in self-employment and African Americans were less likely to persist in self-employment (Tang, 1995). However, no significant difference was found between Asian immigrants and native-born Whites in the likelihood of entering or staying in self-employment (Tang, 1995).

Another study to analyze women in non-traditional industries was completed by Anna, Chandler, Jansen and Merio (2000). The authors examined 170 women business owners in various traditional and non-traditional businesses in Utah and Illinois, using questionnaires along with a few in-depth interviews. Their analysis revealed that for non-traditional women entrepreneurs, venture efficacy toward planning and the career expectation of autonomy were positively related to sales, while the expectation of money or wealth was negatively related

(Anna et al, 2000). In addition, the women business owners in these non-traditional industries also indicated that the perceived importance of emotional and financial support was negatively related to sales (Anna et al, 2000).

In 2005, a dissertation by Verwey compared women entrepreneurs between South Africa and The United States in the construction industry. The study's main findings were that: it is a myth that women in the industry are mainly laborers in the construction industry, most were in fact owners; in the United States, the women were mainly corporate entrepreneurs (owning larger businesses) while in South Africa, they were true entrepreneurs, owning independent businesses that were not strongly affiliated with corporations; positive pull factors were the main reasons why women were in construction and negative push factors such as the need to make living were lesser reasons; gender discrimination can become fatal barriers for successful women entrepreneurs; the majority of respondents see themselves as successful and intent on developing key aspects of their businesses to expand their competitive edge (Verwey, 2005).

One of the most fruitful studies to look at women entrepreneurs in non-traditional or underrepresented industries was completed by the Center for Women's Business Research (2005). Their study was based on phone surveys conducted with 400 women and 400 men whose businesses are in industries that are atypical among women-owned businesses. The women in these industries portrayed similar characteristics to their male counterparts in terms of their financial profiles (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005). The women also did not perceive any disadvantages for themselves versus their male counterparts in these industries (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005). Finally, the women entrepreneurs were most likely to have started their own businesses or to have purchased the business from a non-family member, rather than to have inherited it (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005). The study had 3.8% of the women entrepreneurs in the sample listed as Latina/Hispanic, 1.5% of the women entrepreneurs in the sample listed as African Americans/African American, 1.5% of the women entrepreneurs in the study listed as Asian/Pacific Islander and 1.0% of the women entrepreneurs listed as American Indian/Alaska Native (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005).

Surprisingly, the overall literature on women entrepreneurs in non-traditional fields have found them to be more alike than different from their male counterparts – which is in contrast to studies that analyze similar factors in traditional industries. In addition, factors that often have a positive relationship to success and sales in traditional industries showed an opposite effect in non-traditional industries.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Gender differences in the rates of entry into entrepreneurship in the engineering, mining and construction fields are definitively related to their patterns of distribution across educational and occupational sectors. Based on the arguments made in the previous sections about women's disadvantaged positions in the non-traditional industries in the educational occupational and entrepreneurial sectors, it is expected that women entrepreneurs in these fields will post lower sales figures and will occupy various disadvantaged positions that will differ across racial lines.

What is the impact of race on women business owners' success? More specifically, what is the relationship between gender and the following: sales volume, geographic location, number of years in business and number of employees? Alternatively, what is the relationship between sales volume and the following factors: race, geographic location, number of years in business and

number of employees? As a final proposition, what impact does number of years, race, geographic location and number of employees have on the economic success of a business? In essence, how do women in non-traditional industries fare in terms of the previous questions?

An answer to these questions can only be garnered by comparing women business owners across racial lines using an adequate sample size in each racial stratum. We aim to answer the previously posed questions as well as a few more largely unanswered questions about women business owners in the non-traditional industries of engineering, mining and construction.

SAMPLE FRAME

This analysis draws on data from one of the most reputable database firms in the United States, Dun and Bradstreet which obtains information from millions of public and private businesses – many of which volunteer to be surveyed – as well as from trade tapes, trade associations, court records, government documents, inter-business publications, banks and other financial institutions. In the present study, Dun and Bradstreet (2007) data was used to build a sample frame that was stratified by geographic region, gender, industry type (using the Standard Industry Code), sales volume, number of employees, number of years in business and race.

The enterprises included in this study were located mainly in those states with the 10 largest populations of women-owned businesses, based on the U.S. Census of 2000, namely: California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Michigan, North Carolina, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Texas. In building the sample frame, no restrictions were placed on annual financial figures or number of employees. However, to be included, the businesses had to have been in existence for at least a year. A total of 375 women owned businesses were sampled with a racial breakdown as follows: 125 African American/African American women, 125 Hispanic/Latina women, 125 Asian women.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Most of the non-traditional Asian women entrepreneurs in the sample are from California (61.6%), this is followed by Texas (12.8%) and then New York (13.6%). For African American women entrepreneurs, most of the non-traditional entrepreneurs are from Georgia (18.4%), this is followed by Texas (16.0%) and then North Carolina (12.8%). For the Hispanic women, most of the non-traditional entrepreneurs are from Texas (36.8%), this is followed by California (29.6%) and then Florida (14.4%), see also table 1. New York, California and Texas have also figured prominently in other studies done on minority women entrepreneurs (Smith-Hunter, 2006) as well in national data on minority women entrepreneurs (Center for Women's Business Research, 2004). National figures for the women entrepreneurs in top states (states with the largest population of women entrepreneurs) are as follows: California (11.75%), Texas (7.44%) and Florida (6.73%), (Center for Women's Business Research, 2004). For minority women entrepreneurs (which is the focus of this study), the national top three States are: California (21.27%), New York (11.86%) and Texas (10.38%) (Center for Women's Business Research, 2004).

The sales volume figures for the entrepreneurs showed that most of the Asian women are in the range of \$50, 001 - \$100, 000, this is similar to African American and Hispanic women entrepreneurs, whose greatest sales volume figures also lie in the \$50,001 to \$100,000 range. Average sales volume figures for the Asian women entrepreneurs is \$178,800, for the African

American women entrepreneurs, it is \$189,600 and for Hispanic women entrepreneurs, it is \$218,400, see also table 2. The Center for Women's Business Research (2005) had 51.1% of their sample of non-traditional women entrepreneurs making gross revenue/sales of less than \$250,000 with 32.7% of that percentage making under \$100,000.

In terms of the size of the business, the number of employees that a business has can serve as a good estimate. For the Asian women entrepreneurs, most of their businesses lie in the 0-5 employees range, this is also similar across all categories, regardless of race, with the African American and Hispanic women entrepreneurs, also having their majority employees in this range. The average number of employees is 5.88, 6.48 and 7.84 for the Asian, African American and Hispanic women entrepreneurs respectively, see also table 3. The number of employees for these non-traditional minority women entrepreneurs is slightly larger than that found in studies by others (Smith-Hunter, 2006; Moore and Buttner, 1997), but in keeping with overall findings in other studies that repeatedly show women entrepreneurs having on average, approximately ten employees or slightly less in their businesses (DeCarlo and Lyons, 1979; Birley, Moss and Saunders, 1987); Burr and Strickland, 1992; Fischer, Reuber and Dyke, 1993; Chaganti and Parasuraman (1996) and Inman (1999). More Specifically, the study by the Center for Women's Business Research (2005) showed the women businesses in these non-traditional fields as having on average 5.17 employees.

Burr and Strickland's (1992) database of 669 women business owners in the State of Wisconsin produced a similar average number of employees of tenure. These results were also supported by Chaganti and Parasuraman (1996) who used a Dun and Bradstreet data sample to assess economic success for 372 women business owners. While Brush's (1997) exploratory study of eight women business owners involved in the White House Conference Research Project showed that all had five employees or less in their businesses. The latter results have also been confirmed by Birley, Moss and Saunders (1987), who analyzed 47 women business owners enrolled in an entrepreneurial program in London and also found on average that the business had five employees. The small size of women owned firms makes them vulnerable to personal economic setbacks and environmental economic changes and to the individual customers and subcontracting work they receive from larger corporations (Clark and James, 1992).

This small size of the women ventures for these minority enterprises has been attributed to a lack of resources to expand into larger enterprises by the women and the cautionary nature being promoted by some women of not wanting to expand their businesses over a certain (maybe unmanageable) size.

While most support the notion that women entrepreneurs tend to operate businesses with small sizes, a few studies using targeted samples have found counteracting evidence. Belcourt (1990) who through a sample of Canada's most successful women entrepreneurs of 36 women entrepreneurs found that the number of employees of the business ranged from 11-20 employees. It should be noted that the author specifically focused on female entrepreneurs operating businesses with higher than average sales (Belcourt, 1990). Another study to find larger numbers of employees (26 employees on average) was done by Smith, Smits and Hoy (1992), who analyzed 56 male and female business owners who operated in traditionally male dominated industries, such as construction, manufacturing and wholesale distribution. In addition, Verwey's comparative study of women entrepreneurs in the construction industry found similar results for the entrepreneurs in the United States, with most (40.3%) of the firms having more than 50 employees, while in the South African sample, most (69.4%) had 1-10 employees (Verwey, 2005).

In terms of the numbers of years in business, which depicts longevity, sustainability and to an extent profitability for entrepreneurs, the African American women were in business the longest, averaging 18.72 years, in business. This is followed by the Hispanic women entrepreneurs, who have been in business an average of 17.6 years and then Asian women entrepreneurs, with an average of 16.96 years in business, see also table 4. The non-traditional women entrepreneurs in the current study differ on their years in business when contrasted with other studies. Smith-Hunter (2006) found that minority women entrepreneurs were in business an average of 12.3 years. However, the study by the Center for Women's Business Research (2005) on non-traditional women entrepreneurs showed that they were in business an average of 14.1 years. In the case of Verwey (2005), that study found that the women entrepreneurs from the United States had primarily been in business for 11-20 years, an average term which was longer than the 0-10 years, the majority of their South African counterparts had been in business (Verwey, 2005). It should be noted that Verwey's (2005) results closely aligns with Smith et al (1992) whose sample of women entrepreneurs in primarily male dominated industries showed that most (37%) had been in business for 11-20 years, followed by those (30%) who stated they had been in business for 6-10 years.

Correlation values of sales volume (predictor of business profitability), were calculated with: states, number of employees and years in business. Correlation coefficients values measure the rate of correlation between two variables and indicates the level to which a change in one variable, impacts the change in another variable (Bailey, 1994; Kerlinger, 1986). The value of a correlation coefficient can range from -1 to a +1 and is seen as either a negative value (indicating that a change in one value is likely to result in the opposite change in the other related variable) or a positive value (indicating that a change in one value results in a similar change in the other related variable). The results showed that sales volume were most highly correlated with years in business for the Asian women entrepreneurs. For the African American women entrepreneurs, the highest correlation also occurred for the number of years in business, with the highest correlations for Hispanic women entrepreneurs being number of employees.

Overall, women business owners occupy a marginalized position when compared to male business owners and minority women entrepreneurs occupy an even more marginalized position when compared to their white counterparts in terms of income earnings as business owners (Goffee and Scase, 1983). A number of factors have been said to impact the success of women business owners, they are: family support, knowledge of culture and language of the region they operate their business, communication and human relation skills, knowledge and quality of the product or service they offer (Maysami and Goby, 1999). The authors also identify additional factors, such as: customer loyalty, quality of the business personnel, availability of professional services, technological advantage, availability of finance, presence of opportunities, a desire to succeed and the personal qualities of the business owner as factors that contribute to the success of women business owners worldwide (Maysami and Goby, 1999). In the current study, sales volume (or financial success) was significantly correlated with years in business and number of employees. The correlation of years in business is logical, since the longer one has been in business, the more plausible it is that their financial position would have improved. In addition, the larger the business (or the more employees) a business has, the more successful it might be.

The tremendous growth in women entrepreneurs in the last three decades is nothing less than a spectacular phenomenon. The growth has forced an overall emphasis on this occurrence and a need to understand the multitude of factors that impact this extraordinary group. There is increased inspiration abounding that calls for an understanding of the motivators for women who

abandon their place in the mainstream labor market to engage in entrepreneurial activities. In addition, there is the call to understand the challenges women entrepreneurs face, as well as the factors that lead to their financial success across various samples. Most studies focus on the retail and services industries, such as engineering, mining and construction. By engaging in this current study, the deficiency that has persisted in the literature due to a lack of focus on such inclusions, no longer occurs.

This paper documented the answers to these questions through the use of a national data sample. It also answers the call made by Dr. Dorothy Moore eighteen years ago to address the literature on women business owners with more statistical analyses of more divergent samples (Moore, 1990). What is extraordinary about this paper's findings is the fact that the analysis is being done with a backdrop across racial lines. Countless studies have analyzed women entrepreneurs and entrepreneurs in general. However, their analysis has more often than not been from a perspective of males versus females or from the perspective of summarizing the findings of all women entrepreneurs without the consideration of differences in race as an issue. This paper has stepped up to the plate and answered the call for a comprehensive look at women entrepreneurs across racial lines. By holding gender constant, what emerges from this analysis is a rich description of various groups that aids our understanding of critical factors impacting different racial groups of women.

CONCLUSION

While minority women entrepreneurs have increased their numbers in non-traditional industries such as construction, mining, engineering and wholesale trade in the last decades, most remain concentrated in lower paying industries such as services and retail trade. Research done in the entrepreneurship field in non-traditional industries of engineering, mining and construction has been predominantly samples of male entrepreneurs – albeit white male entrepreneurs. This study has identified several aspects of the minority female entrepreneurial experience in these fields and sought to elaborate on and validate factors that may differentiate between minority women entering traditional industries from those entering non-traditional ones. The findings from the current study echo results produced in other research projects and can thus present a level of confidence in the outcomes of the current study. The results indicate that women entrepreneurs in non-traditional industries across racial lines do differ on various characteristics. Hispanic women entrepreneurs had the most profitable ventures, they also operated the largest businesses, while African American women entrepreneurs were in business for the longest period of time.

There are some inherent weaknesses in this research. The source of the sample data could serve as an avenue for debate, since the results cannot be deemed applicable to the general population of women entrepreneurs in these fields. Clearly more in-depth data needs to be gathered that would shed greater light on other aspects of such a population. Specific dimensions that could be assessed include other human capital issues (such as education and experience) and network issues (such as assistance from family, friends and others).

The number of women owned businesses continues to grow and the number of new jobs created by these businesses also continues to increase (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005). The trend of increasing female ownership in traditionally male-dominated industries is likely to continue, perhaps even escalate (Center for Women's Business Research, 2005). These results have implications for women business owners, educators and policy makers. This study

suggests that individual context and support for women entrepreneurs varies widely, including that for women entrepreneurs in non-traditional fields. The lesson here is that women owners cannot be viewed equally. Opportunities for women entrepreneurial education should be diverse, catering to women in different industries and different races.

This paper has suggested a framework for addressing possible future research. Clearly, the results of such research initiatives is a long-term goal for the women entrepreneurship sector, but one it must address if is serious about creating a fair and open research field with all participants benefiting from membership in such a field. Acknowledging that there are differences in entrepreneurs across racial and gender lines are important steps in demystifying the differences that exist.

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TABLE 1
ENTREPRENEURS AND THE STATES THEY BELONG TO

STATES	ASIAN WOMEN	AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN	HISPANIC WOMEN
California	77 (61.6%)	11 (8.8%)	37 (29.6%)
Florida	4 (3.2%)	12 (9.6%)	18 (14.4%)
Georgia	3 (2.4%)	23 (18.4%)	1 (0.8%)
Illinois	2 (1.6%)	9 (7.2%)	3 (2.4%)
Michigan	2 (1.6%)	5 (4.0%)	2 (1.6%)
North Carolina	2 (1.6%)	16 (12.8%)	2 (1.6%)
New York	17 (13.6%)	15 (12.0%)	14 (11.2%)
Ohio	0 (0.0%)	10 (8.0%)	1 (0.8%)
Pennsylvania	2 (1.6%)	4 (3.2%)	1 (0.8%)
Texas	16 (12.8%)	20 (16.0%)	46 (36.8%)
TOTAL	125	125	125

TABLE 2
SALES VOLUME FOR ALL ENTREPRENEURS

SALES VOLUME (\$)	ASIAN WOMEN	AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN	HISPANIC WOMEN
\$0-50,000	25 (20.0%)	31 (24.8%)	16 (12.8%)
\$50,001 - \$100,000	48 (38.4%)	29 (23.2%)	34 (27.2%)
\$100,001 - \$150,000	21 (16.8%)	20 (16.0%)	19 (15.2%)
\$150,001 - \$200,000	1 (0.8%)	4 (3.2%)	12 (9.6%)
\$200,001 - \$250,000	2 (1.6%)	10 (8.0%)	8 (6.4%)
\$250,001 - \$300,000	3 (2.4%)	11 (8.8%)	5 (4.0%)
\$300,001 - \$350,000	4 (3.2%)	1 (0.8%)	3 (2.4%)
\$350,001 - \$400,000	3 (2.4%)	1 (0.8%)	4 (3.2%)
\$400,001 - \$450,000	1 (0.8%)	2 (1.6%)	3 (2.4%)
\$451,000 - \$500,000	1 (0.8%)	3 (2.4%)	5 (4.0%)
> \$500,000	16 (12.8%)	13 (10.4%)	16 (12.8%)
TOTAL	125	125	125
AVERAGE SALES	\$178,800	\$189,600	\$218,400

**TABLE 3
EMPLOYEES FOR ALL ENTREPRENEURS**

EMPLOYEES	ASIAN WOMEN	AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN	HISPANIC WOMEN
0-5	115 (92.0%)	93 (74.4%)	64 (51.2%)
6-10	6 (4.8%)	29 (23.2%)	58 (46.4%)
11-15	2 (1.6%)	1 (0.8%)	2 (1.6%)
16-20	1 (0.8%)	2 (1.6%)	0 (0.0%)
>20	1 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.8%)
TOTAL	125	125	125
AVERAGE NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	5.88	6.48	7.84

**TABLE 4
YEARS IN BUSINESS FOR ALL ENTREPRENEURS**

YEARS IN BUSINESS	ASIAN WOMEN	AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN	HISPANIC WOMEN
1965-1975	5 (4.0%)	2 (1.6%)	4 (3.2%)
1976-1985	17 (13.6%)	29 (23.2%)	21 (16.8%)
1986-1995	38 (30.4%)	45 (36.0%)	41 (32.8%)
1996-2005	65 (52.0%)	49 (39.2%)	59 (47.2%)
TOTAL	125	125	125
AVERAGE YEARS IN BUSINESS	16.96 years	18.72 years	17.6 years

**TABLE 5
CORRELATION TABLE**

CORRELATION WITH SALES VOLUME	ASIAN WOMEN	AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN	HISPANIC WOMEN
States	0.270	0.147	0.483
Employees	0.721*	0.754*	0.872*
Years in Business	0.920*	0.899*	0.706*

*p=0.00