

**SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS
IN GAUTENG**

ELEANOR MEDA CHIPETA

Student no: 25821407

Dissertation submitted for the degree

MASTER OF COMMERCE

In

Entrepreneurship

at the

VAAL TRIANGLE CAMPUS

of the

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY

Supervisor: Mr H. A. Koloba

Co-supervisor: Prof J. Surujlal

Vanderbijlpark

2015

DECLARATION

I, **Eleanor Meda Chipeta** declare that **SOCIAL ENREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN GAUTENG** is my own work, that all sources used or quoted have been identified and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this dissertation has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at any other university,

Signature: _____

Date: _____

ETHICS LETTER



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITHI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
VAAL TRIANGLE CAMPUS

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC SCIENCES AND INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

ETHICS CLEARANCE DOCUMENT

Dissertation (M)	X
Thesis (PhD)	
Article	

SUPERVISOR				
Study Leader / Promoter / Author(s)	Mr H. A. KOLOBA			
STUDENT / AUTHOR				
Name	ELEANOR MEDA CHIPETA			
Student / Staff Number				
Registered Title of Dissertation or Thesis or Project Title of Article	SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN GAUTENG			
School	Accounting		Economics	X
			Information Technology	
ETHICAL CLEARANCE				
Ethics clearance number	ECONIT-ECON-2014-014			
Date (of Ethics Sub Committee Meeting)	24 July 2014			

.....
CHAIRPERSON: ETHICS COMMITTEE

15-08-2014

DATE

.....
RESEARCH DIRECTOR

15.08.2014

DATE

LANGUAGE EDITING

Dr Diana Viljoen
Language editing
SATI Member no.: 1002764
PEG member
Cell: 061 069 9515
E-mail: Diana.Viljoen@nwu.ac.za/djv623@gmail.com

6 May 2015

To whom it may concern,

This serves to confirm that I, Dr Diana Viljoen, have language edited the completed research of Mrs Eleanor Meda Chipeta for MCom dissertation entitled: *SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN GAUTENG*.

Kind regards,

Dr Diana Viljoen

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To the Almighty God, for His love, grace and mercy throughout my life. I thank Him for granting me wisdom, courage and determination that allowed me achieve my potential and strengthened me throughout my entire studies.

My sincere thanks go to my supervisor, Mr. H. A Koloba, for his hard work, advice and guidance. I thank him for his motivation and support in all stages of this dissertation.

A special thanks goes to my co-supervisor, Prof J. Surujlal, for his guidance and advice. I thank him for his patience, insightful comments and suggestions that made this piece of work a success.

To the North-West University, for granting me a bursary that helped cover all expenses during my studies.

To my brother-in-law, Dr Steve Dunga, for his advice and technical assistance throughout my studies.

To Dr Diana Viljoen, for editing this piece of work.

To all the students who participated in this study.

To my husband, Prof Chimwemwe Chipeta, for his love, kindness and support. I thank him for standing by me even when situations rendered it difficult. I also want to thank my beautiful children, Jemima, Zoe and Jeremy, for understanding when I could not be with them during my studies.

ABSTRACT

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN GAUTENG

KEY WORDS: Entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship intentions, university students, South Africa

Social entrepreneurship has been a topic of academic enquiry for nearly two decades. However, scholarly research has been challenging. It was observed that most of the surveyed empirical studies have been conducted in the United Kingdom and the United States. The concept has to some extent received attention in developing countries, such as Bangladesh and Venezuela. However, the contextual and empirical understanding of the phenomenon is still lacking in Africa, and South Africa is no exception.

The phenomenon of social entrepreneurship has a long history. Since inception, no general consensus has been reached regarding its definition. For the purposes of this study social entrepreneurship is defined as the process through which individuals operate in the commercial sector with the aim of providing products and services that benefit the poor in society. From the onset, social entrepreneurship has consistently been commended as an effective alternative business process of providing much needed social goods and services to society. The activities of social entrepreneurs are significantly important in situations where government facilities have failed or are unable to deliver much needed resources and services such as employment, health care and education.

The primary objective of this study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng province. A quantitative research approach was followed to collect data. A questionnaire was administered among undergraduate and post-graduate students from selected universities in Gauteng. Factor analysis was used to identify factors that influence social entrepreneurship intentions. Six factors which influence social entrepreneurship intentions were identified namely, *social entrepreneurial intentions, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality,*

attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment, perceived behavioural control and risk taking propensity. Furthermore, correlation analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship amongst social entrepreneurship intentions factors. The results were significant which indicated that there was a positive linear inter-factor association. Additionally, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether significant differences exist with regards to the influence of gender, age and year of study on social entrepreneurship intentions factors. Significant differences were found with regard to age and gender on social entrepreneurship intentions.

Based on the findings it is evident that *social entrepreneurial intentions, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality, attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment, perceived behavioural control and risk taking propensity* are factors that influence social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. Given the need to develop social entrepreneurship research in South Africa, it is recommended that future research further explore and identify social entrepreneurship intentions factors using a larger sample size, by including all provinces in South Africa. Future research could also focus on exploring the relationship between social entrepreneurship intentions, and other variables such as personality traits, culture and other demographic variables.

OPSOMMING

SOSIALE ENTREPRENEURSKAP VOORNEME ONDER UNIVERSITEIT STUDENTE IN GAUTENG

SLEUTELWOORDE: Entrepreneurskap, sosiale entrepreneurskap, sosiale entrepreneurskap bedoelings, universiteit studente, Suid-Afrika

Navorsing oor sosiale entrepreneurskap geniet die aandag onder navorsers wêreldwyd. Egter nie veel empiriese navorsing oor sosiale entrepreneurskap bestaan in die literature nie. Die meeste van die empiriese studies is gedoen in die Verenigde Koninkryk en die Verenigde State van Amerika. Die konsep het in 'n mate aandag gekry in die ontwikkelende lande, soos Bangladesj en Venezuela. Dit is egter die konteksuele en empiriese begrip van die verskynsel wat nog ontbreek in Afrika en Suid-Afrika, is geen uitsondering nie

Die konsep van sosiale entrepreneurskap het 'n lang geskiedenis. Sedert die ontstaan, is geen algemene konsensus bereik met betrekking tot die definisie van maatskaplike entrepreneurskap nie. Vir die doeleindes van hierdie studie sosiale entrepreneurskap word gedefinieer as die proses waardeur individue beïnvloed word om te werk in die kommersiële sektor met die doel van die verskaffing van produkte en dienste wat die arm mense baat in die samelewing. Van die begin af, is sosiale entrepreneurskap konsekwent geprys as 'n effektiewe alternatief tot die besigheid proses van die verskaffing van broodnodige sosiale goedere en dienste aan die gemeenskap. Die aktiwiteite van die sosiale entrepreneurs is veral belangrik in situasies waar die regering fasiliteite versuim of nie in staat is om broodnodige hulpbronne en dienste soos indiensneming, gesondheidsorg en onderwys te lewer nie.

Die primêre doel van hierdie studie was om die sosiale entrepreneurskap voornemens onder universiteitstudente in die Gauteng-provinsie te identifiseer. 'n Kwantitatiewe navorsingsbenadering is gevolg om data in te samel. 'n Vraelys is geadminestreer onder voorgraadse en nagraadse studente uit geselekteerde universiteite in Gauteng. Faktor analise is gebruik om faktore wat sosiale entrepreneurskap voornemens beïnvloed, te identifiseer. Ses faktore is geïdentifiseer as sosiale entrepreneurskap voornemens, naamlik sosiale entrepreneurskap voornemens, benadering tot entrepreneurskap, proaktiewe persoonlikheid, benadering tot entrepreneurskap

onderwys / universiteits omgewing, gedrags beheer en risiko neigheid. Verder is 'n korrelasie-analise gedoen om die verhouding tussen sosiale entrepreneurskap voornemens faktore te ondersoek. Die uitslae was statisties beduidend wat aangedui het dat daar 'n positiewe lineêre inter-faktor veruantskap bestaan. Daarbenewens is 'n ANOVA gedoen om te bepaal of daar beduidende verskille bestaan met betrekking tot die invloed van geslag, ouderdom en jaar van studie oor die sosiale entrepreneurskap voorneme faktore. Beduidende verskille is gevind tussen ouderdom en geslag op sosiale voorneme entrepreneurskap.

Gebaseer op die bevindinge is dit duidelik dat die sosiale entrepreneurskap voorneme, houding teenoor entrepreneurskap, proaktiewe persoonlikheid, houding teenoor entrepreneurskap onderwys / universiteit omgewing, gedrags beheer en risiko's te geneigdheid faktore is wat sosiale entrepreneurskap bedoelings onder universiteitstudente in Gauteng beïnvloed. Gegewe die behoefte om sosiale entrepreneurskap navorsing in Suid-Afrika te ontwikkel, word dit aanbeveel dat toekomstige navorsing fokus op sosiale entrepreneurskap voorneme faktore met behulp van 'n groter steekproef grootte, deur die insluiting van al die provinsies in Suid-Afrika. Toekomstige navorsing kan ook fokus op die verkenning van die verhouding tussen sosiale entrepreneurskap voorneme, en ander veranderlikes soos persoonlikheidseienskappe, kultuur en demografiese veranderlikes.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ETHICS LETTER	ii
LANGUAGE EDITING	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT	v
OPSOMMING	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xv
LIST OF FIGURES	xvi
ACRONYMS	xvii

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 AN OVERVIEW OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP	1
1.3 SOCIAL AND COMMERCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP	2
1.4 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS	3
1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT	3
1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.....	4
1.6.1 Primary objective	*4
1.6.2 Theoretical objectives	5
1.6.3 Empirical objectives	5
1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	5
1.7.1 Research approach	5
1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN	6
1.8.1 Literature review	6

1.8.2	Population, Sample Frame and Sampling Method	6
1.8.3	The research instrument.....	6
1.8.4	Data Processing and Analysis	7
1.9	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	7
1.10	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	8
1.11	PRELIMINARY CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION	8
1.12	CONCLUSION	9

CHAPTER 2

ENTREPRENEURSHIP, SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND SOCIAL

ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS.....	10
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	10
2.2 ENTREPRENEURSHIP	10
2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF ENTREPRENEURS	12
2.3.1 Personality traits	12
2.3.2 Demographic factors	13
2.3.3 Opportunity identification	14
2.4 IMPORTANCE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP	15
2.4.1 Entrepreneurship and economic growth	15
2.4.2 Importance of entrepreneurship among students	16
2.5 A TYPOLOGY OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP	17
2.6 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP	19
2.6.1 Development of social entrepreneurship as a scholarly field of study ..	20
2.6.2 Characteristics of social entrepreneurs.....	22
2.6.3 Importance of social entrepreneurship.....	23
2.7 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS	25
2.7.1 The theory of planned behaviour	25

2.7.2	The structural model of entrepreneurial intent	27
2.8	FACTORS INFLUENCING SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS	28
2.8.1	Attitude towards behaviour	30
2.8.2	Perceived feasibility and desirability	30
2.8.2.1	Personal attitude	30
2.8.2.2	Perceived social norms	31
2.8.2.3	Self-efficacy.....	31
2.9	SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	32
2.10	CONCLUSION	32

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	34
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	34
3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN	34
3.3 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH	35
3.4 THE SAMPLING STRATEGY	35
3.4.1 The population.....	36
3.4.2 Target population.....	36
3.4.3 Sampling frame	37
3.4.4 Sampling methods.....	37
3.4.5 Sample size determination	38
3.4.6 Data collection and measuring instrument.....	39
3.4.6.1 Literature study.....	39
3.4.6.2 Measuring instrument.....	39
3.4.6.3 Questionnaire design	40
3.4.7 Questionnaire format	41

3.4.8	Questionnaire layout.....	41
3.5	ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	42
3.6	DATA PREPARATION.....	43
3.7	RELIABILITY.....	43
3.8	VALIDITY.....	44
3.8.1	Content validity.....	44
3.8.2	Construct validity.....	44
3.9	DATA ANALYSIS.....	45
3.10	CONCLUSION.....	46

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS.....	47	
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	47
4.2	THE PILOT STUDY.....	47
4.3	ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN SURVEY.....	48
4.3.1	Demographic information of respondents.....	48
4.3.1.1	Gender.....	49
4.3.1.2	Age.....	49
4.3.1.3	Ethnicity.....	50
4.3.1.4	Year of study.....	50
4.3.1.5	Field of study.....	51
4.4	EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA).....	51
4.4.1	The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity.....	52
4.4.2	Factor extraction method.....	53
4.4.2.1	Eigenvalues and percentage of variance.....	53
4.4.2.2	Scree test.....	55

4.4.3	Factor loading matrix	55
4.4.4	Factor descriptions	57
4.4.4.1	Factor 1: Social entrepreneurial intentions.....	58
4.4.4.2	Factor 2: Attitudes towards entrepreneurship	59
4.4.4.3	Factor 3: Proactive personality.....	60
4.4.4.4	Factor 4: Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/ university environment.....	61
4.4.4.5	Factor 5: Perceived behavioural control.....	62
4.4.4.6	Factor 6: Risk taking propensity	63
4.5	MEANS	63
4.5.1	Overall means of the six factors in terms of agreement.....	63
4.6	CORRELATION ANALYSIS.....	64
4.7	ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE	66
4.7.1	Analysis of variance with gender	67
4.7.2	Analysis of variance with age	68
4.7.3	Analysis of variance with year of study	70
4.8	RELIABILITY.....	71
4.9	VALIDITY	71
4.9.1	Content validity	72
4.9.2	Construct validity	72
4.10	CONCLUSION	72

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	74
5.1 INTRODUCTION.....	74
5.2 GENERAL OVERVIEW.....	74
5.2.1 Theoretical objectives	74

5.2.2	Empirical objectives	75
5.2.2.1	Empirical objective 1	75
5.2.2.2	Empirical objective 2	76
5.2.2.3	Empirical objective 3	76
5.2.2.4	Empirical objective 4	76
5.3	CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY	77
5.4	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	77
5.5	AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	77
5.6	RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	78
5.7	CONCLUDING REMARKS	78
6	BIBLIOGRAPHY	80
7	APPENDICES.....	95
8	APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE.....	95

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Types of entrepreneurship.....	18
Table 2.2: Social entrepreneurship defined.....	20
Table 2.3: Characteristics of social entrepreneurs	23
Table 3.1: Summary of questionnaire design	41
Table 3.2: Questionnaire coding information.....	43
Table 4.1: Items deleted from the scale	48
Table 4.2: KMO levels of factorial simplicity	52
Table 4.3: KMO and the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity.....	53
Table 4.4: Percentage of variance explained and eigenvalues	54
Table 4.5: Rotated factor loading matrix.....	57
Table 4.6: Factor label and operational definitions.....	58
Table 4.7: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 1 - Social entrepreneurial intention....	59
Table 4.8: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 2 - Attitude towards entrepreneurship	60
Table 4.9: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 3 – Pro-active personality.....	61
Table 4.10: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 4 – Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/ university environment.....	62
Table 4.11: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 5 – Perceived behavioural control ...	62
Table 4.12: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 6 – Risk taking propensity	63
Table 4.13: Overall means of six factors in terms of agreement	64
Table 4.14: Correlation matrix summary	65
Table 4.15: Strength of relationship between variables.....	66
Table 4.16 : ANOVA – six factors and gender.....	67
Table 4.17: ANOVA – six factors and age group.....	69
Table 4.18: Post-hoc analysis – social entrepreneurial intentions and age	69
Table 4.19: ANOVA – six factors and year of study	70
Table 4.20: Reliability analysis	71

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour	26
Figure 2.2: The structural model of entrepreneurial intent.....	27
Figure 2.3: A model of social entrepreneurial intentions.....	29
Figure 3.1: Procedure for drawing a sample	36
Figure 4.1: Gender distribution profile	49
Figure 4.2 Age distribution	49
Figure 4.3: Ethnic group of respondents	50
Figure 4.4: Year of study of respondents	50
Figure 4.5: Field of study of respondents	51
Figure 4.6: Exploratory factor analysis procedure	52
Figure 4.7: Scree plot.....	55

ACRONYMS

ANOVA:	Analysis of Variance
EOA:	Entrepreneurial Orientation Attitude
EUC:	European Union Council
GDP:	Gross Domestic Production
GEM:	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
KMO:	Kaiser-Meyer Olkin
NPOs:	Non-Profit Organisations
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
USA:	United States of America
UK:	United Kingdom

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an introduction to the study. The aim of the study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. The chapter begins by discussing the concepts of social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship intentions. It also presents the problem statement and research objectives of the study and describes the research methodology used. The significance of the study is also provided. The chapter concludes by presenting a chapter classification of the study.

1.2 AN OVERVIEW OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Research on social entrepreneurship has sparked a responsive chord among researchers worldwide (Hoogendoorn *et al.*, 2010:4). Since inception, different authors have described social entrepreneurship differently, as the term holds different meanings to different people (Dees, 1998:1). While Fowler (2000:649) associates social entrepreneurship with non-profit business initiatives, some researchers (Mair & Naboa, 2003:1; Martin & Osberg, 2007:35) have defined the concept as a way of bringing about social change to society. Austin *et al.* (2006:2) describe the concept according to key distinctions between social and commercial entrepreneurship.

However, despite variations in describing the concept, social entrepreneurship continues to be a growing area of research that receives substantial research attention among scholars worldwide (Weerawardena & Mort, 2006:21; Zahra *et al.*, 2009:522). Most research in the area has concentrated on the conceptual understanding of the concept (Mair & Naboa, 2003:1), and less on its empirical evidence (Short *et al.*, 2009:161). Although Zahra *et al.* (2009:522) found evidence of some empirical output on social entrepreneurship; conceptual papers still outnumber empirical evidence.

Alternative to commercial entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship is a promising strategy towards the alleviation of social problems. Its existence is reflected in numerous voluntary and public organisations, communities, and private organisations, working together to achieve a common goal of social upliftment, rather than just

focusing on making a profit for personal gain (Shaw & Carter, 2007:419). According to Leadbeater (1997:7), inadequacies in the resource provisions by government organisations led public and voluntary sectors' increased interest in becoming innovative, as well as private sector's increased need to improve people's social welfare. Furthermore, Dees (1998:1) states that ineffectiveness, inefficiency and unresponsiveness of the social sector institutions enhance the cause for social entrepreneurs to create new models of doing things in the new economy.

The following section highlights the similarities and distinctions between social and commercial entrepreneurship.

1.3 SOCIAL AND COMMERCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Social entrepreneurship does not exist in isolation. According to Dees (1998:3), social entrepreneurship is a "species in the genus entrepreneurship". Like commercial entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship is a profit-seeking business concept with the purpose of achieving social value (Thompson, 2002:413). Furthermore, social entrepreneurship, as an entrepreneurial behaviour, achieves social value through the creation of new social businesses and development of existing ones, while alleviating social problems in society (Sullivan-Mort *et al.*, 2003:76). Accordingly, it can be noted that the value created is what distinguishes social and commercial entrepreneurship (Martin & Osberg, 2007:34). For the commercial entrepreneurs, value is derived if the markets they serve can comfortably afford their products and services as well as are designed to create financial profit. On the other hand, social entrepreneurs achieve value when they provide large scale transformational benefits to either a specific segment or the society at large (Martin & Osberg, 2007:35).

In an attempt to clarify key issues in the field of social entrepreneurship, Mair and Naboa (2003:7) highlight the aspect of intentions. They note that intentions as a well-established sub-field in entrepreneurship literature can also be used as a basis for comparison between social and commercial entrepreneurship. Additionally, the intentions theory has been well documented in social psychology as one significant determining factor towards behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:181). According to Bird (1988:442) an intention is a state of mind that directs one's behaviour towards a specific action. Furthermore, Krueger *et al.* (2000:411), acknowledge that intentions are interesting to

those with an entrepreneurial mind-set such as social entrepreneurship. The following section discusses social entrepreneurship intentions.

1.4 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS

The literature has identified a number of factors that determine social entrepreneurship intentions. According to the theory of planned behaviour, intentions are the motive to perform or not to perform a given behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:181) and entrepreneurship, as a method of identifying opportunities, is a clear example of an intentional process (Krueger *et al.*, 2000:412; Armitage & Conner, 2001:471). Drawing from the theory of planned behaviour, Mair and Naboia (2003:8) contend that social entrepreneurship intentions are influenced by self-efficacy, social support and personal attitudes. In addition to behavioural factors, Bird (1988:443) is of the view that the entrepreneurs' exposure to/or involvement with social issues, as well as past experience, influence social entrepreneurship intentions.

With the aim of identifying entrepreneurial intentions among 512 students at the MIT School of Engineering in Germany, Lüthje and Franke (2003:135) found that individuals possessing the personality traits risk taking propensity and internal locus of control- tended to have a positive attitude towards the intention to start a business. Similarly, Autio *et al.* (2001:145) found that subjective norms, attitude towards entrepreneurship and perceived behavioural control determined entrepreneurial behaviour. The study was conducted among university students in Finland, Sweden and the United States of America. Therefore, drawing from entrepreneurial intentions literature, the purpose of this study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in the Gauteng province, South Africa.

1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Research on social entrepreneurship is still largely phenomenon-driven. As a result, most studies are mainly based on anecdotal evidence or case studies (Mair & Naboia, 2003:1). The concept lacks a unifying paradigm and has taken on a variety of meanings (Dees 1998:1). In a nutshell, social entrepreneurship is still partly defined and its boundaries to other fields of study are still undefined. Although still unclear, the concept has received substantial attention especially in developed countries such as the United States (USA) and the United Kingdom (UK) (Thompson *et al.*, 2000:328).

It is observed that over 50 percent of the surveyed empirical studies on social entrepreneurship have been conducted in the UK and the USA (Short *et al.*, 2009:167).

The concept has, to some extent, received attention in developing countries, such as Bangladesh and Venezuela (Mair & Martí, 2006:36). However, the contextual and theoretical understanding of the phenomenon is still lacking in Africa, and South Africa is no exception (Visser, 2011:233). It was noted that there were very little empirical attempts and formal hypotheses which necessitated the need for more rigorous empirical research (Short *et al.*, 2009:161; Cukier *et al.*, 2011:99). Therefore, there was a need for empirical evidence regarding the factors that determine social entrepreneurship intention.

According to Urban (2008:347) South Africa is faced with problems of being unable to satisfy the increasing needs of society and these challenges have been exacerbated by factors such as, unemployment, inequality and poverty. The author further points out that many social sector institutions are regarded as ineffective, unresponsive and inefficient in addressing the problem of unemployment. Accordingly, it is imperative to acknowledge that social entrepreneurship is essential because increasingly, non-governmental organisations, non-profit organisations (NPOs), entrepreneurial firms, governments, and public agencies are recognising the significance of strategic social entrepreneurship towards the development of world-class competitive services (Christie & Honig, 2006:1). Furthermore, it is noted that encouraging and supporting social entrepreneurs, who possess the same determination and creativity as commercial entrepreneurs, is the most promising strategy towards improvement and achievement of social problems (Dees, 2007:24).

1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives have been formulated for the study:

1.6.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in the Gauteng province.

1.6.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective in this study, the theoretical objectives were outlined as follows:

- To conduct a literature study on entrepreneurship
- To conduct a literature study on social entrepreneurship.
- To conduct a literature study on social entrepreneurship intentions

1.6.3 Empirical objectives

The empirical objectives of the study were outlined as follows:

- To identify factors which determine social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng.
- To ascertain the level of agreement that students attach to social entrepreneurship intentions factors
- To determine the relationship between the identified factors.
- To determine the influence of selected demographic variables on the identified factors.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.7.1 Research approach

A research approach can be quantitative or qualitative (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:104). According to Creswell (2003:153), “quantitative research method involves the collection of data so that information can be quantified and be subjected to statistical treatment in order to support or refute alternative knowledge claims”. On the other hand, qualitative methods aim at making an in-depth exploration of either an event or activity of one or a group of individuals. Due to the descriptive nature of the study a quantitative research approach was adopted. According to Malhotra (2010:104), descriptive research design is a planned and structured design that mainly focuses on quantitatively analysing large sums of data by describing the characteristics of the relevant groups.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

1.8.1 Literature review

A comprehensive literature study, which incorporated both the local and international literature and which served to underpin the empirical research, was undertaken. The sources that were consulted to develop a theoretical framework were textbooks, academic journals and web-based sources.

1.8.2 Population, Sample Frame and Sampling Method

The population comprised all university students in South Africa. The sample frame comprised universities in Gauteng. The sample size consisted of senior undergraduate and postgraduate students registered for the 2014 academic year, from designated institutions in Gauteng. The historical method was used to determine the sample size for the study. For example, Raposo *et al.* (2008:411) used a sample size of 316 students at the University of Beira in Portugal. The aim of the study was to identify the potential attributes that motivate one's behaviour to start a business. Nga and Shamuganathan (2010:269) used a sample of 200 students. The aim of the study was to identify the influence of personality factors and demographic variables on social entrepreneurship start-up. Based on the afore-mentioned studies the sample size for this study was set at 350. This study employed a non-probability convenience sampling method.

1.8.3 The research instrument

In this study a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data. The questionnaire comprised three sections. Section A consisted of questions requesting demographic information of the participants. Section B comprised statements regarding social entrepreneurship intentions. These statements were adapted from previous entrepreneurship intentions questionnaires (Autio *et al.*, 2001:158; Hisrich & Peters, 2002:89; Kickul & Gundry, 2002:89; Lüthje & Franke, 2003:147; Liñán & Chen, 2009:612). Section B used a 6-point Likert scale to score the items ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Section C comprised questions regarding the nature of the business. A pilot study was conducted to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. To ascertain content validity of the questionnaire, three experienced

academics in entrepreneurship were requested to review the questionnaire. Furthermore, a Cronbach's alpha of 0.920 confirmed the reliability of the questionnaire.

1.8.4 Data Processing and Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM SPSS version 22) was used for data processing and analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to report on the demographic profile of the sample. Factor analysis was used to identify the factors contributing to social entrepreneurship intentions. A correlation analysis was conducted to establish the relationship between the different factors. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine the influence of selected demographic variables, namely age, gender and year of study, on the identified factors.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Social entrepreneurship as a process to foster social progress is an important area of study that has attracted the attention of researchers (Alvord *et al*, 2004:265). In spite of its importance towards social transformation, the field remains relatively under-researched (Urban, 2008:347; Short *et al.*, 2009:161; Visser, 2011:233). It was therefore the aim of this research to identify the factors that influence social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. Knowledge of these factors is important as social entrepreneurship is increasingly recognised as an alternative strategy for achieving world class competitive service by many organisations worldwide (Christie & Honig, 2006:1). In a similar vein, Fowler (2000:649) maintains that social entrepreneurship could develop a better framework for non-profit organisations that address social issues beyond mere aid.

Social entrepreneurs are catalysts of social change and address important social needs in a way that is not dominated by direct financial benefits, in order to promote social value (Haughton, 2008:73). Previous studies have reported that university students are more likely to venture into social entrepreneurship (Harding & Cowling, 2006:12; Bosma *et al.*, 2009:7). These students tend to have the energy, talent as well as interest in becoming future human capital as well as leaders (Nga & Shamuganathan, 2010:296). Similarly, the 2009 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) report stipulates that younger and better educated individuals tend to be more

active in social entrepreneurship, compared to business entrepreneurship (Bosma *et al.*, 2009:7).

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The study complied with the ethical standards of academic research, which also protected the identities and interests of the respondents. Ethical clearance was requested from North-West University (Vaal Campus), prior to conducting the study. The university gave the permission to conduct the study by providing an ethics clearance document number ECONIT-ECON-2014-014. While approval from the designated institutions was obtained before conducting the surveys, participation in the survey was voluntary. Participants in the survey were assured that confidentiality and anonymity of the information provided would be safeguarded.

1.11 PRELIMINARY CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1: Introduction, problem statement and objectives.

This chapter encompasses the introduction and background to the study. A discussion on the statement of the research problem and the importance of the study is included. This chapter also outlines the structure of the research study.

Chapter 2: Entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship intentions

This chapter focuses on the literature review regarding entrepreneurship and its relevance in the South African context. Furthermore, the chapter discusses social entrepreneurship as well as the determinants of social entrepreneurship intentions.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter discusses the research methodology used in the study. It describes the population, sample frame, sampling technique and sample size. The statistical procedures used in the study are also presented.

Chapter 4: Analysis and interpretation of results

This chapter reports on the findings of the study. The demographic profile of the sample is discussed. Results of factor analysis are presented. Results on correlations are also presented.

Chapter 5: Conclusion, limitations, directions for future research and recommendations

This chapter provides conclusions for the study. It includes recommendation emanating from the study. Limitations of the study and implications for future research are also presented.

1.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented an introduction to the study. Social entrepreneurship was defined, followed by a brief discussion on its determinants. A presentation of how social entrepreneurship differs from commercial entrepreneurship was also outlined. In addition, the problem statement and the importance of the study were also included. Finally, an outline of the chapter classification was also provided. The next chapter will focus on a literature review of the study.

CHAPTER 2

ENTREPRENEURSHIP, SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter provided an overview of the study and identified the research problem. The significance of the study was discussed. The findings from various studies illustrated the need for further research towards social entrepreneurship, especially in developing countries like South Africa. The chapter also highlighted on the factors that determine social entrepreneurship intentions.

This chapter reviews the literature on entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship intentions. The chapter begins by discussing the concept of entrepreneurship and its importance. It continues by discussing the concept of social entrepreneurship by presenting relevant literature on its development as a scholarly field of research, describing characteristics of entrepreneurs and discussing why it is an important area of study. The chapter concludes with a discussion of social entrepreneurship intentions and social entrepreneurship in South Africa.

2.2 ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The concept of entrepreneurship lacks consensus on its definition. Bygrave and Hofer (1991:13) opine that a “good science must begin with a good definition”. While the word entrepreneurship is a literal translation from the French word *entreprendre*, which means to undertake (Hebert & Link, 2009:100), a series of definitions have emerged from the concept (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000:217). For example, Stevenson and Jarillo (1990:23) define entrepreneurship as the process through which individuals pursue opportunities with scarce resources at hand. In the same vein, Kao (1993:69) defines entrepreneurship as “the process of doing something new and something different for the purpose of creating wealth for the individual and adding value to society”. According to Timmons (2002:27), entrepreneurship means “thinking, reasoning and acting that is opportunity obsessed, holistic in approach, and leadership balanced”. Likewise, Ma and Tan (2006:704) are of the view that entrepreneurship is

determined by, *inter alia*, the desire to achieve, the need to be creative and constantly aiming at being innovative.

Although defining entrepreneurship lacks general consensus, historically, the concept has significantly contributed to the body of literature. Some scholars agree that discrepancies in defining entrepreneurship are due to the fact that the concept is multidisciplinary (Hebert & Link, 2009:241; Peneder, 2009:77). Entrepreneurship stems from the fields of sociology, psychology, business management and economics. The sociologists have described entrepreneurship according to the social aspects. In psychology, entrepreneurship relates to the cognitive perspective of the individual entrepreneur. Furthermore, entrepreneurship in the business domain is attributed to the behavioural and process perspective, while the economists describe entrepreneurship according to the functions of the entrepreneur (Peneder, 2009:78).

A growing body of literature highlights entrepreneurship as being rooted in economics. Hebert and Link (2009:241) provide a detailed history of the origin of entrepreneurship. They note that the word entrepreneur was first coined by the early French economist Richard Cantillon. It was in the 17th century that Cantillon described an entrepreneur as someone who takes the risk of engaging in exchanges for a profit (Hebert & Link, 2009:241). Since inception, the term entrepreneur gained popularity to the point that other writers, such as Jean Baptist Say reformulated the concept's meaning and described the entrepreneur as a leader of production and distribution processes, who aims at minimising resource allocation while maximising overall efficiency within the production process (Peneder, 2009:80). Entrepreneurship continued to gain popularity up until the 20th century where classical economist Joseph Schumpeter introduced the concept of innovation (Hebert & Link, 2009:242). As an innovator, Schumpeter described the entrepreneur as someone who makes a profit through successful innovation of the entire production and distribution process. It can further be stated that the personal profit motive is a central engine that powers private enterprise and social wealth. Although the profit making motive might be a "central engine" of entrepreneurship, it does not preclude other motivations.

Apart from the economic perspective, entrepreneurship has evolved into a series of approaches, namely the behavioural approach, trait approach and opportunity identification approach (Kobia & Sikalieh, 2010:112). Firstly, the behavioural approach

describes entrepreneurship based on the actions of the entrepreneur. For instance, Carland *et al.* (1984:358) identify the actions of an entrepreneur as the innovative process of establishing and strategically managing a business for the principal purpose of making profits. Secondly, the trait approach denotes entrepreneurship with the characteristics inherent to the entrepreneur. According to Leibenstein (1968:74), an entrepreneur is someone who is characterised as a risk taker, with leadership qualities, who is able to motivate others, and has the ability to identify opportunities in the market. The third approach is one that describes entrepreneurship according to opportunity identification process (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000:220). Other researchers have called this approach entrepreneurial management (Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990:17). This approach emphasises how entrepreneurs achieve their goals, irrespective of their personal circumstances or impact from their immediate environment. The next section discusses the characteristics of entrepreneurs.

2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF ENTREPRENEURS

Various contributions have emerged in the literature concerning the characteristics of entrepreneurs. While some research has focused on individual's personality as a differentiating factor between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs (Beugelsdijk & Noorderhaven, 2005:160). Others are of the view that socio-economic and attitudinal characteristics, such as family's economic status, the individual's age, past work experience and technical education/training, play a significant role (Nair & Pandey, 2006:47). The following sections discuss some of these characteristics.

2.3.1 Personality traits

In search for answers as to why some individuals become more successful entrepreneurs than others, many studies have focused on understanding personality traits. Llewellyn and Wilson (2003:342) define personality traits as individual attributes that explain differences in behaviour under similar circumstances. These attributes tend to assist entrepreneurs in making good business decisions with far reaching consequences. McClelland (1961:259) indicates that entrepreneurial behaviour can be associated with personality characteristics like need for achievement, moderate risk-taking propensity, preference for energetic and/or novel activity and the tendency to assume personal responsibility for success or failure.

Due to lack of rigorous empirical evidence, some studies have criticised the influence of personality traits in determining entrepreneurial intentions (Mitchell *et al.*, 2002:95). However, despite the criticisms, a number of studies have discussed the unique characteristics that distinguish entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs. For example Stewart and Roth (2001:145) characterised entrepreneurs as individuals with greater risk taking propensity compared to managers. In a meta-analysis study Stewart and Roth (2001:145) found that, although present, the level of risk taking propensity among entrepreneurs tends to fluctuate with respect to how one defines an entrepreneur. If defined according to growth potential, entrepreneurs that aspire for more growth also have higher risk taking propensity, and, while referring to the changes in risk appetite, the risk gap between managers and entrepreneurs grows even bigger. According to McClelland's (1961:259) n-Achievement theory, individuals with a high need for achievement tend to perform well in entrepreneurial roles than those with a low need for achievement. Drawing from McClelland's theory, Collins *et al.* (2004:107) found significant correlations between achievement motivation and entrepreneurship career choice. They described entrepreneurs as individuals that are constantly motivated by the need for achievement

2.3.2 Demographic factors

In contrast to personality traits, other studies have described entrepreneurs according to demographic factors. Nicolaou *et al.* (2008:169) acknowledge that demographic factors, such as gender, age, level of education, employment status and income may characterise individuals as entrepreneurs. As the role of education level becomes apparent in entrepreneurship, Hisrich and Peters (2002:584) observed an increasing interest among MBA graduates in becoming entrepreneurs. The role of education in entrepreneurship provides evidence that entrepreneurship can be taught. Robinson and Sexton (1994:154) confirmed the role of education in entrepreneurship and concluded that level of education had a significant effect on entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs were associated with higher levels of education compared to non-entrepreneurs. It was also noted that the probability of engaging in entrepreneurship was associated with highly educated individuals.

Similarly, gender differences among entrepreneurs are increasingly becoming a topic of discussion within entrepreneurship literature. In describing the role of gender as a

differentiating factor between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs, Gupta *et al.* (2009:409) found that entrepreneurial roles are dominated by males more than females. Although females showed some attachment to entrepreneurial roles, those who participated in the survey identified their entrepreneurial roles as being dominated by a masculine stereotype. In the same vein, an earlier study by Heilbrunn (2004:159) noted an increasing number of successful female entrepreneurs dominating certain types of businesses in the world. This development led the researcher to understand what differentiates male and female dominated businesses. Upon conducting a survey among 462 entrepreneurs in Israel, Heilbrunn (2004:162) found no significant differences between males and females regarding their age, level of education or occupation before starting a business. However, differences were reflected in the types of businesses men and women were involved in. Women were found to be struggling in businesses that were more competitive, such as manufacturing, finance and technical areas. These businesses normally required highly specialised qualifications and large investments. Women-dominated businesses are rather smaller, cheaper to run, and require less management skill compared to their male counterparts.

2.3.3 Opportunity identification

Some researchers have distinguished entrepreneurs according to the ability to identify opportunities. Alvarez and Barney (2007:12) describe an opportunity as the process of discovery and creation. According to Dimov (2007:713), an opportunity is a product of the process of transforming a raw idea into concepts that can be acted upon. In view of that, Shane and Venkataraman (2000:221) opine that the entrepreneur needs to have the necessary information and ability to identify the opportunity as valuable. It is further noted that the essence of entrepreneurship lies in the ability to leverage on opportunities. In other words, entrepreneurship cannot prevail in the absence of opportunities.

Research shows that opportunity identification is a skill that can be taught and developed as a unique competence among individuals. In a survey that involved 130 senior undergraduates at a university in western United States, DeTienne and Chandler (2004:253) found that individuals can be taught how to identify opportunities. Acquiring such skills improves the way in which innovative ideas are generated.

2.4 IMPORTANCE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Although describing the entrepreneur and entrepreneurship rendered itself complex, researchers in the field still find entrepreneurship an important area of study (Bruton *et al.*, 2008:1). This importance is equally reflected in the level of entrepreneurial activity around the globe (Bosma *et al.*, 2009:19). Many countries have promoted entrepreneurship for reasons such as economic growth, wealth creation, and employment creation. However, the level at which entrepreneurship impacts on development differs from country to country (Bosma *et al.*, 2009:15). This level tends to be mediated by factors such as population growth, culture and national entrepreneurship policy. As indicated earlier, Shane and Venkataraman (2000:221) opine that the effect of entrepreneurship requires the presence of opportunities and entrepreneurial capabilities. The next section describes the impact of entrepreneurship on economic growth.

2.4.1 Entrepreneurship and economic growth

One of the major reasons why many countries promote entrepreneurship is because of its ability to boost economic systems. The innovative activity of entrepreneurs creates a constant destructive process on the equilibrium of the economic system that creates opportunities for economic rent (Schumpeter, 1942:78). Although the impact of economic activity may differ between developed and developing countries (Naudé, 2010:1), it is noted that governments worldwide have embraced entrepreneurship due to its impact on wealth creation (Michael & Pearce, 2009:285). Furthermore, Van Praag and Versloot (2007:354) highlight a number of ways in which entrepreneurship impacts on economic development. Firstly, entrepreneurship improves the number and quality of employment in economies. Secondly, entrepreneurship brings about innovation, which is new ways of production as well as production of new and improved products. Thirdly, entrepreneurship enhances productivity and growth in terms of the country's gross domestic production (GDP). Lastly, the individuals' utility levels improve in an entrepreneurial environment as the entrepreneurs' expected outcomes are higher with respect to the risk involved in the process.

Consistence with the aforementioned, many more studies have reflected on the impact of entrepreneurship on economic growth. With the aim of identifying the effect of entrepreneurial activity on economic growth among nascent entrepreneurs in 36

countries, Van Stel *et al.* (2005:318) found that economic growth largely depended on the level of entrepreneurial activity in a country. In the same vein, Bosma *et al.* (2009:15) note how each country experiences a unique impact of entrepreneurship and economic growth. The authors explain that the difference in entrepreneurial impact depends on factors such as the availability of opportunities, the individuals' entrepreneurial capabilities, the presence of role models and the positive perception people have towards entrepreneurship. Volkmann *et al.* (2009:15) opine that economies are still faced with the challenge to develop an entrepreneurial culture among young adults and to acquaint them with the necessary strategies, attitudes, and behaviour to engage in entrepreneurship. The next section discusses the importance of entrepreneurship among students.

2.4.2 Importance of entrepreneurship among students

University students and academics worldwide are increasingly becoming acquainted with entrepreneurship. Research shows that this is partly due to the effect of scarce employment opportunities amongst university graduates (Nabi, 2003:371; Moreau & Leathwood, 2006:305). Studies further report on an increasing need to incorporate entrepreneurship as an academic area of study among universities across the globe (Matlay, 2008:382). This is evident from the number of studies that have been conducted to support the need for entrepreneurship education. For example, Venkataraman (1997:119) observed an increasing interest in entrepreneurship, especially in business schools, which was further exacerbated by an increasing demand for courses in entrepreneurship education as an alternative strategy, should uncertainty arise in the corporate space. Additionally, a study by Keat *et al.* (2011:216) found that entrepreneurship was enhanced when students were exposed to the education environment. The study aimed at determining the relationship between entrepreneurship and the inclination towards entrepreneurship.

Bramwell and Wolfe (2008:1186) have established that the interaction between university students and industries is a good platform for creating sustainable economic development. In their view, the formula for nurturing students with world-class teaching and disseminating this knowledge to the local communities is highly beneficial towards economic development. Furthermore, while acknowledging the importance of entrepreneurship for economic growth and development, the 2014 European Union

Council (EUC) has concluded that youth involvement in entrepreneurship creates autonomy, personal development, and wellbeing among the young people (Council of the European Union, 2014:2). Therefore, it is of much needed interest that an entrepreneurial environment be created where students are exposed to entrepreneurship education and training in order for them to grow and flourish (Council of the European Union, 2014:3).

Alternative to traditional entrepreneurship, studies are increasingly showing the interest of exposing students towards social entrepreneurship (Tracey & Phillips, 2007:264). Social entrepreneurship is a business model that combines resourcefulness of traditional entrepreneurship with the mission to meet the needs of poor people in society (Seelos & Mair, 2005:241). This concept will be discussed further in the next section.

2.5 A TYPOLOGY OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

There are four related domains in the study of entrepreneurship namely, conventional, institutional, cultural and social (Dacin *et al.*, 2010:44). Although there are some similarities amongst the forms of entrepreneurship (e.g. achieving economic value), clear differences also exist (Dacin *et al.*, 2010:44). Conventional entrepreneurship entails doing business the innovative way and the success of the entrepreneur depends on the level of creativity and the presence of individual skills and abilities. Maguire *et al.* (2004:657) define institutional entrepreneurship as “the activities of actors who have interest in particular institutional arrangements and who leverage resources to create new institutions or to transform existing ones”. Dacin *et al.* (2010:47) describe cultural entrepreneurship as the practice of a cultural capitalist who assumes the risk of identifying an opportunity in the cultural domain with the aim of achieving cultural value. Social entrepreneurship is generally described as the act of doing business to serve a social purpose. A detailed explanation of the other forms of entrepreneurship is beyond the scope of the current study. Table 2.1 provides a summary of the four types of entrepreneurship. The current study will focus on social entrepreneurship.

Table 2.1: Types of entrepreneurship

	Conventional	Institutional	Cultural	Social
Definition	An agent who enables or enacts a vision based on new ideas in order to create successful innovations. (Schumpeter, 1950)	An agent who can mobilize resources to influence or change institutional rules, in order to support or destroy an existing institution, or to establish a new one. (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983)	An individual who identifies an opportunity and acts upon it in order to create social, cultural, or economic value. (DiMaggio, 1982; Wilson & Stokes, 2004)	An actor who applies business principles to solving social problems
Organisational form	Profit making	Profit making	Non-profit or profit	Non-profit or profit
Primary goal	Economic	Institutional reform/development	Cultural diffusion/enlightenment	Social change/well-being
Examples	Business service providers	Apple/ Kodak	Museums	Grammen Bank

Source: Dacin *et al.* (2010:44)

As illustrated in Table 2.1, the four types of entrepreneurship have some common ground. Each of the types of entrepreneurship has a motive to achieve some goal, be it economic, institutional, cultural or social. However, a clear distinction is made as to whether the organisational form is primarily for-profit or non-profit. For-profit organisations achieve value by making an economic profit while non-profit organisations find value through the provision of social benefits to society. Primarily, non-profit organisation practice what is called social entrepreneurship.

Social entrepreneurship is increasingly becoming a topic of discussion among students worldwide (Tracey & Phillips, 2007:264). Social entrepreneurship is a business model that combines resourcefulness of traditional entrepreneurship with the mission to meet the needs of the poor people in society (Seelos & Mair, 2005:241). This concept will be discussed further in the next section

2.6 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The concept of social entrepreneurship has a long history. Since inception, researchers have defined the term in different ways (Dees, 1998:1), with definitions ranging from broad to narrow (Austin *et al.*, 2006:2). As Trivedi (2010:66) concurs, social entrepreneurship is an ill-defined concept, and, like entrepreneurship, considerable tension still remains concerning a more unified definition on the subject. In an earlier study, Mair and Marti (2006:37) argued that a clear definition of the key constructs and concepts is required for social entrepreneurship to become a structured field of research. Similarly, Short *et al.* (2009:161) contend that reaching a consensus in defining social entrepreneurship is important in order to establish legitimacy of the field.

However, some researchers have associated social entrepreneurship with non-profit initiatives that aim at achieving social value through alternative funding and management strategies (Austin *et al.*, 2006:2; Mair & Marti, 2006:37). Other researchers describe social entrepreneurship as a commercial business embedded in social responsible practice in cross sector partnerships (Sagawa & Segal, 2000:105; Cornelius *et al.*, 2008:355). Yet another group of researchers categorise social entrepreneurship with the actions of social entrepreneurs who aim at alleviating social problems and catalyse social transformation through innovation (Sullivan, 2007:77; Tracey & Phillips, 2007:264).

Although the literature presents numerous definitions of social entrepreneurship, attempts towards a more unified definition are still rare (Mair & Marti, 2006:40). Nevertheless, based on the literature, this study defines social entrepreneurship as the process through which individuals are influenced to operate in the commercial sector with the aim of providing products and services that benefit the poor people in society (Mair & Naboia, 2003:1; Dacin *et al.*, 2010:38). In the process, social entrepreneurs create social value. Social value is described as the fulfilment of the society's basic needs, such as food, water, shelter, education and medical services (Certo & Miller, 2008:267). Social value is the buzz word that distinguishes social entrepreneurship from its counterpart, commercial entrepreneurship. While social entrepreneurs are driven to make a profit in order to serve the needs of the society, commercial entrepreneurship create value in achieving profits for the individual

entrepreneur (Smith & Stevens, 2010:579). Table 2.2 provides a summary of some of the various definitions of social entrepreneurship presented in the literature.

Table 2.2: Social entrepreneurship defined

Reference	Definition
Prabhu (1999:140)	<i>Social entrepreneurial leaders are persons who create and manage innovative entrepreneurial organizations or ventures whose primary mission is the social change and development of their client group.</i>
Dees, Emerson, & Economy (2002: xxiii–xxviii)	<i>Social entrepreneurship is a passionate social mission guided by visions of competitive strategies, combined with disciplined entrepreneurial principles.</i>
Alvord et al (2003:137)	<i>Social entrepreneurship is an 'innovative character of the initiative.</i>
Pomerantz (2003:26)	<i>The key to social entrepreneurship involves taking a business-like, innovative approach to the mission of delivering community services.</i>
Hartigan (2006:43)	<i>Social entrepreneurship is aimed at advancing social transformation.</i>
Haugh (2007:743)	<i>Social entrepreneurship is a practical entrepreneurial venture response to unmet social, economic and environmental needs.</i>
Sullivan (2007:77)	<i>Social entrepreneurs are described as challenged to effectively solve and translate problems into opportunities through efficient entrepreneurial innovation.</i>
Tracey & Phillips (2007:264)	<i>Social entrepreneurs are individuals who develop economically sustainable solutions to social problems.</i>
Wolk & Kreitz (2008:2)	<i>Social entrepreneurship is the practice of responding to market failures with transformative, financially sustainable innovations aimed at solving social problems.</i>

Source: Van Wyk and Adonisi (2010:70)

2.6.1 Development of social entrepreneurship as a scholarly field of study

Although finding a unified definition of social entrepreneurship may be puzzling due to the relative infancy of the term, the idea has been practically prevalent throughout history (Dees, 1998:1). Researchers in the field have highlighted a number of factors leading to the development of social entrepreneurship. For example, Shaw and Carter (2007:419) identify the development of social entrepreneurship through the working together of voluntary and public organisations, communities and private organisations to achieve a common goal of social-upliftment instead of merely focusing on making profit. Likewise, Leadbeater (1997:7) associates the emergence of social entrepreneurship as a result of inadequacies in resource provisions by government organisations. According to Dees (1998:1) social sector institutions, led by the government, have become ineffective, inefficient and unresponsive, making it necessary for entrepreneurs to assume responsibility by developing new models of doing things in the new economy.

Since inception, little scholarly output has emerged in the literature concerning social entrepreneurship (Short *et al.*, 2009:191). Many studies in the field have placed emphasis on the conceptual understanding of the term (Mair & Naboa, 2003:1) and little on its theoretical and empirical understanding (Sharir & Lerner, 2006:7; Short *et al.*, 2009:167). However, an observation has been made that, due to lack of comprehensive theory on social entrepreneurship, developments in the field of social entrepreneurship are grounded in the established theories of commercial entrepreneurship (Sharir & Lerner, 2006:7). For example, Dacin *et al.* (2010:37) opine that researchers interested in social entrepreneurship, have the opportunity to examine valuable assumption and insights from existing entrepreneurship theories and apply these in a way that addresses social entrepreneurship.

The concept of social entrepreneurship has since continued to blossom with the establishment of a number of foundations that aim at promoting change in society (Martin & Osberg, 2007:30). The most notable example being Ashoka, which was established in 1980 by Bill Drayton, with the mission of identifying and supporting world leaders who are change-driven and equipped with venture capital that aids them towards the improvement of peoples' lives (Hsu, 2005:63; Sen, 2007:534). Ashoka has continued to show its support towards social entrepreneurs and its impact has grown to include 1800 social entrepreneurs in 60 countries (Schlee *et al.*, 2009:7). Grammen Bank is another notable example of social entrepreneurship. The bank was established by Muhammed Yunus in 1976 and its main purpose was to help the poor people in Bangladesh to have access to financial assistance, in terms of small loans without collateral, which was otherwise impossible through the formal banking system (Martin & Osberg, 2007:35). Through these establishments, social entrepreneurship has proven to be an important alternative strategy for economic development in many economies.

To date, social entrepreneurship is well established in developed economies, particularly in the western economies (Aygören, 2014:23). A large number of studies have been presented on the subject in countries like the USA, Canada and the UK (Mair & Marti, 2006:41). However, Santos (2012:337) observes that, although social entrepreneurship enjoys recognition at a global level, most of the targeted problems emanate from developing economies, and thus, from within the local settings of a

social entrepreneur. Additionally, Zahra *et al.* (2008:118) observe that most of the world's poor, sick and illiterate people are in developing countries, whereas resources to assist such people are only adequately available in developed economies. Furthermore, the authors note that through globalisation, technological advances, demographic shifts and calls for social consciousness, social entrepreneurship has now acquired recognition at a global level.

2.6.2 Characteristics of social entrepreneurs

Social entrepreneurs are individuals who create businesses with the aim to serve people in society (Thompson, 2002:413). In other words, social entrepreneurs tackle social challenges and respond to those challenges where the market and the public sector fail to do so. According to Venter *et al.* (2008:525) characteristics of social entrepreneurs are not different from those of commercial entrepreneurs. Specific emphasis has been placed on factors such as innovation, passion and desire for greater reward. Likewise, Leadbeater (1997:53) demonstrated that like entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs are entrepreneurial, innovative and are able to transform the environments in which they operate.

Dees (1998:6) characterised social entrepreneurs as a rare breed. It is argued that social entrepreneurs are people with exceptional inherent behaviour. It is further argued that not everyone should aspire to be a social entrepreneur because the desire to become one is special in certain people. Barendsen and Gardner (2004:44) arrive at a similar understanding and conclude that social entrepreneurs are people with rooted beliefs that form early in life, particularly driven by some form of trauma early in life. Table 2.3 provides a summary of the characteristics of social entrepreneurs.

Table 2.3: Characteristics of social entrepreneurs

Source	characteristic	Description of characteristic
Dees (1998)	Social sector change agents	Social entrepreneurs adopt a mission to create change, recognise new opportunities, and engage in a continuous process of innovation while acting boldly irrespective of limited resources.
Brinckerhoff (2000)	Risk takers	Social entrepreneurs take risks on behalf of the people in their organisation.
Waddock and Post (1991)	Private sector citizens	Social entrepreneurs are citizens of the private sector who identify opportunities in the public sector and in so doing play critical roles of bringing change to this sector.
LaBarre et al (2001)	Dedicated innovators	Social entrepreneurs aim at tackling some society's challenges through the development of novel ideas from the business.

Source: Mair and Naboia (2003:6)

As previously noted, factors that characterise social entrepreneurs are not so different from those of commercial entrepreneurs. So far, a clear distinction that has been noted is the idea that, unlike commercial entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs embark on a business with a mission of creating social value (Dees, 1998:6). Having clearly defined what social entrepreneurship and the social entrepreneur entail, the next section discusses why social entrepreneurship is an important area of study.

2.6.3 Importance of social entrepreneurship

Social entrepreneurship is an important business concept that aims at providing innovative solutions to unsolved social problems while putting social value creation at the heart of the strategy in order to improve individuals' lives and improve their well-being. Researchers in the field have highlighted on its importance from different viewpoints. For example, Mair and Marti (2006:36) argue that social entrepreneurship is an important area of study as it provides researchers with a platform to challenge, question and rethink concepts and assumptions that exist in other fields of management and business research. Likewise, Nagler (2007:1) hails social entrepreneurship for its contribution towards economic development policies. The author further argues that social and economic values are created through, *inter alia*, increased employment development that attracts the disadvantaged segment, the provision of the unmet social needs through product and service innovation and the provision of social capital.

Historically, social entrepreneurship has consistently been commended as the alternative process of providing much needed social goods and services to society at large, and the social entrepreneur is known to be the agent of change behind these developments (Peredo & McLean, 2006:63; Harding & Crowling, 2006:5). The activities of these social entrepreneurs are significantly important in situations where government facilities have failed or are unable to deliver much needed resources and services such as employment, health care and education (Peredo & McLean, 2006:63).

Additionally, empirical findings provide support for this trend. For instance, the 2006 GEM report revealed that 3.2 percent of the work population consisted of social entrepreneurs, which represented over half the percentage number of commercial entrepreneurs of 6.2 percent (Harding & Cowling, 2006:13). These findings simply show how significant and important social entrepreneurship has become.

Although social entrepreneurship has been noted to be one important strategy for social change, it is necessary to understand how the desire to start a business with a social mission gets formed (Mair & Naboia, 2003:7). The answer to this question lies in understanding social entrepreneurship intentions. For the purposes of this study, a distinction is made between social entrepreneurship intentions and social entrepreneurial intentions. Social entrepreneurship intentions can be described as the practice through which a person intends to start a business with the purpose of creating social change in society. On the other hand, social entrepreneurial intentions entail a person's intentions or the likelihood of starting a business to advance social change through innovation (Prieto, 2010:33). Stated differently, social entrepreneurial intentions express the desire, wish or hope that someone has in order to operate in a commercial space with a mission to create social value. Thomson (2009:676) describes social entrepreneurial intentions as a self-acknowledged conviction individuals have when they intend to become social entrepreneurs. Thompson further describes social entrepreneurial intentions as the ultimate factor influencing ones behaviour towards social entrepreneurship intentions. The following section will discuss the theoretical framework of social entrepreneurship intentions.

2.7 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS

Intentions are a state of mind that is action-oriented and directs an individual's behaviour towards achieving a specific goal (Bird, 1988:442). As a state of mind, intentions are interesting to those who desire to become entrepreneurs (Krueger *et al.*, 2000:411). Although entrepreneurial ideas are interesting and inspiring, clear intentions need to be present for the ideas to become manifest (Bird, 1988:442). Accordingly, Krueger *et al.* (2000:411) stipulate that entrepreneurship as the process of opportunity identification is clearly an intentional process. Therefore, in the context of this study, social entrepreneurship intentions are defined as the students' desire to act on a business with the purpose of solving the social problems in society

Krueger *et al.* (2000:411) observe that in the psychological literature, the study of intentions has proven to be the best predictor of a planned behaviour, such as entrepreneurship. In a similar fashion, Bird (1988:442) argues that studying the intentions model provides a more reliable measure of entrepreneurial behaviour, compared to the previously known measures, such as individual or situational factors. Likewise, Peterman and Kennedy (2003:129) agree to the notion that the intentions model is a better way of explaining entrepreneurship behaviour compared to the trait or personality factors. Additionally, Krueger *et al.* (2000:414) conclude that empirical findings on the individual and situational factors show weak predictions and mostly with disappointingly small explanatory powers.

The literature further highlights a number of models explaining the intentions process. The following sections will discuss the theory of planned behaviour model (Ajzen, 1991:182) and the structural model of entrepreneurial intent (Lüthje & Franke, 2003:139).

2.7.1 The theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour is a model that was created as an extension of the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen, 1991:181). According to Ajzen (1988:117) individuals tend to behave in a particular way, while taking into account the resulting consequences of their actions. In other words, people behave in a certain way simply because they have the intentions to do so. In general, Ajzen (1991:181) stipulates that intentions to perform a particular behaviour have to be strong enough to influence the

behaviour. Intentions indicate how hard one is willing to try and how much effort one is planning to exert. Ajzen (1988:117) further highlights that the intentions and subsequent behaviours are a function of three basic determinants, namely attitude towards behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behavioural controls. Attitude towards behaviour refers to ones' favourable appraisal towards a specific behaviour. Subjective norm entails the pressure one gets from peers to engage in certain behaviour. Perceived behavioural control is described as the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour, which is somehow influenced by either past experience or future consequences. Figure 2.1 illustrates a graphical presentation of Ajzen's model.

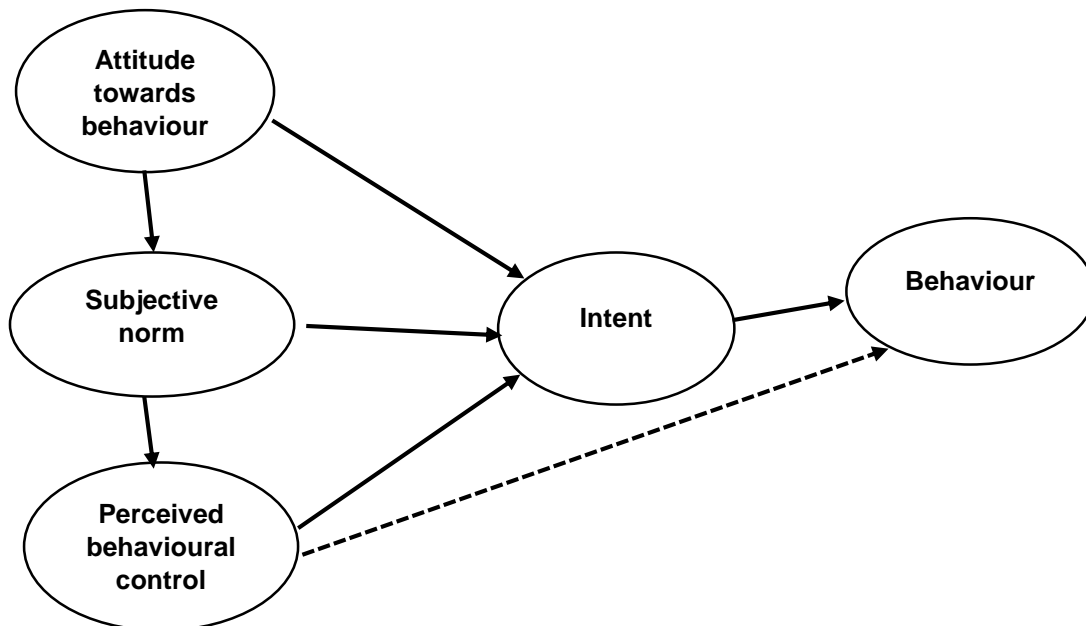


Figure 2.1: Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour

Source: Ajzen (1988:182)

Researchers worldwide have empirically tested students' entrepreneurial intentions based on the theory of planned behaviour (Autio *et al.*, 2001:145; Van Gelderen *et al.*, 2008:538; Gird & Bagraim, 2008:711). For example, Gird and Bagraim (2008:711) found the theory of planned behaviour to be a valuable tool for predicting behaviour. The study tested the effect of the theory as a predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour. The study was conducted among university students in the Western Cape, South Africa. Similarly, a study by Engle *et al.* (2010:35) among students from twelve countries found that the theory of planned behaviour was a successful model, capable

of explaining entrepreneurial intentions. The study aimed at testing the reliability of the model of theory of planned behaviour in predicting entrepreneurial intentions.

Therefore, drawing from the existing literature on entrepreneurial intentions, this study aims to use this model as a theoretical framework while identifying social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng.

2.7.2 The structural model of entrepreneurial intent

Similar to the theory of planned behaviour Lüthje and Franke (2003:138) also developed a model that integrated both individual traits and contextual factors in explaining entrepreneurial intent. The model was used to identify the causes of entrepreneurial intent among engineering students in Germany and Austria. Based on the model, Lüthje and Franke (2003:138) contend that factors that determine entrepreneurship intentions include risk taking propensity, locus of control, perceived barriers, attitude towards entrepreneurship and perceived support. In the model, risk taking propensity and internal locus of control represented the individual's personality traits. Perceived barriers and perceived support entailed the contextual factors. Attitude toward entrepreneurship was an endogenous factor. Figure 2.2 provides a graphical presentation of the structural model of entrepreneurial intent.

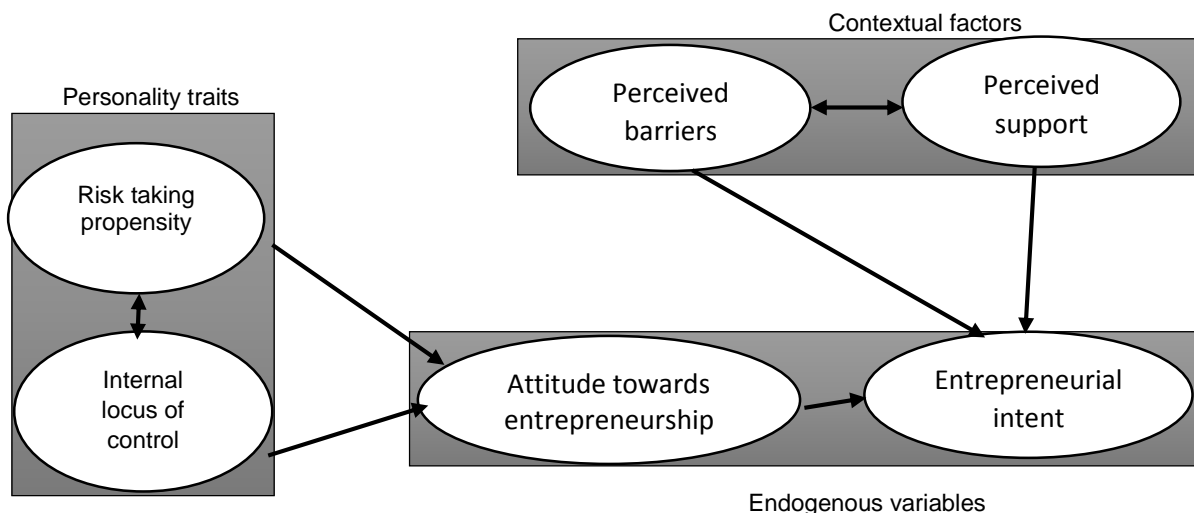


Figure 2.2: The structural model of entrepreneurial intent

Source: Lüthje and Franke (2003:139)

Upon testing the model, Lüthje and Franke (2003:142) confirmed the relationship between personality traits and contextual factors on entrepreneurial intentions. A direct

influence was found between contextual factors and entrepreneurial intent, while an indirect influence was found between personality traits and entrepreneurship intentions. Lüthje and Franke (2003:142) concluded that personality traits tended to have an indirect influence towards entrepreneurial intent due to the impact individual attitudes had in determining entrepreneurship. Accordingly, the authors explain that personality traits simply influence one's attitude towards self-employment. In other words, attitudes have a moderating effect towards entrepreneurial behaviour. The next section discusses a number of factors influencing social entrepreneurial intentions.

2.8 FACTORS INFLUENCING SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS

The traditional models of entrepreneurship have clearly identified intentions as a reliable prediction of entrepreneurial activity (Krueger *et al.*, 2000:411). In other words, without intentions no behaviour is likely to happen. Dawkins and Frass (2005:511) opine that intentions are the immediate determinant of behaviour. Intentional behaviour means that one believes that they are able to operate in a commercial space and has the necessary skills to do so. In an earlier study, Krueger and Brazeal (1994:91) argue that individual's intentions to become an entrepreneur require entrepreneurial potential. This could be interpreted as suggesting that before there can be entrepreneurship, there has to be some possibility that an individual can engage in entrepreneurship. There has to be some kind of determining factors that guide one's actions towards entrepreneurial behaviour.

Numerous factors have been identified in the literature as determinants of entrepreneurial intentions. For example, Dawkins and Frass (2005:511) argue that intentions are determined by individual's attitude towards behaviour, normative support and perceived behavioural control. Lebusa (2014:761) is of the opinion that entrepreneurial intentions are influenced by an individual's entrepreneurial knowledge, perceived desirability and perceived feasibility. These suggestions give a clear indication that intentions towards an entrepreneurial behaviour are highly subjective and depend on how people believe in themselves as being capable of achieving their potential.

Mair and Naboia (2003:7) argue that entrepreneurial behaviour is an intentional behaviour that is directed towards a specific entrepreneurial event. Krueger and Reilly (2000:411) further emphasise that intentions are a central theme in the comprehension

of the entrepreneurial process. Therefore, it can be argued that in the context of social entrepreneurship, these intentions can even be more pronounced. Hence, investigating factors that influence social entrepreneurial intentions can be the first step towards the discovery of a comprehensive theory of social entrepreneurship as illustrated in Figure 2.3.

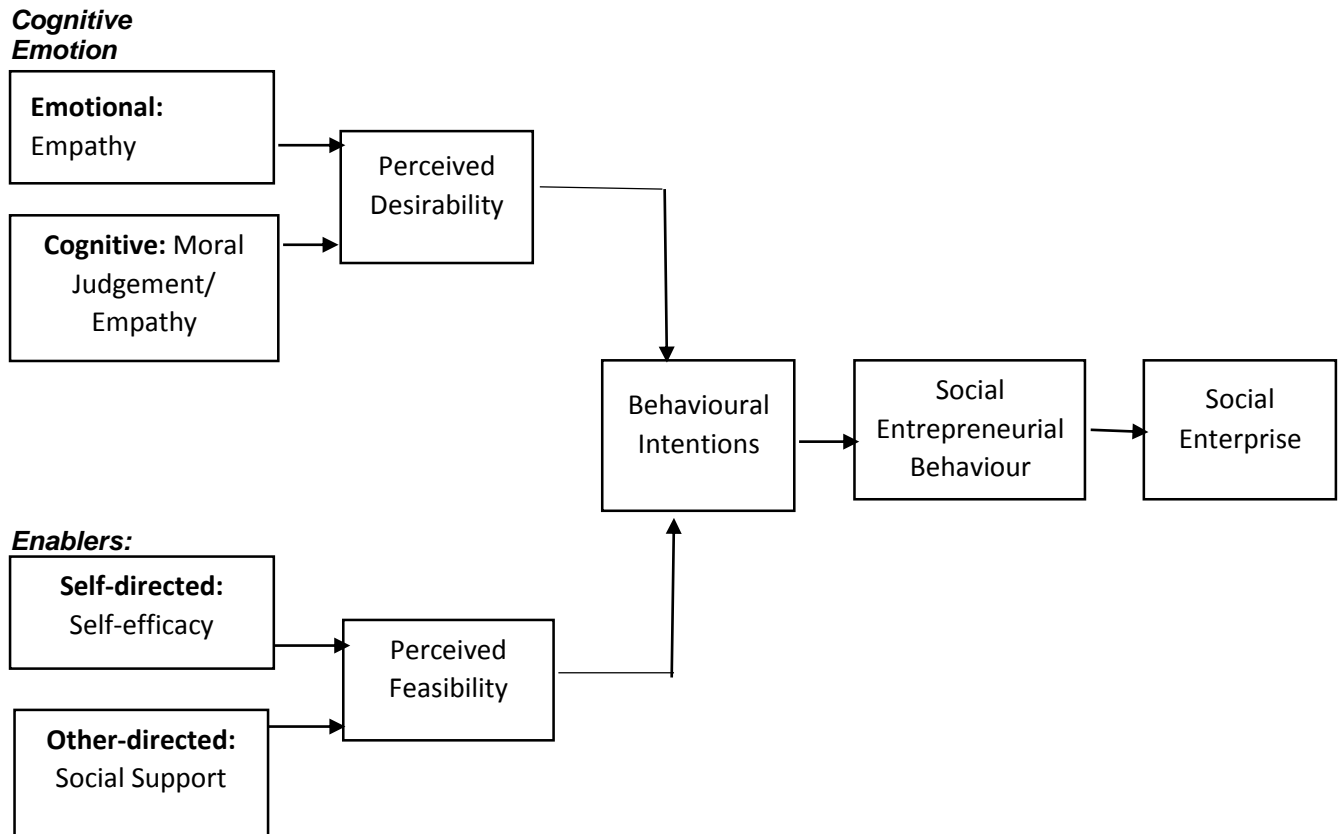


Figure 2.3: A model of social entrepreneurial intentions

Source: Mair and Naboia (2003:8)

Therefore, drawing from the intentions models, the next section discusses the following factors: attitude towards behaviour, perceived feasibility and perceived desirability and self-efficacy. For the purposes of this study, these discussions will only shed light on the understanding of the concepts and provide an explanation of the empirical evidence. It is not intended to go into detail regarding the psychological nature of the concepts as this does not support the aim of the study.

2.8.1 Attitude towards behaviour

According to Ajzen (1991:181) attitude towards behaviour is the degree to which a person has a favourable or an unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question. The author further states that attitudes need to be strong enough in order to influence a particular behaviour. Research shows a clear relationship between attitudes and entrepreneurial behaviour (Gurrero *et al.*, 2008:35). Attitude towards entrepreneurship has been found to be one important determining factor that influences the decision to become an entrepreneur. Veciana *et al.* (2005:165), with the aim of empirically examining the influence of attitudes towards entrepreneurship among university students in Catalonia and Puerto Rico, found that attitude towards behaviour portray a positive entrepreneurial image among the students.

2.8.2 Perceived feasibility and desirability

Perceived feasibility and desirability are two important concepts that were proposed by Shapero and Sokol in the early 80s (Krueger, 1993:8). Perceived desirability is the extent to which starting a business becomes attractive. On the other hand, perceived feasibility is defined as the degree to which an individual believes in oneself as being capable of starting a business. These concepts have been widely used in the literature concerning their influence on entrepreneurial intentions (Krueger *et al.*, 2000:412; Veciana *et al.*, 2005:165; Guerrero *et al.*, 2008:47). Krueger *et al.* (2000:412) tested the effectiveness of Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (TPB) in comparison to Shapero's model of the entrepreneurial event among senior university business students. They found that perceived feasibility and desirability are strong predictors of entrepreneurial behaviour. On the contrary, upon analysing the relationship between perceived feasibility and desirability among two different groups of students, Guerrero *et al.* (2008:47) found that university students only showed positive perceptions of new firm desirability and not its feasibility. However, although survey results provide inconsistent findings, the concepts still remain important areas of study.

2.8.2.1 Personal attitude

Personal attitude is an intrinsic action that explains what the individual finds attractive or desirable (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994:96). For instance, one can act in a certain way because of the intrinsic reward they get from performing the action. In other words, it

can be argued that personal attitude has a profound effect in determining individual's social entrepreneurial behaviour.

2.8.2.2 Perceived social norms

Perceived social norm is a psychological term that is used to describe how behaviour is influenced based on what individuals' perception are on what important people think about their actions (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994:96). Here, the thought of starting a new business with a social mission is an example of behaviour that can be influenced by perceptions of family, friends or important people in society towards the potential social entrepreneur. According to Krueger and Brazeal (1994:97), this influence bears a cultural impact in the sense that the potential entrepreneur first assesses how the community would embrace their idea of becoming a social entrepreneur.

2.8.2.3 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a concept that was derived from Bandura's social learning theory in the late 70s (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994:66). It is a psychological concept that influences thought patterns, actions and emotional arousal in humans (Bandura, 1982:122). In a nutshell, the author stipulates that self-efficacy is highly influenced by personal judgement, that is, what effort one is willing to make and how long they will persist to face obstacles. It is further noted that in the social learning perspective, judgements of self-efficacy are based on four principles namely: verbal persuasion and associated types of social influences that one possesses certain capabilities; judgements of their own physical capabilities, strengths and vulnerability; performance attainments (mastery experience); and various experiences of observing others (modelling) (Bandura, 1982:126). According to Krueger and Brazeal (1994:94) self-efficacy is the attribute of perceived feasibility. They describe self-efficacy as the "personal ability to execute target behaviour". Self-efficacy allows a person to initiate and persist to a certain behaviour under extreme levels of uncertainty. In other words, without one believing in themselves as being capable of executing a particular action, no behaviour is likely possible.

Different authors have tested the impact of self-efficacy on entrepreneurial behaviour. For example, Zao *et al.* (2005:1265) tested the mediating role of self-efficacy in the

development of students' intentions to become entrepreneurs. Upon conducting the study among administration students from five universities in the US, the survey revealed that individuals choose to become entrepreneurs. These results further indicate that self-efficacy has a mediating role in directing entrepreneurial behaviour among students.

2.9 SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA

Like commercial entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurial activity has sparked a responsive chord in South Africa. Its impact is reflected in the rankings provided by the 2009 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM). The GEM explains countries' economic activity according to three stages namely: factor-driven economies, efficiency-driven economies, and innovation-driven economies (Bosma *et al.*, 2009:5). Factor-driven economies are those economies with lower levels of economic development. Efficiency-driven economies are those with much higher levels of production and industrialisation with medium sized growth. Innovation-driven economies are those that are well established with industrial growth that has reached its full potential.

According to the 2009 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), social entrepreneurial activity rankings, South African is ranked as an efficiency-driven economy (Bosma *et al.*, 2009:21). These rankings mean that social entrepreneurship in South Africa is at the medium growth level. As emphasised by Herrington *et al.* (2010:105), each country's entrepreneurial activity is reflected by the stage of economic development in that country.

2.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the literature on entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship intentions. Based on the literature, there is no general consensus as to what defines entrepreneurship. However, it was noted that entrepreneurship is an important area of study amongst researchers. This was highlighted by the increasing number of studies that have been conducted to support the need for entrepreneurship education worldwide. Many countries have promoted entrepreneurship for reasons such as economic growth, wealth creation, and employment creation. The chapter continued by discussing types of entrepreneurship. Amongst others, this chapter focused on discussing the concept of social

entrepreneurship. Social entrepreneurship is a business strategy that aims at making a profit with the mission of providing much needed social goods and services to society. This discussion was followed by an understanding of the factors that influence one's intentions towards social entrepreneurship. The chapter concluded by discussing the state of social entrepreneurship in South Africa. The following chapter describes the research methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter a literature review on entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship intentions was provided. This chapter focuses on the research methodology used in the study. It first discusses the research design and research approach. Thereafter, an outline of the sampling strategy is presented. This includes a discussion of the population, sampling frame, sampling methods and the sample size. Data collection methods, as well as procedures for data analysis, also form part of the discussion. The chapter concludes with a description of validity and reliability.

Research is defined as a process of planning, executing and investigating with the sole purpose of trying to find answers to a specific question (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:45). This process, however, requires a systematic approach in order to get reliable answers to the research problem as well as aiming at producing a credible report that others can understand and believe in (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:45). Accordingly, this chapter aims at discussing the methodological approaches used in the study.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Ghuri and Gronhaug (2010:54) define research design as the overall plan for relating conceptual research problem to relevant and practicable empirical research. Malhotra and Birks (2007:69) highlight three types of research design namely: exploratory, descriptive, and causal research designs. Exploratory research design is conducted for a problem that is not clearly defined. It involves preliminary activities that refine a problem to be researched on. In this regard, the research process that is adopted is flexible but not planned or structured (Zikmund *et al.*, 2007:21). Descriptive research is followed when there is a need to explain something in detail. For example, describing the characteristics of a population. In this case, the research question is planned and structured and the information needed is clearly defined (Malhotra, 2010:106). Causal research is conducted when the study's main objective is to identify

the extent and nature of cause-and-effect relationships. This study followed the descriptive research approach.

Descriptive research was chosen because the aim of the study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. Hence, with prior knowledge of the problem, the descriptive research approach allows the study to be structured and pre-planned (Malhotra, 2010:106). In such a case, the researcher is able to identify the target population, estimate the proportion of people to participate in the study, and make specific predictions (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2009:84).

3.3 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

There are two categories of the research approach namely, the qualitative approach and the quantitative approach (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:104). Qualitative research is primarily an unstructured exploratory research approach, generally based on small samples and is used to summarise the behaviour, experiences and feelings of participants. On the other hand, quantitative research approach seeks to quantify data from larger sample groups, and usually applies some form of statistical analysis to interpret data (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:152). This study adopted a quantitative research approach because the study involved conducting some statistical analyses to interpret data collected from the respondents.

3.4 THE SAMPLING STRATEGY

Sampling is a systematic process consisting of six steps which include: defining the target population, determining the sampling frame, selection of the sampling technique, determining the sample size, execution of the sampling process (data collection), and validating the sample (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:406). This sampling procedure is further outlined in Figure 3.1.

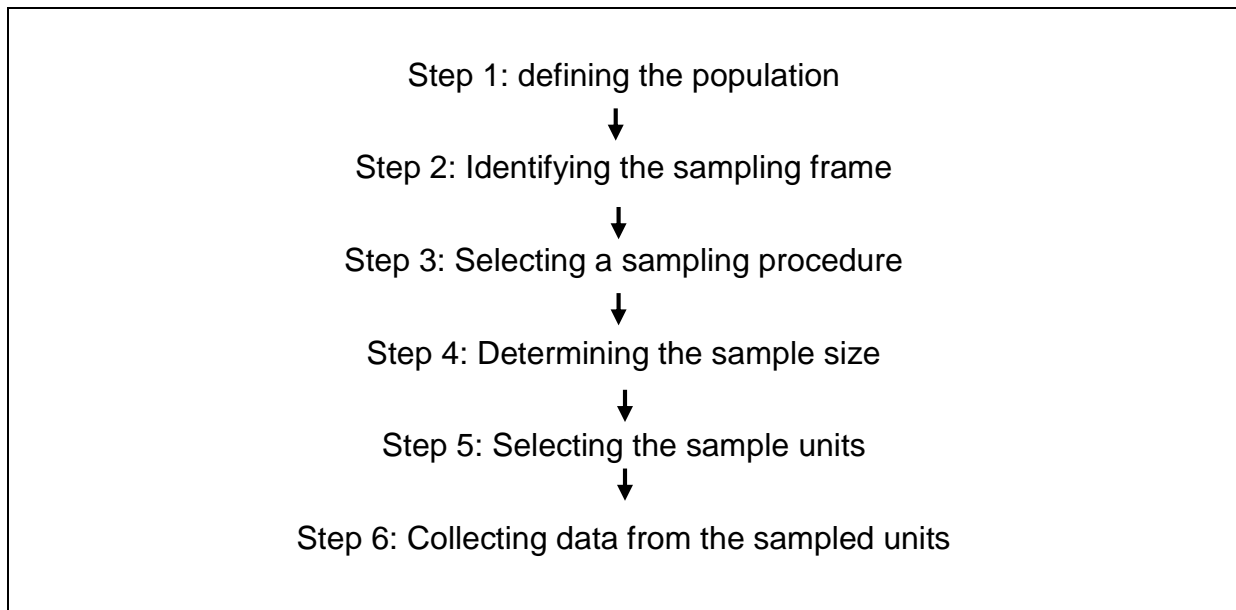


Figure 3.1: Procedure for drawing a sample

Source: Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:139)

3.4.1 The population

Churchill and Iacobucci (2009:282) define a population as the total number of elements that share a common set of characteristics. In addition, Martins *et al.* (1996:251) maintain that a population must specify the elements, sample units, time frame for the research, and size. The population in this study includes all university students in South Africa.

3.4.2 Target population

Malhotra and Birks (2007:406) opine that it is important to define the target population as precisely as possible, which involves translating the problem definition into a precise statement that determines the target population as accurately as possible.

With the aim of identifying social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng, the target population for the study comprised all university students in Gauteng. The sample was drawn from five universities in Gauteng. The sample consisted of 350 senior undergraduate and postgraduate students registered at designated institutions in Gauteng for the 2014 academic year.

3.4.3 Sampling frame

A sampling frame is a list of elements against which a sample is drawn (Zikmund & Babin, 2012:317). A simple example of a sampling frame would be a mailing list. If a list of elements cannot be compiled, the researcher must specify some other way of identifying the target population (Malhotra, 2010:372). The sample frame for the study comprised five universities in the Gauteng province South Africa.

3.4.4 Sampling methods

The sampling process is divided into two broad categories namely, probability and non-probability sampling (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:139). With probability sampling each unit has a known chance of being selected to be part of the sample. In that case, statistical inferences are possible, which means that the results drawn from the sample can be generalised to the population at large. With non-probability sampling, on the other hand, there is no known chance that elements in the population will be included in the sample. In other words, it is a sampling technique that relies on the researcher's personal judgement (Malhotra, 2010:376).

This study adopted a non-probability sampling technique because it tends to be more cost effective and convenient compared to probability sampling techniques (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:92). Furthermore, with non-probability sampling, determining the sample size needed to conduct research depends on the desired precision from the estimate (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:144). Precision is defined as the closeness within which one can expect to approximate the research results to the relevant population value. Accordingly, the researcher can decide what elements to include in the sample (Malhotra, 2010:376). There are four examples of non-probability sampling (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:92) namely:

- Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where elements of a sample are obtained as a result of availability. The elements in this case happen to be in the right place and at the right time convenient to the researcher.
- Judgemental sampling is a form of convenience sampling in which elements of a sample are obtained based on the researcher's personal judgement. Sampling elements are chosen because the researcher believes they represent the population.

- Quota sampling is a sampling technique that involves two stages. In the first stage the population is divided into groups called “quotas”. In the second stage elements are selected from the quotas either using convenience or judgemental sampling techniques.
- Snowball sampling is a sampling technique that involves randomly selecting an initial group of respondents. These respondents are then requested to identify others who fit in the category of the targeted population.

The convenience sampling technique was chosen for this study because, as Malhotra and Peterson (2006:330) contend, it has the advantage of being fast and inexpensive. Furthermore, the authors maintain that this sampling technique is easy to measure and sampling units are easily accessible. The sample for the study consisted of 350 university students, which were easily accessible from universities in Gauteng.

3.4.5 Sample size determination

According to Malhotra (2010:374), a sample size is the number of elements to be included in the research study. The author further acknowledges that several factors need to be taken into account when determining the sample size for a research study. These factors include, amongst others, the nature of the research, the nature of analysis, and sample sizes that were used in previous studies. Malhotra and Peterson (2006:358) are of the opinion that, if the research approach is qualitative in nature, the sample sizes tend to be small. On the other hand, if the research approach is quantitative in nature, larger sample sizes are required. Likewise, larger sample sizes are required if data are to be analysed in more detail or if sophisticated analysis techniques are to be applied.

The sample size for this study consisted of a total of 350 university students in Gauteng. This sample size was chosen as it was consistent with previous research studies. For example, a recent study by Urban (2013:9) used a sample size of 250 students from selected universities in Gauteng and Eastern Cape. The aim of the study was to determine the relationship between self-efficacy and a person’s willingness to pursue social entrepreneurship. Similarly, a study by Nga and Shamuganathan (2010:269) used a sample size of 200 students. The aim of the study was to determine the influence of personality traits on establishing a social business.

3.4.6 Data collection and measuring instrument

The process of data collection used in this study included conducting a literature study and administering a questionnaire. A literature study on social entrepreneurship intention was conducted in order to identify factors that determine social entrepreneurship intentions. These factors were further examined to determine their relevance within the South African context. In this regard, the questionnaire was used to collect the necessary data for measurement. The following sections explain the data collection procedure in more detail.

3.4.6.1 Literature study

When conducting research it is necessary for the researcher to use relevant theory (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:50). In this regard, an appropriate literature study was conducted from both national and international literature. The researcher consulted numerous academic journals, textbooks and internet sources to obtain the necessary information for the study.

3.4.6.2 Measuring instrument

Malhotra (2010:335) highlights three basic objectives that should be achieved when designing a questionnaire. Firstly, the questionnaire must be able to translate all the information needed by the researcher into a series of questions to be answered by respondents. Secondly, the questionnaire must be able to motivate and encourage respondents to become involved in the interview and complete it in an efficient and honest manner. Lastly, the researcher must aim at limiting response error as much as possible.

Additionally, Zikmund and Babin (2012:280) advise that questionnaire design must be relevant and accurate. A questionnaire is relevant when it addresses a research question. On the other hand, the questionnaire is accurate when the information provided in the questionnaire is valid. This means that the information represents the true reality of what it is measuring. This study used a self-administered questionnaire with close-ended statements. Equally important, Zikmund and Babin (2012:353) recommend that, when designing a questionnaire, the researcher must base the

statements on a good problem definition and clearly stated research question in order to get relevant and accurate information.

3.4.6.3 Questionnaire design

To measure social entrepreneurship intentions, this study adopted several statements from previous entrepreneurship intentions studies (Autio *et al.*, 2001:158; Hisrich & Peters, 2002:89; Kickul & Gundry, 2002:89; Lüthje & Franke, 2003:147; Liñán & Chen, 2009:612). Some statements were subsequently modified to suit the level of understanding of a South African student. The statements provided in the questionnaire were previously tested by the various authors. However, their relevance within the South African context is yet to be established.

Accordingly, factors that were used to measure social entrepreneurship include: attitude towards entrepreneurship, pro-active personality, risk-taking propensity, attitudes towards entrepreneurship education/university environment, perceived behavioural control and social entrepreneurship intention. Statements regarding pro-active personality were derived from an entrepreneurial relations study by Kickul and Gundry (2002:89) among small business owners in the US Midwest (see items B2.1 to B2.4 of the questionnaire – Appendix A).

Items regarding the students' attitude towards entrepreneurship education and perceived behavioural control were derived from a study by Autio *et al.* (2001:159) that aimed at identifying entrepreneurial intentions among the students in Scandinavia and the USA, based on the theory of planned behaviour (see items B4.1 to B4.5 and B5.1 to B5.3 – Appendix A). Statements regarding risk taking propensity were derived from the theoretical concepts by Hisrich and Peters (2002:70) (see items B3.1 to B3.8 – Appendix A). Attitudes towards entrepreneurship (personal attitude) and social entrepreneurial intention were measured based on statements derived from an entrepreneurial intentions study by Liñán and Chen (2009:612) among individuals in Taiwan and Spain (see items B1.1 to B1.5 and B6.1 to B6.8 – Appendix A). The instrument was developed through the application of Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour. Table 3.1 provides a summary of the factors used to measure social entrepreneurship intentions.

Table 3.1: Summary of questionnaire design

Factors	Questionnaire section	Source
Attitude towards entrepreneurship	B1.1 – B1.5	Liñán and Chen (2009:612)
Pro-active personality	B2.1 – B2.4	Kickul and Gundry (2002:89)
Risk taking propensity	B3.1 – B3.8	Hisrich and Peters (2002:70)
Attitudes towards entrepreneurship education/university environment	B4.1 – B 4.5	Autio et al. (2001:159)
Perceived behavioural control	B5.1 – B5.3	Autio et al. (2001:159)
Social entrepreneurship intention	B6.1 – B6.8	Liñán and Chen (2009:612)

3.4.7 Questionnaire format

Ghuri and Gronhaug (2010:119) relate questionnaire format to the general appearance and layout of a questionnaire. Fanning (2005:1) maintains that a well formatted questionnaire makes it easier for respondents to read and complete, as well as, reducing measurement errors. Therefore, when formatting a questionnaire, it is important to address the question of how the statements should be structured.

Furthermore, when formatting a questionnaire, one should also consider the concepts of scaling and measurement (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:335). According to Wagner *et al.* (2012:77), there are four primary levels of measurement which include: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. The nominal scale is the lowest scale whose purpose is to assign numbers to objects for identification. The ordinal scale is a form of numbering that indicates the relative position of the object that is distinct from other objects. The interval scale involves ranking numbers to some order with equal distances in between the numbering. The ratio scale is the highest level of measurement that allows the researcher to identify or classify objects, while at the same time ranking them and comparing their differences. This study used the nominal level of measurement where numbers were used to answer both demographic and social entrepreneurship intentions questions. In Section B, a 6 point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = slightly agree, 5 = agree and 6 = strongly agree) was used in this regard.

3.4.8 Questionnaire layout

According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:125), questionnaire layout is an important aspect that one needs to address when designing a questionnaire. The authors recommend that the questionnaire must look neat and tidy as this may influence the

response rate. Furthermore, Malhotra (2010:352) alludes to the notion that questionnaire layout is improved when sections are divided and numbered accordingly. Questionnaire numbering also makes coding easier for the researcher.

The questionnaire for this study was divided into three sections. Section A consisted of questions requesting demographic information of the participants. Students were requested to provide responses regarding their gender, age, designated (race) group, year of study, field of study, and whether they are self-employed or have parents that are self-employed.

Section B comprised statements regarding social entrepreneurship intentions. Social entrepreneurship intentions were measured in terms of the following factors namely, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality, risk taking propensity, attitude towards entrepreneurship education, perceived behavioural control, and social entrepreneurial intention. Each of these constructs consisted of a number of statements against which students were asked to express their level of agreement.

Section C comprised questions regarding the nature of the business. In this case, students were asked if they seriously do intend to start a business after school and indicate the type or purpose of this business. Refer to Appendix A for the questionnaire used in the study.

3.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire administration methods are increasingly evolving due to the influence of technology in the new age (Lee, 2009:2). Roberts (2007:5) highlights a number of methods researchers can use to administer a questionnaire. These include face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, self-administered questionnaires, and computer-assisted self-interviews. According to Dillman (1998:5), the choice of which administration method to use depends on factors such as cost, availability of respondents, technological changes, and a consideration of contributors of survey error.

The questionnaire for this study was administered in person. This method was chosen as it was the cheapest and easiest method available for the researcher. The researcher arranged to visit the students at their respective universities and the

questionnaires were administered both during and after classes. All questionnaires were collected immediately after students had filled them in.

3.6 DATA PREPARATION

Data preparation is defined as the process of checking the quality of data and converting it into a format that can be read and manipulated by computer software (Cant *et al.*, 2003:149). This process involves validating, editing, coding, data entry, and data cleaning. Data is validated by checking through the processes involved during data collection, in other words, if the process was free of bias or fraud. Data is edited by going through each questionnaire to check for any errors, inconsistencies and omissions. Data coding entails assigning numbers or symbols to all the answers in the questionnaire. Data entry is a process of entering the coded data into a software package that allows the researcher to manipulate it and transform it into information. Data cleaning involves checking for the presence of any errors in the data which may have occurred during data entry.

Data coding is a process of transforming the raw data into a form that can be easily analysed by computer software (Cant *et al.*, 2003:153). For the purpose of this study, data was coded according to specific constructs. Table 3.2 presents the actual coding information.

Table 3.2: Questionnaire coding information

TYPE OF DATA	VARIABLE	SECTION
Demographic data	A1 to A8	A
Attitude towards entrepreneurship	B1.1 to B1.5	B
Pro-active personality	B2.1 to B2.4	B
Risk taking propensity	B3.1 to B3.8	B
Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/University environment	B4.1 to B4.5	B
Perceived behavioural control	B5.1 to B5.3	B
Social entrepreneurial intention	B6.1 to B6.5	B
Family history in business	C1 to C3	C

3.7 RELIABILITY

Ghuri and Gronhaug (2010:79) define reliability as the stability of measurement. Thus, the extent to which a measuring instrument produces the same results every

time repeated measurements are made. Malhotra (2010:318) argues that measures can only be unreliable when there is presence of random error. Otherwise, if the errors are consistent, they subsequently do not have an impact on reliability. However, Churchill (1995:483) observes that, although reliability is necessary in measurement, a reliable measure does not need to be valid.

Cronbach's alpha reliability measure was used in this study. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:81) describe Cronbach's alpha as a measure of intercorrelations of items that are used to measure the underlying construct. According to Malhotra (2010:319), Cronbach's alpha values range between 0 and 1. Values of 0.6 and below indicate unsatisfactory internal consistency and values above 0.6 indicate satisfactory internal consistency. The reliability for Section B of the questionnaire was determined as discussed in Section 4.2 of this study.

3.8 VALIDITY

Scale validity is the extent to which differences in the observed scale truly represent the differences among the actual items or objects being measures (Malhotra, 2010:320). In other words, a measuring instrument actually measures what it is supposed to measure. The following sections discuss two types of validity namely, content validity and construct validity.

3.8.1 Content validity

Content validity focuses on how adequately the measuring instrument captures the complete content of the construct it is supposed to measure (Churchill, 1995:534). To ascertain content validity, the researcher can go to the extent of reviewing past literature of the construct (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:81). Therefore, for the purpose of this study the measuring instrument was designed based on previous studies. Some statements from these studies had to be altered in order to achieve some level of understanding within the South African context. In addition, the questionnaire was reviewed by three experienced academics in the field.

3.8.2 Construct validity

According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:81), construct validity is concerned with determining what the measuring instrument is actually measuring. Wagner *et al.*

(2012:81) describes two types of construct validity, namely convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is established when highly correlated items are indeed measuring the same thing. On the other hand, discriminant validity is established when correlation does not appear on constructs that are not supposed to measure the same thing.

As previously stated, the questionnaire for this study was designed by adapting items from different entrepreneurship intentions studies (Autio *et al.*, 2001:158; Hisrich & Peters, 2002:89; Kickul & Gundry, 2002:89; Lüthje & Franke, 2003:147; Liñán & Chen, 2009:612). A pilot study was conducted in order to ascertain validity of the questionnaire. Furthermore, this study used factor analysis to establish construct validity among the constructs. Factor analysis was chosen because the test is generally used for data reduction and summarisation. This is the case when data contains a large number of variables, some of which may be measuring the same thing, and need to be reduced to make the test manageable.

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is the process of transforming data into meaningful information that, in turn, allows for making inferences about a phenomenon (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:152). In statistical terms, data analysis can take the form of either descriptive analysis or inferential analysis (Cant *et al.*, 2003:166). Descriptive analysis is the most basic statistical analysis that includes statistical procedures that are used to describe the main features of a sample quantitatively. Inferential analysis is a statistical procedure that is used to make predictions about the population from the observed analyses of a sample.

Descriptive analysis was used in this study in order to report on the demographic profile of the sample. According to Zikmund and Babin (2012:502), descriptive analysis allows the researcher to summarise raw data in a way that describes the basic characteristics of the data, such as central tendency, distribution and variability. For this study, frequency tables were used to arrange data from the highest and lowest, which also included counts and percentages. Furthermore, pie charts were used to graphically illustrate the quantities and percentages of the data.

This study further used factor analysis to identify the components of social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. By definition, factor analysis is a technique that is used to reduce and summarise data (Malhotra, 2010:636). Factor analysis is used when there is a large number of variables, some of which may be explaining the same thing and, therefore, may need to be removed from the list (Malhotra, 2010:636). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to identify variations between some of the demographic variables on the factors. The results thereof will be discussed in Chapter 4.

3.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the research methodology used in this study. An outline of the research design, research approach and sampling strategy was presented. This was followed by a discussion on the process of data collection. In this chapter, the process of data analysis, which included a discussion on the statistical analysis technique chosen to analyse the data, was described. The following chapter discusses the analysis and interpretation of the collected data.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 described the research methodology used in the study. The technique used to collect, process and analyse data in the survey were also outlined. Statistical techniques used to determine validity and reliability of the questionnaire were also discussed.

This chapter presents the empirical findings of the study. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM-SPSS version 22) was used for data analysis. The chapter begins by presenting the results of the pilot study, followed by a discussion of the main survey results

4.2 THE PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was conducted in order to determine the reliability of the questionnaire before using it in the main survey. Reliability is determined when a measuring instrument contains scales that have good internal consistency (Pallant, 2013:101). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to determine internal consistency of the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha describes the extent to which items in a scale measure the same construct (Pallant, 2013:101). Cronbach's alpha index ranges from 0 to 1 with values closer to 1 indicating good internal consistency of the items on the scale (Gliem & Gliem, 2003:87). Therefore, to ascertain internal consistency of the questionnaire, this study conducted a pilot study among 55 students from selected universities in Gauteng. The pilot study was only conducted on Section B of the questionnaire. This section contained statements regarding social entrepreneurship intentions among students. A final alpha value of 0.923 was achieved for Section B of the study.

Prior to pilot testing, Section B of the initial questionnaire comprised 37 items which were scored on a 6 point Likert Scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Upon examining the item-total correlations, 3 items were deleted from Section B of the questionnaire because they showed low inter-item total correlations. Deletion of these items also increased the Cronbach's alpha value from 0.920 to

0.923. Table 4.1 provides the item description of the statements that were removed from the questionnaire after the process of item-total correlation analysis.

Table 4.1: Items deleted from the scale

Item	Item description
B1.2	I think it is more beneficial to society to have large businesses than small businesses.
B2.2	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
B5.3	To start my own business would probably be the best way for me to take advantage of my education

The following section provides the analysis of the main survey results.

4.3 ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN SURVEY

From a total of 350 questionnaires that were conveniently administered to the targeted students, 50 questionnaires were not returned and 6 questionnaires were partially completed and, therefore, were not included in the analysis. Accordingly, 294 questionnaires were used in the study.

A discussion of the analysis is presented in the following manner:

- Firstly, the demographic information of the data is presented.
- Secondly, results on exploratory factor analysis are presented.
- Thirdly, overall means for the identified factors are provided.
- Fourthly, the correlation between the identified factors if provided
- Fifthly, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) results between demographic variables (gender, age and year of study) and the identified factors are provided
- Lastly, a discussion of the reliability and validity of the questionnaire is provided.

4.3.1 Demographic information of respondents

Section A of the questionnaire requested participants in the survey to state their age, gender, designated group, year of study, field of study, and status of family employment history. This information demonstrated the demographic profile of the respondents. The results are presented in the sections that follow.

4.3.1.1 Gender

Participants in the survey were requested to state their gender. Of the 294 respondents, 121 (41%) were male, 170 (58%) were females, and 3 respondents (1%) did not specify their gender. Figure 4.1 provides a graphical presentation of the gender distribution of the sample.

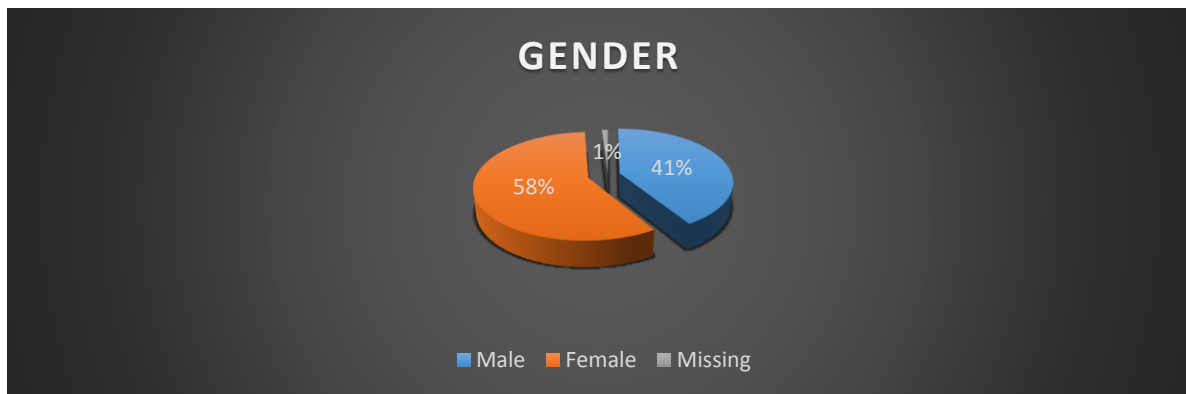


Figure 4.1: Gender distribution profile

4.3.1.2 Age

Survey participants were requested to state their age group. From the 294 participants, the age group <18 to 22 years comprised the largest group (n=228; 78%). This was followed by the age group 23 to 26 years (n=49; 17%), the age group 27 to >30 (n=14; 5%), and 3 participants (1%) did not specify their age. Figure 4.2 provides a graphical presentation of the age distribution of the participants.

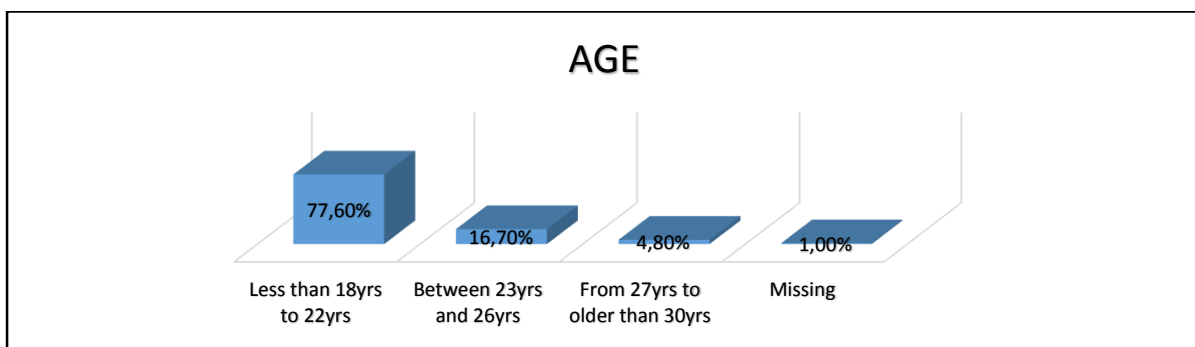


Figure 4.2 Age distribution

4.3.1.3 Ethnicity

Participants in the survey were requested to state their ethnic group. Of the 294 participants, n=227; 78 percent were black, n=34; 12 percent were white, n=9; 3 percent were coloured, n=18; 6 percent were Indian, n=3; 1 percent specified other and n=3; 1 percent did not specify their ethnic group. Figure 4.3 illustrates the distribution of the participants according to their ethnic group

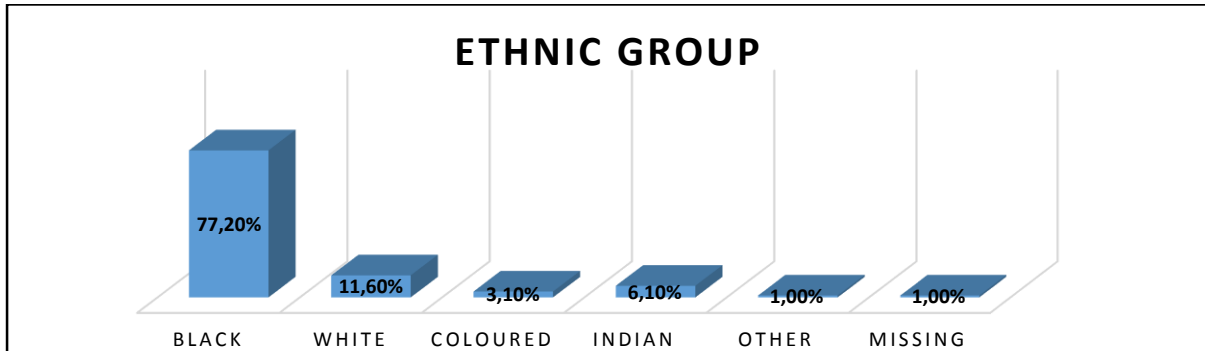


Figure 4.3: Ethnic group of respondents

4.3.1.4 Year of study

Participants were requested to indicate their year of study. Of the 294 participants, n=157; 55 percent were either in their first or second year of study, n=112; 39 percent were in third year and n=16; 6 percent were post graduates. Figure 4.4 provides an illustration of the respondents according to year of study.

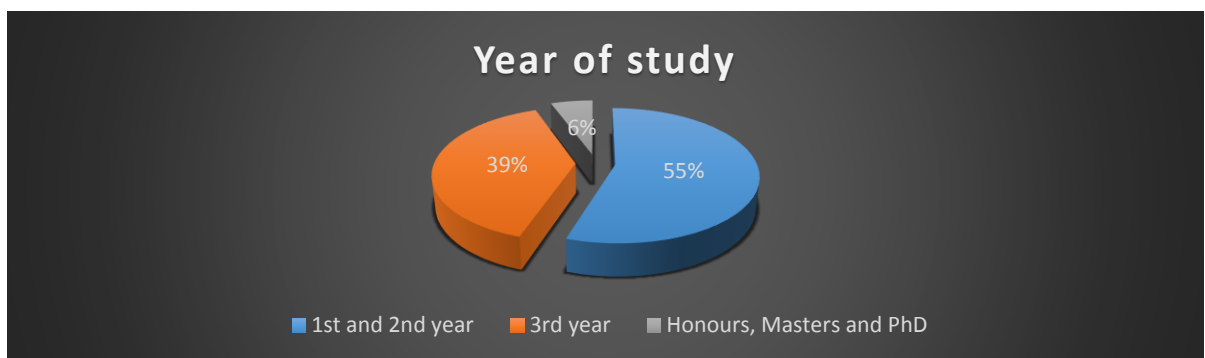


Figure 4.4: Year of study of respondents

4.3.1.5 Field of study

Participants were requested to state their field of study. From the 294 participants, n=98; 34 percent were from Commerce, n=30; 10 percent were from Law, n=14; 5 percent were from Health, n=13; 4 percent were from Education, n=7; 2 percent were from IT, n=37; 13 percent were from Engineering, n=94; 32 percent were from other fields that were not specified in the questionnaire, and 1 participant did not specify a field of study. Figure 4.5 provides the details regarding the respondents' field of study.

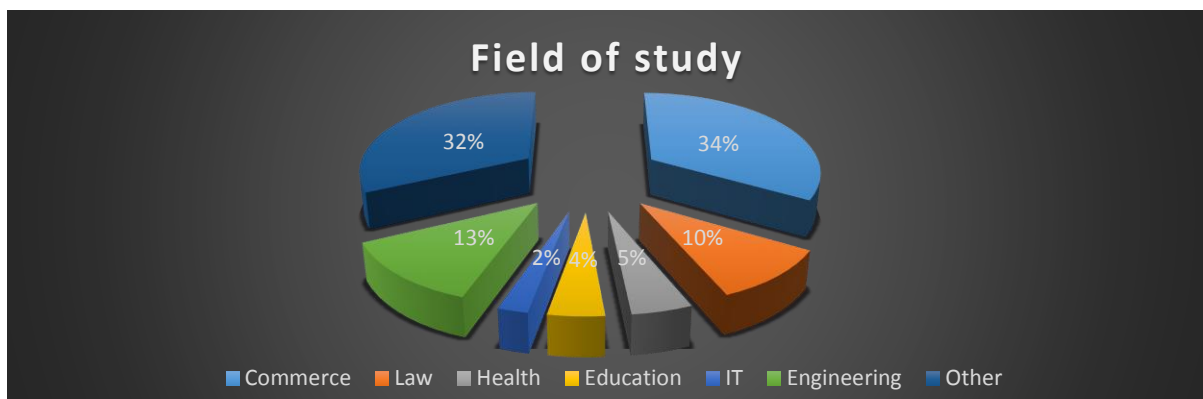


Figure 4.5: Field of study of respondents

4.4 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)

Factor analysis is a general term referring to a number of related statistical techniques used to reduce and summarise large sums of data into a simple structure (Bryman & Cramer, 2005:324). Factor analysis is further distinguished according to two approaches, which are exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Bryman & Cramer, 2005:325). Exploratory factor analysis basically aims at examining the relationship between variables without determining the extent to which this relationship fits a particular model. Confirmatory factor analysis, on the other hand, is mainly used to confirm a hypothesis with the structure of an underlying set of variables.

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on Section B of the questionnaire. Exploratory factor analysis is a sequential process that involves a number of stages (Williams *et al.*, 2012:3). As illustrated in Figure 4.6, the following sections will discuss these steps in detail.

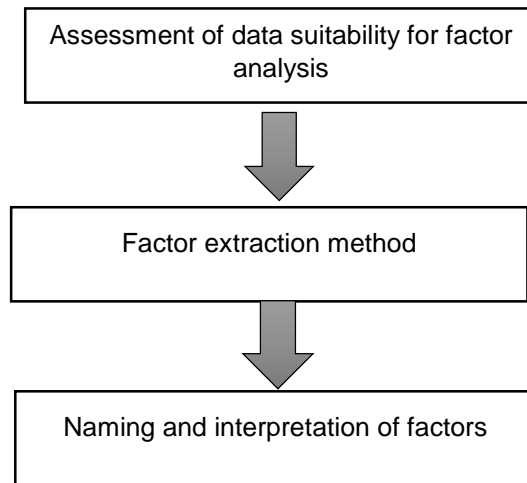


Figure 4.6: Exploratory factor analysis procedure

4.4.1 The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity

Williams *et al.* (2012:5) note that, prior to conducting factor analysis, data items need to be assessed if they are suitable for factor analysis. Two statistical measures that help assess factorability of data on IBM-SPSS are the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity (Pallant, 2013:189). The KMO statistics test results produce values ranging from 0 to 1. Values that are 0.50 and above suggest that data is suitable for factor analysis (Field, 2009:647). On the other hand, the Bartlett’s test of sphericity measures the significance of the correlation. With a p-value <0.05 factor analysis is considered to be suitable (Field, 2009:648). Table 4.2 illustrates the KMO levels of factorial simplicity.

Table 4.2: KMO levels of factorial simplicity

in the .90s	Marvellous
in the .80s	Meritorious
in the .70s	Middling
in the .60s	Mediocre
in the .50s	Miserable
below .50	Unacceptable

Source: Kaiser (1974:35)

The value for KMO measure of sampling adequacy for this study was 0.936, a value that Kaiser (1974:35) deemed marvellous. This value indicated that data was well suitable for factor analysis. Similarly, Bartlett’s test of sphericity for this study provided

a significant value of .000, which also supported the fact that data was suitable for factors analysis. Table 4.3 illustrates the KMO and Bartlett's test results for this study.

Table 4.3: KMO and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.		.936
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5331.233
	Degrees of freedom (df)	528
	Significance (Sig).	.000

4.4.2 Factor extraction method

The main objective of the extraction process is to summarise a large number of information contained in the original variables into a smaller number of factors (Field, 2009:639). A number of techniques are used to assist in determining which factors to retain during factor analysis; namely, the eigenvalues criterion, the percentage of variance explained, and the scree plot (Pallant, 2013:191). The sections that follow discuss these techniques in more detail.

4.4.2.1 Eigenvalues and percentage of variance

According to the Kaiser criterion, factors are extracted based on the number of the highest eigenvalue (Malhotra, 2010:643). By definition, an eigenvalue is the number of variance associated in a factor. Principal components analysis revealed the presence of 6 factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 37.22 percent, 8.03 percent, 6.14 percent, 4.72 percent, 4.05 percent and 3.04 percent of the variance respectively. Accumulatively, these factors explained a total variance of 63.57 percent. Table 4.4 illustrates the number of factors retained based on the eigenvalue rule. However, according to Field (2009:662), researchers in the field have questioned the accuracy of this method. It has been noted that, in some cases, the eigenvalue method results in the retention of too many factors.

Table 4.4: Percentage of variance explained and eigenvalues

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sum of Squared loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.541	37.228	37.228	11.541	37.228	37.228
2	2.490	8.032	45.260	2.490	8.032	45.260
3	1.904	6.142	51.402	1.904	6.142	51.402
4	1.463	4.719	56.120	1.463	4.719	56.120
5	1.254	4.047	60.167	1.254	4.047	60.167
6	1.055	3.404	63.571	1.055	3.404	63.571
7	.909	2.934	66.504			
8	.799	2.579	69.083			
9	.791	2.552	71.635			
10	.724	2.335	73.970			
11	.685	2.210	76.180			
12	.635	2.048	78.228			
13	.602	1.942	80.171			
14	.540	1.740	81.911			
15	.532	1.717	83.628			
16	.523	1.688	85.316			
17	.463	1.493	86.810			
18	.458	1.476	88.286			
19	.433	1.396	89.682			
20	.386	1.246	90.928			
21	.366	1.179	92.108			
22	.342	1.103	93.211			
23	.333	1.076	94.286			
24	.302	.973	95.259			
25	.286	.922	96.182			
26	.253	.817	96.998			
27	.240	.774	97.773			
28	.226	.730	98.503			
29	.170	.547	99.050			
30	.154	.496	99.547			
31	.141	.453	100.000			

Alternatively, researchers use the scree test method as it provides more accurate results (Costello & Osborne, 2005:3). The following section describes the scree plot as an alternative factor retention method.

4.4.2.2 Scree test

A scree test is an approach developed by Cattell (1966:245). It involves plotting each of the eigenvalues of the factors and inspecting the shape of the plot to find a point at which the slope makes a sharp curve (Malhotra, 2010:643). The plot typically makes a sharp break at a point between the steep slope of the initial factors and the gentle slope of the later factors. This point (also called the scree) denotes the number of factors to be considered for further investigation (Malhotra, 2010:643). According to Floyd and Widaman (1995:292) the cut-off point for determining the number of factors to retain is the point where the slope approaches zero. Therefore, using Cattell's (1966:245) scree test, it was decided to retain 6 factors for further investigation. Figure 4.7 illustrates the number of factors to be retained using the scree test.

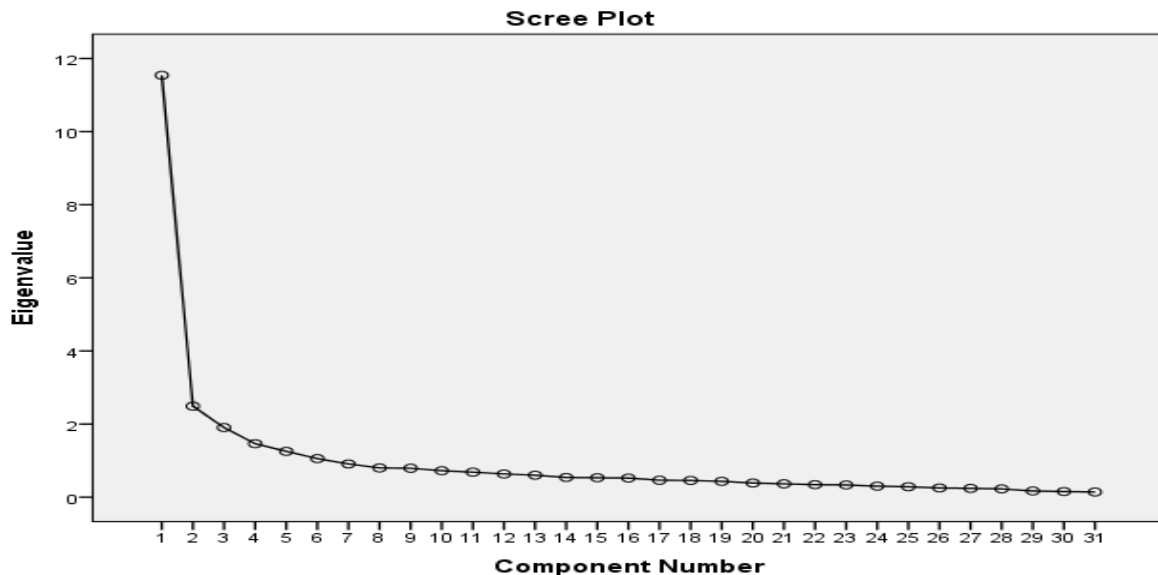


Figure 4.7: Scree plot

4.4.3 Factor loading matrix

Principal component analysis using varimax rotation was conducted on 31 items from Section B of the questionnaire. The rotated structure revealed the presence of six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. Factors were rotated in order to simplify the structure for easy interpretation (Pallant, 2013:207). Furthermore, the rotated factor structure is examined to assess the items that did not load or that loaded on more than

one factor (Williams *et al.*, 2012:9). Therefore the following items were deleted from the scale because of loading on more than one factor:

- B3.7: I am more interested in establishing my own business than getting a job.
- B5.1: I am confident that I will succeed if I would start my own business.

The final factor structure comprised of six factors. Each factor consisted of loadings of values of 0.3 or higher, which are values regarded as acceptable by Pallant (2013:207). Table 4.5 provides the rotated factor loading matrix illustrating the factors in the order in which they were extracted

Table 4.5: Rotated factor loading matrix

FACTOR DESCRIPTION	FACTORS					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Social entrepreneurial intentions						
B6.6 I will make every effort to start and run my own business to address the basic needs of the society.	.843	.247	.128	.162	.003	.076
B6.8 I have very seriously thought in starting a business that will focus on the needs of the society.	.820	.212	.237	.102	.001	.031
B6.9 I have the business intention to start a business that will address the needs of the society someday.	.820	.267	.154	.132	.016	.053
B6.7 I am determined to create a business in the future that will focus on the needs of the society.	.800	.317	.184	.109	-.095	.075
B6.5 My professional goal is to become a business person who addresses the needs of the society.	.791	.223	.070	.120	-.045	.122
B6.2 I intend to start my own business in the next five years to address the needs of the society.	.752	.212	.149	.071	.166	.128
B6.4 I am ready to start a business that will address the needs of the society.	.699	.135	.193	.134	.201	.154
B6.1 I plan to be self-employed in the foreseeable future after I graduate from my university.	.680	.219	.185	.015	.246	.058
B3.5 I want to launch a new business of my own before graduating.	.586	.125	.160	-.132	.385	.048
B3.8 I am more interested in establishing my own business than getting a job.	.586	.425	.089	.038	.288	.011
B3.4 Even if I should launch a new business and fail many times, I will keep on trying until I succeed.	.559	.344	.156	.032	.038	.302
B3.6 I am confident that I can successfully launch a new business on my own.	.536	.245	.298	-.217	.314	.161
Attitude towards entrepreneurship						
B1.3 I would rather start a new business than be the manager of an existing one.	.229	.777	.059	-.062	.081	.146
B1.6 Overall, I consider a career as an entrepreneur to be good	.267	.722	.199	-.003	.085	.065
B1.1 I would prefer to be an entrepreneur, rather than an employee of a large business.	.323	.721	.088	-.078	.012	.087
B1.4 Starting my own business sounds attractive to me.	.391	.699	.306	.002	.034	.075
B1.5 I personally consider entrepreneurship to be a highly desirable career for people with my education background.	.318	.614	.163	.032	.117	-.030
Proactive personality						
B2.3 I excel at identifying opportunities.	.134	.147	.807	.055	.152	.097
B2.5 I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	.323	.035	.708	.051	.243	-.020
B2.4 I love to challenge the status quo.	.146	.123	.706	.054	-.012	.201
B2.1 I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas	.168	.274	.658	.021	-.198	.136
B3.1 I can take risks with my money, such as investing in risk businesses.	.298	.238	.403	.062	.285	.095
Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/ university environment						
B4.2 At my university, people are actively encouraged to pursue their own ideas.	.075	-.007	-.009	.807	-.045	.097
B4.3 At my university, you get to meet lots of people with good ideas for new businesses.	.078	-.038	.086	.798	-.081	.132
B4.4 At my university there is a well-functioning structure to support the start-up of new businesses.	.029	-.066	.094	.757	.169	.007
B4.1 I know many people at my university who have successfully started their own business	.240	.066	-.022	.542	.338	-.050
Perceived behavioural control						
B4.5 Entrepreneurship cannot be taught people are born to be entrepreneurs.	-.064	-.009	-.037	.090	.672	.123
B5.2 It would be easy for me to start my own business	.326	.205	.206	.136	.556	.069
B5.4 I have the skills and capabilities required to succeed as an entrepreneur.	.381	.176	.391	.000	.492	-.029
Risk taking propensity						
B3.3 I like to try new foods, new places, and totally new experiences.	.167	.082	.137	.096	.043	.818
B3.2 When I travel I tend to take new routes.	.193	.140	.214	.118	.176	.677
Eigenvalue	11.54	2.49	1.90	1.46	1.25	1.06
% of Variance	37.23	8.03	6.14	4.72	4.05	3.40
Cumulative %	37.23	45.26	51.40	56.12	60.18	63.57
Reliability (Cronbach's alpha)	0.94	0.85	0.78	0.73	0.51	0.57
Means	49.13	22.57	22.16	14.56	10.78	8.77
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.						

4.4.4 Factor descriptions

With the aid of the factor extraction process, six factors were identified as social entrepreneurship intentions. Table 4.6 provides the naming and description of the final

factor structure. The sections that follow provide the interpretation of each of the labelled factors.

Table 4.6: Factor label and operational definitions

Factor	Label	Operational definition
1	Social entrepreneurial intentions	Social entrepreneurial intentions is described as the desire to act on a business with the purpose of solving the social problems in the society
2	Attitude towards entrepreneurship	Attitude towards entrepreneurship entails an individual's perceived attractiveness of entrepreneurship as an alternative career choice.
3	Proactive personality	Proactive personality is described as the ability to take action and influence environmental change.
4	Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment	Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment can be described as the influence of education on one's attitude towards entrepreneurship.
5	Perceived behavioural control	Perceived behavioural control entails how easy or difficult adopting a particular behaviour is likely to be.
6	Risk taking propensity	Risk taking propensity refers to the degree to which an individual or entity is willing to take chances in a business decision.

4.4.4.1 Factor 1: Social entrepreneurial intentions

Factor 1 - *social entrepreneurial intentions* consisted of 12 items and accounted for 37.23 percent of the variance. The eigenvalue for the factor was measured at 11.54. The items in this factor measured students' intentions to start their own business with the purpose of addressing the social needs of the society. The majority of items loaded on Factor 1, which implies that students who participated in the survey identified *social entrepreneurial intentions* to be an important factor that influences an individual's behaviour towards social entrepreneurship. In relation to theory of planned behaviour, Ajzen (1991:179) argues that the desire to engage in a given behaviour lies central to an individual's intention to perform that particular behaviour. In other words, intentions are a better means of explaining and predicting behaviour (Krueger *et al.*, 2000:411). In this study, behaviour referred to social entrepreneurship. The interpretation of these findings was consistent with previous empirical research on intentions as an objective measure of entrepreneurial behaviour. For example, Kautonen *et al.* (2013:13) found a positive influence of intentions on entrepreneurial behaviour. The aim of the study was to demonstrate the robustness of the theory of planned behaviour in the prediction

of influencing intentions to start a business. Table 4.7 provides a summary of the factor loadings and item description for Factor 1.

Table 4.7: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 1 - Social entrepreneurial intention

Variable	Variable description	Loading
B6.6	I will make every effort to start and run my own business to address the basic needs of the society.	.843
B6.8	I have very seriously thought in starting a business that will focus on the needs of the society.	.820
B6.9	I have the business intention to start a business that will address the needs of the society someday.	.820
B6.7	I am determined to create a business in the future that will focus on the needs of the society.	.800
B6.5	My professional goal is to become a business person who addresses the needs of the society.	.791
B6.2	I intend to start my own business in the next five years to address the needs of the society.	.752
B6.4	I am ready to start a business that will address the needs of the society.	.699
B6.1	I plan to be self-employed in the foreseeable future after I graduate from my university.	.680
B3.5	I want to launch a new business of my own before graduating.	.586
B3.8	I am more interested in establishing my own business than getting a job	.586
B3.4	Even if I should launch a new business and fail many times, I will keep on trying until I succeed.	.559
B3.6	I am confident that I can successfully launch a new business on my own.	.536

4.4.4.2 Factor 2: Attitudes towards entrepreneurship

Factor 2 - *attitudes towards entrepreneurship intention* consisted of 5 items and accounted for 8.03 percent of the variance. The eigenvalue for the factor was measured at 2.49. The items in this factor measured students' perceptions towards entrepreneurship as an alternative career choice. Upon factor analysing the scale, all items in the scale gave factor loadings above 0.5. The highest item loading in this factor was item B1.3 - *I would rather start a new business than be the manager of an existing one* obtained the highest loading of 0.78. This implies that students in Gauteng perceive entrepreneurship as a viable option for self-development compared to working for someone in an already existing business. Furthermore, these results tend to be consistent with the findings by Robinson *et al.* (1991:13). With the aim of validating the Entrepreneurial Orientation Attitude (EOA) and presenting the attitude

theory as an alternative theory in entrepreneurship studies, Robinson *et al.* (1991:24) found that attitudes were a better predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour compared to the trait and demographics approaches. Table 4.8 provides a summary of the rotated factor loading and item description for Factor 2.

Table 4.8: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 2 - Attitude towards entrepreneurship

Variable	Variable description	Loading
B1.3	I would rather start a new business than be the manager of an existing one.	.777
B1.6	Overall, I consider a career as an entrepreneur to be good	.722
B1.1	I would prefer to be an entrepreneur, rather than an employee of a large business.	.721
B1.4	Starting my own business sounds attractive to me.	.699
B1.5	I personally consider entrepreneurship to be a highly desirable career for people with my education background.	.614

4.4.4.3 Factor 3: Proactive personality

Factor 3 - *pro-active personality* comprised 5 items and accounted for 6.1 percent of the variance. The eigenvalue for this factor was measured at 1.90. The items used to measure proactive personality were adapted from the proactive personality scale (Bateman & Crant, 1993:112). The proactive personality scale identifies differences in the way individuals take actions to influence their environments (Bateman & Crant, 1993:103). Proactivity in individuals creates a culture of constantly scanning for opportunities that influence environmental change. Additionally, proactivity in peoples' behaviour was found to be positively related to the tendencies to engage in entrepreneurship (Crant, 1996:42). Upon factor analysing the proactivity personality scale, the results showed that Gauteng students identified proactive personality as a factor that influences social entrepreneurship intentions.

Consistent with these findings, Prieto (2011:87) found that African American and Hispanic students identified proactive personality as a factor that influenced the establishment of a social venture. The aim of the study was to identify if there is a relationship between proactive personality and social entrepreneurship among African American and Hispanic students. Upon factor analysing a ten item proactive personality scale, the results of the study revealed a factor that explained 54.75 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 5.467. The study by Prieto (2011:87)

reported much higher variance, as well as the eigenvalue, compared to the findings of this study. These differences could be attributed to the fact that the study by Prieto (2011:52) adapted 10 items from the proactive personality scale compared to this study that only adapted 5 items from the original 17 item scale. Table 4.9 illustrates the rotated factor loadings for the proactive personality factor.

Table 4.9: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 3 – Pro-active personality

Variable	Variable description	Loading
B2.3	I excel at identifying opportunities.	.807
B2.5	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	.708
B2.4	I love to challenge the status quo.	.706
B2.1	I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas	.658
B3.1	I can take risks with my money, such as investing in risk businesses.	.403

4.4.4.4 Factor 4: Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/ university environment

Factor 4 - *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/ university environment* comprised 4 items that revealed 4.72 percent of the variance. The eigenvalue was measured at 1.46. The items in this factor measured the extent to which students' entrepreneurship perceptions are subjectively exposed to education/university environment. Upon factor analysing the scale, item B4.2 - *at my university, people are actively encouraged to pursue their own ideas* - obtained the highest loading. These findings reveal that when students are exposed to entrepreneurship education, their perceptions towards entrepreneurship are also encouraged. This exposure equips potential entrepreneurs with entrepreneurship knowledge, the required abilities and the intention to become an entrepreneur. In an attempt to find the role of education in encouraging entrepreneurship among 354 Spanish university students, Liñán *et al.* (2011:205) found that entrepreneurship education had an important role in influencing students' perceptions towards entrepreneurship. Table 4.10 illustrates factor analysis results for factor 4.

Table 4.10: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 4 – Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/ university environment

Variable	Variable description	Loading
B4.2	At my university, people are actively encouraged to pursue their own ideas.	.807
B4.3	At my university, you get to meet lots of people with good ideas for new businesses.	.798
B4.4	At my university there is a well-functioning structures to support the start-up of new businesses.	.757
B4.1	I know many people at my university who have successfully started their own business	.542

4.4.4.5 Factor 5: Perceived behavioural control

Factor 5 – *perceived behavioural control* consisted of 3 items that explained 4.05 percent of the variance. The eigenvalue was measured at 1.25. The items in this factor investigated students’ perceptions regarding the extent to which performing certain behaviour is absolutely under their control. As previously stated, Ajzen (1991:188) argues that individuals perform a particular behaviour simply because they intend to act that way. However, Sheeran *et al.* (2003:394) find such an argument to be limited in some way. The authors contend that although individuals may have the intentions to act on a particular behaviour, they may eventually not be able to perform the behaviour due to lack either resources, opportunities, or the ability to do so. The item that obtained the highest loading in this factor stated that “*Entrepreneurship cannot be taught, people are born to be entrepreneurs*”; and the item with the lowest” loading stated that “*I have the skills and capabilities required to succeed as an entrepreneur*”. These findings reveal that the ability to perform a particular behaviour highly depends on how much control one has over that particular behaviour. Table 4.11 presents the rotated factor loading for factor 5.

Table 4.11: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 5 – Perceived behavioural control

Variable	Variable description	Loading
B4.5	Entrepreneurship cannot be taught people are born to be entrepreneurs.	.672
B5.2	It would be easy for me to start my own business	.556
B5.4	I have the skills and capabilities required to succeed as an entrepreneur	.492

4.4.4.6 Factor 6: Risk taking propensity

Factor 6 – *risk taking propensity* consisted of 2 items that explained 3.40 percent of the variance. The eigenvalue was measured at 1.06. The items in this factor measured the degree to which students are willing to take chances towards a business decision. Item B3.3 - *I like to try new foods, new places, and totally new experiences* obtained the highest loading, which gives a clear indication that students identified risk taking as a factor that influences decision making. Consistently, Lüthje and Franke (2003:142) identified risk taking propensity as a factor that stood out in influencing entrepreneurial behaviour. However, the extent to which risk taking propensity influenced entrepreneurial behaviour was subject to contextual and individual factors (De Carolis *et al.*, 2009:531). Table 4.12 presents the rotated factor loadings for factor 6.

Table 4.12: Rotated factor loadings for Factor 6 – Risk taking propensity

Variable	Variable description	Loading
B3.3	I like to try new foods, new places, and totally new experiences.	.818
B3.2	When I travel I tend to take new routes	.677

4.5 MEANS

The means for the six factors identified from Section B of the questionnaire are discussed in the following section.

4.5.1 Overall means of the six factors in terms of agreement

Six factors identified from Section B of the questionnaire were rated in terms of their summated means in order to evaluate the relative importance of each factor. Table 4.13 presents an overview of the summarised mean scores for each of the factors of social entrepreneurship intentions.

Table 4.13: Overall means of six factors in terms of agreement

Factors	Description of Factors	n	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Factor 2	Attitude towards entrepreneurship	286	1	6	4.514
Factor 3	Proactive personality	292	1	6	4.434
Factor 6	Risk taking propensity	292	1	6	4.387
Factor 1	Social entrepreneurial intentions	294	1	6	4.094
Factor 4	Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment	294	1	6	3.641
Factor 5	Perceived behavioural control	293	1	6	3.594
Valid N (listwise)		283			

According to Table 4.13, the means for all the factors with the exception of factors 4 and 5 were above 4. These ratings mean that Gauteng university students agreed that *attitude toward entrepreneurship* ($\bar{x} = 4.51$), *proactive personality* ($\bar{x} = 4.44$), *risk taking propensity* ($\bar{x} = 4.39$) and *social entrepreneurial intentions* ($\bar{x} = 4.14$) were important factors that determined the intentions to engage in social entrepreneurship. With regards to factors 4 and 5, Gauteng students slightly agreed that *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment* ($\bar{x} = 3.64$) and *perceived behavioural control* ($\bar{x} = 3.59$) were important factors the determined social entrepreneurship intentions.

4.6 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

In line with the second empirical objective of this study, it was deemed necessary to conduct a correlation analysis. Correlation analysis is a statistical procedure that examines the strength of a linear relationship between two variables (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:175). This study used the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) in order to measure the degree of linear association, thereby establishing the relationship among the six factors namely, *social entrepreneurial intentions*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship*, *proactive personality*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship education*, *perceived behavioural control* and *risk taking propensity*. The results were significant ranging from $r = 0.23$ to $r = 0.684$ at $p < 0.01$. These results indicate that there is a positive linear inter-factor association. Table 4.14 provides the summary of the correlation matrix for this study.

Table 4.14: Correlation matrix summary

Correlations							
		Social entrepreneurial intention	Attitude towards entrepreneurship	Pro-active personality	Attitude towards entrepreneurship education	Perceived behavioural control	Risk taking propensity
Social entrepreneurial intention	Pearson Correlation	1	.684**	.556**	.233**	.481**	.402**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	286	284	285	286	286	286
Attitude towards entrepreneurship	Pearson Correlation	.684**	1	.503**	.032	.338**	.335**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.581	.000	.000
	N	284	292	290	292	292	291
Pro-active personality	Pearson Correlation	.556**	.503**	1	.174**	.419**	.426**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.003	.000	.000
	N	285	290	292	292	292	292
Attitude towards entrepreneurship education	Pearson Correlation	.233**	.032	.174**	1	.236**	.241**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.581	.003		.000	.000
	N	286	292	292	294	294	293
Perceived behavioural control	Pearson Correlation	.481**	.338**	.419**	.236**	1	.292**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	286	292	292	294	294	293
Risk taking propensity	Pearson Correlation	.402**	.335**	.426**	.241**	.292**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	286	291	292	293	293	293

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Upon determining the presence of a relationship, one needs to assess the strength of the relationship in the output. According to Pallant (2013:139), the strength of relationships can range between -1 to +1. A value of zero indicates that there is no relationship and a value of 1 indicates a relationship. However, different authors suggest different interpretations with regards to the strength of the relationship. Table 4.15 illustrates guidelines that can be used to interpret the strength of the relationship.

Table 4.15: Strength of relationship between variables

Size of <i>r</i>	Interpretation
± (0.5 to 1.0)	Strong relationship
± (0.3 to 0.5)	Moderate relationship
± (0.1 to 0.3)	Weak relationship
± (0.0 to 0.1)	Very weak or no relationship

Source: Turkmen (2013:1011)

Table 4.14 reflects that *social entrepreneurial intentions* showed a strong relationship with *attitude towards entrepreneurship* ($r= 0.684$; $p < 0.05$), *proactive personality* ($r= 0.556$ $p < 0.01$) *perceived behavioural control* ($r=4.81$ $p < 0.01$) and *risk taking propensity* ($r=0.402$ $p < 0.01$).

Attitude towards entrepreneurship had a moderate relationship with *perceived behavioural control* ($r=0.338$, $p < 0.01$) and *risk taking propensity* ($r=0.335$, $p < 0.01$). *Proactive personality* also had a moderate correlation with *perceive behavioural control* ($r= 0.419$, $p < 0.01$) and *risk taking propensity* ($r=0.426$, $p < 0.01$).

According to Table 4.15, correlation values between $r=\pm$ (0.1 to 0.3) have a weak relationship. In Table 4.14, *risk taking propensity* showed a weak relationship with *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment* ($r=0.241$, $p < 0.01$), and *perceived behavioural control* ($r=0.292$, $p < 0.01$).

Taken together, these findings imply that students with the intentions to start to a business with a social mission are those with the attitude to take risks and perceive control over their behaviour. These findings support numerous previous research findings (Krueger *et al.*, 2000:423; Autio *et al.*, 2001:153; Lüthje & Franke, 2003:142; Liñán & Chen, 2009:607). With the aim of identifying entrepreneurial intentions among students from Sweden, Finland and United Kingdom, Autio *et al.* (2001:153) found a strong relationship between *attitude towards entrepreneurship* and *perceived behavioural control* ($r=0.603$, $p < 0.01$).

4.7 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

According to Larson (2008:115) analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical technique used to analyse variations in response variables that are measured under conditions

defined by discrete factors. ANOVA is a widely used statistical technique among researchers due to its easy access in most statistical packages such as IBM-SPSS. ANOVA is conducted with the intention to identify any general differences (variations) between groups on some variables. With the aim of addressing the third empirical objective, this study used ANOVA in order to determine the influence of some demographic variables such as *gender*, *age* and *year of study* on the six identified factors of social entrepreneurship intentions namely, *social entrepreneurial intentions*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship*, *proactive personality*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment*, and *risk taking propensity*. The following sections provide results on ANOVA.

4.7.1 Analysis of variance with gender

Analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of gender on social entrepreneurial intentions. The participants were divided into two groups according to their gender (group 1: males and group 2: females). Table 4.16 presents the results of ANOVA on gender.

Table 4.16 : ANOVA – six factors and gender

Dimension	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Social entrepreneurial intention	Between Groups	1339.010	1	1339.010	6.554	.011*
	Within Groups	57616.550	282	204.314		
	Total	58955.560	283			
Attitude towards entrepreneurship	Between Groups	169.082	1	169.082	5.372	.021*
	Within Groups	9033.050	287	31.474		
	Total	9202.131	288			
Proactive personality	Between Groups	14.557	1	14.557	.820	.366
	Within Groups	5111.843	288	17.749		
	Total	5126.400	289			
Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment	Between Groups	21.917	1	21.917	1.110	.293
	Within Groups	5707.897	289	19.751		
	Total	5729.814	290			
Perceived behavioural control	Between Groups	29.649	1	29.649	3.222	.074
	Within Groups	2659.141	289	9.201		
	Total	2688.790	290			
Risk taking propensity	Between Groups	2.600	1	2.600	.464	.496
	Within Groups	1618.431	289	5.600		
	Total	1621.031	290			

*. Significant at 0.05 level

As indicated in Table 4.16, there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level between males and females on *social entrepreneurial intentions* (.011) and *attitude towards entrepreneurship* (0.021). There was no significant difference between males and females on *proactive personality* (0.366), *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment* (0.293), *perceived behavioural control* (0.074), and *risk taking propensity* (0.496). The reflected significant results require a post-hoc test to be conducted in order to identify the specific differences in the groups. However, a *post-hoc analysis* test could not be conducted on gender. This was the case because *post-hoc* tests apply in situations where a factor has more than three or more groups of means (Stevens 1999:2). Therefore, *gender* as a categorical variable does not meet the assumptions of a *post-hoc* analysis test.

4.7.2 Analysis of variance with age

Analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age on social entrepreneurship intentions as measured by the six factors: *social entrepreneurial intentions*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship*, *proactive personality*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment* and *risk taking propensity*. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level on social entrepreneurial intentions (0.051) and no significant difference on the rest of the factors. Table 4.17 provides the ANOVA results on age group.

Table 4.17: ANOVA – six factors and age group

Dimension	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Social entrepreneurial intention	Between Groups	1225.898	2	612.949	3.000	.051*
	Within Groups	57216.752	280	204.346		
	Total	58442.650	282			
Attitude towards entrepreneurship	Between Groups	111.746	2	55.873	1.761	.174
	Within Groups	9073.888	286	31.727		
	Total	9185.633	288			
Proactive personality	Between Groups	17.056	2	8.528	.479	.620
	Within Groups	5090.854	286	17.800		
	Total	5107.910	288			
Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment	Between Groups	28.828	2	14.414	.730	.483
	Within Groups	5687.096	288	19.747		
	Total	5715.924	290			
Perceived behavioural control	Between Groups	23.554	2	11.777	1.271	.282
	Within Groups	2667.670	288	9.263		
	Total	2691.223	290			
Risk taking propensity	Between Groups	.202	2	.101	.018	.982
	Within Groups	1610.901	287	5.613		
	Total	1611.103	289			

*. Significant at 0.05 level

Upon finding significant differences between the three age groups on factor 1- *social entrepreneurial intentions*, a *post-hoc* multiple comparison test was conducted to establish which groups had significant differences with factor 1. Table 4.18 presents the results on *post-hoc* analysis tests on social entrepreneurial intentions and age.

Table 4.18: Post-hoc analysis – social entrepreneurial intentions and age

Dependent variable	(I) A2	(J) A2	Mean difference (J-I)	Std. Error	Sig.
Social entrepreneurial intentions	1 (18-24 years) $\bar{x} = 4.04$)	3 (27 to >30 years) $\bar{x} = 4.83$).	-0.78934	0.34027	.021

Table 4.18 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between group 1 (<18-24 years) and group 3 (27 to >30 years) at the $p < 0.05$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the two groups was quite small. Post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean

scores for group 1 (<18-24 years; \bar{x} = 4.04) was significantly different from group 3 (27 to >30 years; \bar{x} = 4.83).

4.7.3 Analysis of variance with year of study

Analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of year of study on social entrepreneurship intentions, as measured by the six factors: *social entrepreneurial intentions, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality, attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment and risk taking propensity*. There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level between the three groups with social entrepreneurship intentions factors. Therefore, a post hoc multiple comparison test was not conducted. Table 4.19 illustrates results on analysis of variance with year of study.

Table 4.19: ANOVA – six factors and year of study

Factors	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Social entrepreneurial intention	Between Groups	98.129	2	49.064	.231	.794
	Within Groups	58327.771	275	212.101		
	Total	58425.899	277			
Attitude towards entrepreneurship	Between Groups	29.012	2	14.506	.454	.635
	Within Groups	8938.225	280	31.922		
	Total	8967.237	282			
Proactive personality	Between Groups	.571	2	.286	.015	.985
	Within Groups	5180.115	281	18.435		
	Total	5180.687	283			
Attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment	Between Groups	16.069	2	8.034	.401	.670
	Within Groups	5648.984	282	20.032		
	Total	5665.053	284			
Perceived behavioural control	Between Groups	34.174	2	17.087	1.893	.153
	Within Groups	2546.023	282	9.028		
	Total	2580.196	284			
Risk taking propensity	Between Groups	1.531	2	.765	.135	.874
	Within Groups	1598.097	282	5.667		
	Total	1599.628	284			

4.8 RELIABILITY

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a measuring instrument consistently reflects the variable that it is measuring (Field, 2009:673). A reliable measure should reflect stable measures at all times. Section B of the questionnaire was subjected to reliability analysis. In research literature, Cronbach's alpha is the most common measure of scale reliability (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010:81). Generally, acceptable Cronbach's alpha values range from 0.7 and above (Field, 2009:675). Values below 0.7 indicate an unreliable scale. The overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this study was 0.938, which indicated good internal consistency of social entrepreneurship intentions scale used in the study. The Cronbach's alpha values for the six individual factors ranged from 0.5 to 0.9. Alpha values for Factors 1 to 4 were above the acceptable value of 0.7 and, therefore, indicated good internal consistency. Alpha values for Factors 4 and 5 were marginally acceptable. However, because of obtaining acceptable alpha values in previous studies (Luthje & Franke, 2003:150; Naldi *et al.*, 2007:38), it was deemed necessary to include them in this study. Table 4.20 illustrates Cronbach's alpha values for each factor.

Table 4.20: Reliability analysis

Factor	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Social entrepreneurial intentions	0.944	12
Attitude towards entrepreneurship	0.854	5
Pro-active personality	0.775	5
Attitudes towards entrepreneurship education/university environment	0.738	4
Perceived behavioural control	0.512	3
Risk taking propensity	0.570	2

4.9 VALIDITY

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:78) define validity as the extent to which a measuring instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. In a valid measure, the observed score is supposed to be as close as possible to the true score. The following sections describe the validity methods used to validate the questionnaire in this study.

4.9.1 Content validity

Churchill (1995:534) describes content validity as a validity measure that focuses on how adequately the measuring instrument captures the complete content of the construct it is supposed to measure. Content validity can also be achieved by reviewing past literature on the variables in question (Wagner *et al.*, 2012:81). In this study, the measuring instrument was designed based on previous studies (Autio *et al.*, 2001:158; Hisrich & Peters, 2002:89; Kickul & Gundry, 2002:89; Lüthje & Franke, 2003:147; Liñán & Chen, 2009:612). Some statements from these studies were altered in order to achieve some level of understanding within the South African context. The questionnaire was further reviewed by three experienced professors in the field. The outcome from this review indicated that the questionnaire adequately captures the content of the construct it is supposed to measure.

4.9.2 Construct validity

Construct validity determines if the measuring instrument is actually measuring what it is supposed to measure (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010:81). In order to verify construct validity of the instrument, the questionnaire was designed based existing theoretical and empirical literature (Autio *et al.*, 2001:158; Hisrich & Peters, 2002:89; Kickul & Gundry, 2002:89; Lüthje & Franke, 2003:147; Liñán & Chen, 2009:612). Furthermore, this study used factor analysis test to establish construct validity among the constructs. Factor analysis was chosen because the test is generally used for data reduction and summarisation. This is the case when data contains a large number of variables, some of which may be measuring the same thing, and need to be reduced to make the test manageable

4.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the findings of this study were provided and interpreted. The study employed a pilot test to ascertain reliability of the questionnaire. A descriptive analysis on some of the demographic variables was presented. Prior to conducting factor analysis, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were performed in order to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis. The scree plot, percentage of variance, and the eigenvalue criterion were used to determine the number of factors to be retained. Six factors were extracted. Furthermore, Cronbach's

alpha coefficient was used to assess reliability of the questionnaire. The chapter concluded with a discussion on validity of the questionnaire.

The following and final chapter of the study presents a general overview of the study. A review on both theoretical and empirical objectives is made. The chapter further presents a summary of the important findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the empirical findings of the study and provided an interpretation thereof. This chapter provides conclusions for the study. It begins by providing a general overview of the study. It further draws conclusions from the major findings in the study. Areas for future research are provided and the chapter concludes by providing highlights on the limitations of the study.

5.2 GENERAL OVERVIEW

The main purpose for this study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. In doing so, Chapter 1 provided a background to the study, discussed the problem statement, stated the theoretical and empirical objectives as well as the rationale for the study. Chapter 2 provided an in depth review of the relevant literature by highlighting the theories of entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship intentions. In Chapter 3 the methodology used to achieve the theoretical and empirical objectives was described. Chapter 4 focused on the results and interpretation thereof. The sections that follow revisit the theoretical and empirical objectives in order to evaluate their attainment within the context of the study.

5.2.1 Theoretical objectives

The primary objective of the study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. The theoretical objective was achieved through a broad analysis of the relevant literature. The following theoretical objectives were formulated at the beginning of the study:

- To conduct a literature study on entrepreneurship
- To conduct a literature study on social entrepreneurship.
- To conduct a literature study on social entrepreneurship intentions

The first theoretical objective was achieved in Section 2.2 of the study where a comprehensive review of the literature on entrepreneurship was provided. From the

literature, it was evident that entrepreneurship is a complex term to describe. Since inception, no general consensus has been reached regarding its definition. However, despite its definitional ambiguities, the concept still remains an important area of research among scholars worldwide.

The second theoretical objective was achieved in Section 2.4 of this study. The state of research of social entrepreneurship was reviewed. From the literature, it was evident that research on social entrepreneurship is still in its infancy. It was noted that empirical work on the concept was lacking, which further hampered on its theory development. Most of the research was based on conceptual understanding of the concept. In most part, researchers described social entrepreneurship as a business initiative that aims at meeting the basic needs of the society. Furthermore, social entrepreneurship was described as a business concept that follows the same business model as commercial entrepreneurship.

The third theoretical objective was achieved in Section 2.5 of this study. This section explored on the factors the influence social entrepreneurship intentions. Drawing from existing theoretical and empirical literature on entrepreneurial intentions, the researcher was able to identify the factors that influence one's intentions towards social entrepreneurship.

5.2.2 Empirical objectives

The study aimed at achieving the following empirical objectives:

- To identify factors that determine social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng.
- To ascertain the level of agreement that students attach to social entrepreneurship intentions factors.
- To determine the relationship between the identified factors.
- To determine the influence of demographic variables on the factors.

5.2.2.1 Empirical objective 1

Empirical objective 1 was achieved based on the factor analysis procedure. The following six factors were identified, namely *social entrepreneurial intentions*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship*, *proactive personality*, *attitude towards entrepreneurship*

education, perceived behavioural control and risk taking propensity (refer to Section 4.4). The factor loading matrix, eigenvalues and percentage of variance explained, and scree plot were used to determine the number of factors to retain. Sections 4.4.2, 4.4.3 and 4.4.4 provide a detailed analysis and description of the factors.

5.2.2.2 Empirical objective 2

With reference to empirical objective 2, conclusions were drawn based on findings in Section 4.5. Mean scores were used to explore students' level of agreement regarding social entrepreneurship intentions factors. *Attitude towards entrepreneurship* factor obtained the highest mean score of $\bar{x} = 4.514$. This was followed by *proactive personality* ($\bar{x} = 4.434$), *risk taking propensity* ($\bar{x} = 4.387$), *social entrepreneurial intentions* ($\bar{x} = 4.094$), *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment* ($\bar{x} = 3.641$), and *perceived behavioural control* ($\bar{x} = 3.594$).

5.2.2.3 Empirical objective 3

Following the identification of social entrepreneurship factors, empirical objective 3 focused on establishing correlations between the factors. A positive linear inter-factor relationship was established with significant results ranging from $r = 0.23$ to $r = 0.684$ at $p < 0.01$. A strong relationship between *social entrepreneurial intentions* with *attitude towards entrepreneurship* ($r = 0.684$; $p < 0.05$), *proactive personality* ($r = 0.556$ $p < 0.01$) *perceived behavioural control* ($r = 0.481$ $p < 0.01$) and *risk taking propensity* ($r = 0.402$ $p < 0.01$). A moderate relationship was established between *Attitude towards entrepreneurship*, *perceived behavioural control* ($r = 0.338$, $p < 0.01$) and *risk taking propensity* ($r = 0.335$, $p < 0.01$). Another moderate relationship was established between *proactive personality*, *perceived behavioural control* ($r = 0.419$, $p < 0.01$) and *risk taking propensity* ($r = 0.426$, $p < 0.01$). Finally, *risk taking propensity* showed a weak relationship with *attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment* ($r = 0.241$, $p < 0.01$), and *perceived behavioural control* ($r = 0.292$, $p < 0.01$). Section 4.6 illustrates the findings on correlation analysis.

5.2.2.4 Empirical objective 4

The fourth empirical objective was to determine the influence of demographic variables on social entrepreneurship factors. Conclusions were drawn based on statistical

findings under Section 4.7. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was conducted to explore the impact of gender, age and year of study on the factors. Significant differences were found between the gender variable on social entrepreneurial intentions and attitude towards entrepreneurship.

5.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. There is evidence to suggest that *social entrepreneurial intentions, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality, attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment, perceived behavioural control and risk-taking propensity* are identified as factors that may influence social entrepreneurship intentions among students. The study also revealed that gender, age and year of study play no role in the influence of social entrepreneurship intentions among students. These findings highlight the need to motivate and guide those students that have the desire to start their own businesses of a social nature.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study should be viewed in light of its limitations. The study was limited to a sample frame that only consisted of students from universities in Gauteng. This was as a result of financial and time constraints. Although the sample size was consistent with previous studies, generalisation of the study findings to the entire population in the country should be approached with caution.

5.5 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Based on the findings it is evident that *social entrepreneurial intentions, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality, attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment, perceived behavioural control and risk taking propensity* are factors that influence social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. Arising from these findings avenues for future research are offered. Given the need to develop social entrepreneurship research in South Africa, it is recommended that future research further explore and identify social entrepreneurship intentions factors using a larger sample size by including all provinces in South Africa. Future research could also focus on exploring the

relationship between social entrepreneurship intentions and other variables such as personality traits, culture and demographic variables. Further research could also focus on exploring factors that influence the success of existing social entrepreneurship businesses. In this case, future research could provide findings on social entrepreneurship intentions that take into account responses from participants with an industry experience.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

The objective of the study was to identify social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. The study results revealed that students identify *social entrepreneurial intentions, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality, attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment, perceived behavioural control and risk-taking propensity* are factors that influence social entrepreneurship intentions. Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that universities guide students who aspire to be social entrepreneurs to realise their goal. Social entrepreneurship has proven to be a promising and important global phenomenon that certainly deserves rigorous academic attention. Increased levels of entrepreneurial activity, particularly social entrepreneurship, will help to eradicate high levels of unemployment and improve the lives of people in society.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Social entrepreneurship research is still in its embryonic stage of development. However, despite the relative infancy of the research output, social entrepreneurship is an important area of study that is increasingly attracting attention among scholars worldwide. Social entrepreneurship is a business model that aims at making a profit in order to satisfy the basic needs of the people in society. However, to become a social entrepreneur an individual needs to have the intentions to do so. This is in line with Ajzen's (1991:188) assertion that intentions are a state of mind that direct one's action towards specific behaviour. Entrepreneurship is viewed as an example of an intentional behaviour. The study results showed that university students in Gauteng identify *social entrepreneurial intentions, attitude towards entrepreneurship, proactive personality, attitude towards entrepreneurship education/university environment, perceived behavioural control and risk taking propensity* as factors that influence social

entrepreneurship intentions. It is therefore recommended that universities guide students who desire to become social entrepreneurs realise their goal.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Ajzen, I. 1988. *Attitudes, Personality, and Behaviour*. New York: McGraw-Hill International.
- Ajzen, I. 1991. The theory of planned behaviour. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2):179-211.
- Alvarez, S.A. & Barney, J.B. 2007. Discovery and creation: Alternative theories of entrepreneurial action. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 1(1-2):11-26.
- Alvord, S.H., Brown, L.D. & Letts, C.W. 2004. Social entrepreneurship and societal transformation an exploratory study. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 40(3):260-282.
- Armitage, C. J. & Conner, M. 2001. Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(4):471-499.
- Austin, J., Stevenson, H. & Wei-Skillern, J. 2006. Social and commercial entrepreneurship: same, different, or both? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30(1):1-22.
- Autio, E., Keeley, H., Klofsten, M., Parker, G. & Hay, M. 2001. Entrepreneurial intent among students in Scandinavia and in the USA. *Enterprise and Innovation Management Studies*, 2(2):145-160.
- Aygören, H. 2014. Research in social entrepreneurship: from historical roots to future routes. (In Phan, P.H, Bacq, S. Nordqvist, M., Eds. *Theory and Empirical Research in Social Entrepreneurship*, pp.11-70). Massachusetts: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Bandura, A. 1982. Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American psychologist*, 37(2):122-147.
- Barendsen, L. & Gardner, H. 2004. Is the social entrepreneur a new type of leader? *Leader to Leader*, 1(34):43-50.

- Bateman, T.S. & Crant, J. M. 1993. The proactive component of organizational behaviour: A measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 14(2):103-118.
- Beugelsdijk, S. & Noorderhaven, N. 2005. Personality characteristics of self-employed; an empirical study. *Small Business Economics*, 24(2):159-167.
- Bird, B. 1988. Implementing entrepreneurial ideas: The case for intention. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(3):442-453.
- Bosma, N., Acs, Z.J., Autio, E., Coduras, A. & Levie, J. 2009. Global entrepreneurship monitor. Executive report. http://www.gemconsortium.org/download/1287850267108/GEM_Global_08. Date of access: 23 April 2014.
- Boyd, N.G. & Vozikis, G.S. 1994. The influence of Self-efficacy on the development of entrepreneurial intentions and actions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(1):63-77.
- Bramwell, A. & Wolfe, D.A. 2008. Universities and regional economic development: The entrepreneurial University of Waterloo. *Research Policy*, 37(8):1175-1187.
- Bruton, G.D., Ahlstrom, D. & Obloj, K. 2008. Entrepreneurship in emerging economies: Where are we today and where should the research go in the future? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 32(1):1-14.
- Bryman, A. & Cramer, D. 2005. *Quantitative Data Analysis with SPSS 12 and 13: A Guide for Social Scientists*. London: Routledge.
- Bygrave, W.D. & Hofer, C.W. 1991. Theorizing about entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16(2):13-22.
- Cant, M., Gerber-Nel., C., Nel, D. & Kotze, T. 2003. *Marketing Research*. Claremont: New African Books.
- Cattell, R.B. 1966. The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 1(2):245-276.

- Carland, J.H., Boulton, F. & Carland, J. 1984. Differentiating entrepreneurs from small business owners: a conceptualization, *Academy of Management Review*, 9(2):354-359.
- Certo, S.T. & Miller, T. 2008. Social entrepreneurship: Key issues and concepts. *Business Horizons*, 51(4):267-271.
- Christie, M.J. & Honig, B. 2006. Social entrepreneurship: New research findings. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1):1-5.
- Churchill, G.A., Jr. 1995. *Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations*. 6th ed. Fort Worth, Texas: Harcourt.
- Churchill, G. & Iacobucci, D. 2009. *Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations*. 10th Ed. Ohio: Cengage Learning.
- Collins, C.J., Hanges, P.J. & Locke, E.A. 2004. The relationship of achievement motivation to entrepreneurial behavior: A meta-analysis. *Human Performance*, 17(1):95-117.
- Cornelius, N., Todres, M., Janjuha-Jivraj, S., Woods, A. & Wallace, J. 2008. Corporate social responsibility and the social enterprise. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81(2):355-370.
- Costello, A.B. & Osborne, J.W. 2005. Best Practices in Exploratory Factor Analysis: Four Recommendations for Getting the Most from Your Analysis. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, 10(7):1-9.
- Council of the European Union, 2014. Conclusions on promoting youth entrepreneurship to foster social inclusion of young people: Education, Youth, Culture and Sport Council meeting:
http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/educ/142702.pdf. Date of access: 17th March 2015.
- Crant, J.M. 1996. The proactive personality scale as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 34(3):42-49.

- Creswell, J. 2003. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approach*. 2nd ed. California: SAGE Publications.
- Cukier, W., Trenholm, S., Carl, D. & Gekas, G. 2011. Social Entrepreneurship: A Content Analysis. *Journal of Strategic Innovation & Sustainability*, 7(1):99-119.
- Dawkins, C.E. & Frass, J.W. 2005. Decision of union workers to participate in employee involvement: an application of the theory of planned behaviour. *Employee Relations*, 27(5):511-531.
- Dacin, P.A., Dacin, M.T. & Matear, M. 2010. Social entrepreneurship: why we don't need a new theory and how we move forward from here. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24(3):37-57.
- De Carolis, D.M., Litzky, B.E. & Eddleston, K.A. 2009. Why networks enhance the progress of new venture creation: The influence of social capital and cognition. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(2):527-545.
- Dees, J.G. 1998. The meaning of social entrepreneurship. Comments and suggestions contributed from the Social Entrepreneurship Funders Working Group. <http://www.redalmarza.cl/ing/pdf.ThemeaningofSocialentrepreneurship.pdf>. Date of access: 6th May 2014.
- Dees, J.G. 2007. Taking social entrepreneurship seriously. *Society*, 44(3):24-31.
- DeTienne, D.R. & Chandler, G.N. 2004. Opportunity identification and its role in the entrepreneurial classroom: A pedagogical approach and empirical test. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 3(3):242-257.
- Dillman, D.A. 1998. Mail and other self-administered surveys in the 21st century: The beginning of a new era. <http://survey.sesrc.wsu.edu/dillman/papers/svys21st.pdf>. Date of access: 26th October 2014.
- Dimov, D. 2007. Beyond the single-person, single-insight attribution in understanding entrepreneurial opportunities. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(5):713-731.
- Engle, R.L., Dimitriadi, N., Gavidia, J.V., Schlaegel, C., Delanoe, S., Alvarado, I. & Wolff, B. 2010. Entrepreneurial intent: a twelve-country evaluation of Ajzen's model

of planned behavior. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 16(1):35-57.

Fanning, E. 2005. Formatting a paper-based survey questionnaire: Best practices. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, 10(12):1-14.

Field, A. 2009. *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications.

Floyd, F.J. & Widaman, K.F. 1995. Factor analysis in the development and refinement of clinical assessment instruments. *Psychological Assessment*, 7(3):286-299.

Fowler, A. 2000. NGOs as a moment in history: Beyond aid to social entrepreneurship or civic innovation? *Third World Quarterly*, 21(4):637-654.

Ghauri, P. & Gronhaug, K. 2010. *Research Methods in Business Studies*. 4th ed. London: Pearson.

Gird, A., & Bagraim, J.J. 2008. The theory of planned behaviour as predictor of entrepreneurial intent amongst final-year university students. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 38(4):711-724.

Gliem, J.A., & Gliem, R.R. 2003. Calculating, interpreting, and reporting Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for Likert-type scales. Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education.

<https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/bitstream/handle/1805/344/Gliem%20&%20Gliem.pdf>

Date of access: 12th February 2015

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(1):35-50.

Gupta, V.K., Turban, D.B., Wasti, S.A. & Sikdar, A. 2009. The role of gender stereotypes in perceptions of entrepreneurs and intentions to become an entrepreneur. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(2):397-417.

- Harding, R. & Cowling, M. 2006. *Social Entrepreneurship Monitor*. London: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor.
- Haughton, C. 2008. The Edge of Reason. *Director*, 61(7):70-74
- Hebert, R.F. & Link, A.N. 2009. *A History of Entrepreneurship*. New York: Routledge.
- Heilbrunn, S. 2004. Impact of gender on difficulties faced by entrepreneurs. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 5(3):159-165.
- Herrington, M., Kew, J., Kew, P. & Monitor, G.E. 2010. *Tracking Entrepreneurship in South Africa: A GEM Perspective*. Graduate School of Business, University of Cape Town.
- Hisrich, R.D. & Peters, M.P. 2002. *Entrepreneurship*. 4th ed. Boston: Irwin McGraw-Hill.
- Hoogendoorn, B., Pennings, E. & Thurik, R. 2010. What do we know about social entrepreneurship: An analysis of empirical research.
http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1462018. Date of access: 14th April 2014.
- Hsu, C. 2005. Entrepreneur for social change. *US News & World Report*, 139(16):63-66.
- Kaiser, H. F. 1974. An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39(1):31-36.
- Kao, R.W. 1993. Defining entrepreneurship: past, present and? *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 2(1):69-70.
- Kautonen, T. Gelderen M. & Fink M. 2013. *Robustness of the theory of planned behavior in predicting entrepreneurial intentions and actions*. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*. <http://www.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/etap.12056/full>. Date of access: 4th March 2015.
- Keat, O.Y., Selvarajah, C. & Meyer, D. 2011. Inclination towards entrepreneurship among university students: An empirical study of Malaysian university students. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(4):206-220.

- Kickul, J. & Gundry, L. 2002. Prospecting for strategic advantage: the proactive entrepreneurial personality and small firm innovation. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 40(2):85-97.
- Kobia, M. & Sikalieh, D. 2010. Towards a search for the meaning of entrepreneurship. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 34(2):110-127.
- Krueger, N.F. 1993. The impact of prior entrepreneurial exposure on perceptions of new venture feasibility and desirability. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(1): 5-21.
- Krueger, N.F. & Brazeal, D.V. 1994. Entrepreneurial potential and potential entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(1):91-91.
- Krueger, N.F. Jr., Reilly, M.D. & Carsrud, A.L. 2000. Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(5):411-432.
- Larson, M. G. 2008. Analysis of variance. *Circulation*, 117(1):115-121.
- Leadbeater, C. 1997. *The Rise of the Social Entrepreneur*. London: Demos.
- Lebusa, M.J. 2014. Entrepreneurial Intention in Advanced Undergraduate Students. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(27):760-765.
- Lee, S. 2009. Questionnaire Administration: Effects by Mode on Data Quality and Accuracy in Psychological Research.
<http://stewartlee.org/Surveyquestionnairespaper-StewarLee.pdf>. Date of access: 26th October 2014.
- Leibenstein, H. 1968. Entrepreneurship and development. *The American Economic Review*, 58(2):72-83.
- Liñán, F. & Chen, Y.W. 2009. Development and Cross-Cultural application of a specific instrument to measure entrepreneurial intentions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(3):593-617.

- Liñán, F., Rodríguez-Cohard, J.C. & Rueda-Cantucho, J.M. 2011. Factors affecting entrepreneurial intention levels: a role for education. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 7(2):195-218.
- Llewellyn, D.J. & Wilson, K.M. 2003. The controversial role of personality traits in entrepreneurial psychology. *Education & Training*, 45(6):341-345.
- Lüthje, C. & Franke, N. 2003. The “making” of an entrepreneur: testing a model of entrepreneurial intent among engineering students at MIT. *R&D Management*, 33(2):135-147.
- Ma, H. & Tan, J. 2006. Key components and implications of entrepreneurship: A 4-P framework. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 21(5):704-725.
- Mair, J. & Marti, I. 2006. Social entrepreneurship research: A source of explanation, prediction, and delight. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1):36-44.
- Mair, J. & Noboa, E. 2003. Social entrepreneurship: how intentions to create a social enterprise get formed. *Barcelona: IESE Business School Working Paper*: No 521.
- Maguire, S., Hardy, C. & Lawrence, T.B. 2004. Institutional entrepreneurship in emerging fields: HIV/AIDS treatment advocacy in Canada. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(5):657-679.
- Malhotra, N. 2010. *Marketing Research: An Applied Orientation*. 6th ed. London: Pearson Education.
- Malhotra, N. & Birks, D. 2007. *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach*: 3rd ed. London: Pearson Education.
- Malhotra, N. & Peterson, M. 2006. *Basic Marketing Research; A Decision-Making Approach*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Martins, J.H. Loubser, M. & Van Wyk, H. 1996 *Marketing Research: A South African Approach* 2nd ed. Pretoria: Unisa Press.
- Martin, R.L. & Osberg, S. 2007. Social entrepreneurship: The case for definition. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, 5(2):28-39.

Matlay, H. 2008. The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial outcomes. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 15(2):382-396.

McClelland D.C. 1961. *The Achieving Society*. New York: Free Press

Michael, S.C. & Pearce, J.A. 2009. The need for innovation as a rationale for government involvement in entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 21(3):285-302.

Mitchell, R.K., Busenitz, L., Lant, T., McDougall, P.P., Morse, E.A. & Smith, J.B. 2002. Toward a theory of entrepreneurial cognition: Rethinking the people side of entrepreneurship research. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 27(2):93-104.

Moreau, M.P. & Leathwood, C. 2006. Graduates' employment and the discourse of employability: a critical analysis. *Journal of Education and Work*, 19(4):305-324.

Nabi, G.R. 2003. Graduate employment and underemployment: opportunity for skill use and career experiences amongst recent business graduates. *Education & Training*, 45(7):371-382.

Nagler, J. 2007. *Is Social Entrepreneurship Important for Economic Development Policies*. Sydney: University of New South Wales.

Nair, K.R.G. & Pandey, A. 2006. Characteristics of entrepreneurs: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 15(1):47-61.

Naldi, L., Nordqvist, M., Sjöberg, K. & Wiklund, J. 2007. Entrepreneurial orientation, risk taking, and performance in family firms. *Family Business Review*, 20(1):33-47.

Naudé, W. 2010. Entrepreneurship, developing countries, and development economics: new approaches and insights. *Small Business Economics*, 34(1):1-12.

Nga, J.K.H. & Shamuganathan, G. 2010. The influence of personality traits and demographic factors on social entrepreneurship start up intentions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95(2):259-282.

Nicolaou, N., Shane, S., Cherkas, L., Hunkin, J. & Spector, T.D. 2008. Is the tendency to engage in entrepreneurship genetic? *Management Science*, 54(1):167-179.

Pallant, J. 2013. *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS*. 5th ed. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill.

Peneder, M. 2009. The meaning of entrepreneurship: A modular concept. *Journal of Industry, Competition and Trade*, 9(2):77-99.

Peredo, A.M. & McLean, M. 2006. Social entrepreneurship: A critical review of the concept. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1):56-65.

Peterman, N.E. & Kennedy, J. 2003. Enterprise education: influencing students' perceptions of entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice*, 28(2):129-145.

Prieto, L.C. 2010. *The influence of proactive personality on social entrepreneurial intentions among African American and Hispanic undergraduate students: The moderating role of hope* (Doctoral dissertation, Georgia Southern University).
<http://etd.lsu.edu/docs/available/etd-07022010-112516/unrestricted/Prietodiss.pdf>.

Date of access: 05th August 2015.

Prieto L.C. 2011. The influence of proactive personality on social entrepreneurial intentions among African-American and Hispanic undergraduate students: The moderating role of hope. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 17(2):77-96

Raposo, M., do Paco, A. & Ferreira, J. 2008. Entrepreneur's Profile: A Taxonomy of Attributes and Motivations of University Students. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 15(2):405-418.

Roberts, C. 2007. Mixing Modes of Data Collection in Surveys: A Methodological Review. <http://eprints.ncrm.ac.uk/418/1/MethodsReviewPaperNCRM-008.pdf>. Date of access: 26th October 2014.

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.

- Robinson, P.B., Stimpson, D.V., Huefner, J.C. & Hunt, H.K. 1991. An attitude approach to the prediction of entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 15(4):13-31.
- Sagawa, S. & Segal, E. 2000. Common interest, common good: Creating value through business and social sector partnership. *California Management Review*, 42(2):105-122.
- Santos, F.M. 2012. A positive theory of social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 111(3):335-351.
- Schlee, R.P., Curren, M.T. & Harich, K.R. 2009. Building a marketing curriculum to support courses in social entrepreneurship and social venture competitions. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 31(1):5-15.
- Schumpeter, J.A., 1942. *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy*, New York: Harper and Row.
- Seelos, C. & Mair, J. 2005. Social entrepreneurship: Creating new business models to serve the poor. *Business Horizons*, 48(3):241-246.
- Sen, P. 2007. Ashoka's big idea: Transforming the world through social entrepreneurship. *Futures*, 39(5):534-553.
- Shane, S. & Venkataraman, S. 2000. The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1):217-226.
- Sharir, M. & Lerner, M. 2006. Gauging the success of social ventures initiated by individual social entrepreneurs. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1):6-20.
- Shaw, E. & Carter, S. 2007. Social Entrepreneurship: Theoretical antecedents and Empirical Analysis of the Entrepreneurial Processes and Outcomes. *Journal of Small Business and Economic Development*, 14(13):418-434.
- Sheeran, P., Trafimow, D. & Armitage, C.J. 2003. Predicting behaviour from perceived behavioural control: Tests of the accuracy assumption of the theory of planned behaviour. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 42(3):393-410.

Short, J.C., Moss, T.W. & Lumpkin, G.T. 2009. Research in social entrepreneurship: Past contributions and future opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 3(2):161-194.

Smith, B.R. & Stevens, C.E. 2010. Different types of social entrepreneurship: The role of geography and embeddedness on the measurement and scaling of social value. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 22(6):575-598.

Stevens, J. 1999. Post hoc Test in ANOVA.

<http://pages.uoregon.edu/stevensj/posthoc.pdf>. Date of access: 19th March 2015.

Stevenson, H.H. & Jarillo, J.C. 1990. A paradigm of entrepreneurship: entrepreneurial management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 11(5):17-27.

Stewart, W. & Roth, P. 2001. Risk taking propensity differences between entrepreneurs and managers: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 86(1):145-153.

Sullivan, D.M. 2007. Stimulating social entrepreneurship: can support from cities make a difference? *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21(1):77-78.

Sullivan-Mort, G., Weerawardena, J. & Carnegie, K. 2003. Social entrepreneurship: Towards conceptualisation. *International Journal of Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 8(1):76-88.

Thompson, J.L. 2002. The world of the social entrepreneur. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 15(5):412-431.

Thompson, E.R. 2009. Individual entrepreneurial intent: construct clarification and development of an internationally reliable metric. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 33(3):669-694.

Thompson, J., Alvy, G. & Lees, A. 2000. Social entrepreneurship—a new look at the people and the potential. *Management Decision*, 38(5):328-338.

Timmons, J.A. 2002. *New Venture Creation. Entrepreneurship for the 21st Century*. 5th ed. Boston: McGraw Hill/Irwin.

- Tracey, P. & Phillips, N. 2007. The distinctive challenge of educating social entrepreneurs: A postscript and rejoinder to the special issue on entrepreneurship education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 6(2):264-271.
- Trivedi, C. 2010. Towards a social ecological framework for social entrepreneurship. *Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 19(1):63-80.
- Turkmen, M. 2013. Investigation of the Relationship between Academic and Sport Motivation Orientations. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 16(7):1008-1014.
- Urban, B. 2008. Social entrepreneurship in South Africa: Delineating the construct with associated skills. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 14(5):346-364.
- Urban, B. 2013. Social Entrepreneurship in an Emerging Economy: A Focus on the Institutional Environment and Social Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy. *Managing Global Transitions*, 11(4):3-25.
- Van Gelderen, M., Brand, M., van Praag, M., Bodewes, W., Poutsma, E. & Van Gils, A. 2008. Explaining entrepreneurial intentions by means of the theory of planned behaviour. *Career Development International*, 13(6):538-559.
- Van Praag, C.M. & Versloot, P.H. 2007. What is the value of entrepreneurship? A review of recent research. *Small Business Economics*, 29(4):351-382.
- Van Stel, A., Carree, M. & Thurik, R. 2005. The effect of entrepreneurial activity on national economic growth. *Small Business Economics*, 24(3):311-321.
- Van Wyk, R. & Adonisi, M. 2010. Vukani-Ubuntu: A social entrepreneurial answer to social development issues in South Africa. *Social Development Issues*, 32(2):67-83.
- Veciana, J.M., Aponte, M. & Urbano, D. 2005. University students' attitudes towards entrepreneurship: A two countries comparison. *The International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 1(2):165-182.
- Venkataraman, S. 1997. The distinctive domain of entrepreneurship research. *Advances in Entrepreneurship, Firm Emergence and Growth*, 3(1):119-138.

Venter, R., Urban, B. & Rwigema, H. 2008. *Entrepreneurship: Theory in Practice*. 2nd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Visser, K. 2011. Social entrepreneurship in South Africa: context, relevance and extent. *Industry and Higher Education*, 25(4):233-247.

Volkman, C., Wilson, K. E., Marlotti, S., Rabuzzi, D., Vyakarnam, S. & Sepulveda, A. 2009. Educating the Next Wave of Entrepreneurs-Unlocking Entrepreneurial Capabilities to Meet the Global Challenges of the 21st Century. A Report of the Global Education Initiative.

http://www.weforum.org/pdf/GEI/2009/Entrepreneurship_Education_Report.pdf. Date of access: 26th September 2014.

Wagner, C., Kawulich, B.B. & Garner, M. 2012. *Doing Social Research: A Global Context*. London: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Weerawardena, J. & Mort, G. S. 2006. Investigating social entrepreneurship: A multidimensional model. *Journal of World Business*, 41(1):21-35.

Williams, B., Brown, T. & Onsmann, A. 2012. Exploratory factor analysis: A five-step guide for novices. *Australasian Journal of Paramedicine*, 8(3):1-13.

Zahra, S.A., Rawhouser, H.N., Bhawe, N., Neubaum, D.O. & Hayton, J.C. 2008. Globalization of social entrepreneurship opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 2(2):117-131.

Zahra, S.A., Gedajlovic, E., Neubaum, D.O. & Shulman, J.M. 2009. A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(5):519-532.

Zhao, H., Seibert, S.E. & Hills, G.E. 2005. The mediating role of self-efficacy in the development of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(6):1265-1272.

Zikmund, W. & Babin, B. 2012. *Essentials of Marketing Research*. 5th ed. Ohio: South Western Cengage Learning.

Zikmund, W.G., Ward, S., Lowe, B., Winzar, H. & Babin, B.J. 2007. *Marketing Research*. Asia-Pacific ed. Melbourne: Thomson.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
VAAL TRIANGLE CAMPUS

®

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTENTIONS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN GAUTENG

Dear Participant

My name is **Eleanor Meda Chipeta**, a Masters student at the North-West University Vaal Triangle campus. I am researching in the field of social entrepreneurship. Unlike commercial entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs are committed to serve basic human needs and impact on quality of life of society. The purpose of my study is to determine social entrepreneurship intentions among university students in Gauteng. I therefore request your assistance in providing the data for my study. In this regard I would appreciate it if you could kindly complete this questionnaire as honestly and accurately as possible.

This research is strictly for academic purposes and therefore your anonymity is guaranteed as you do not have to provide your name. All information provided will be treated in strict confidence.

Thank you

Eleanor Meda Chipeta

Email: medachipeta@hotmail.com

Cell: 0815471333

Please answer all the questions.

Please read the instructions to each section carefully and respond appropriately.

Kindly use either a BLACK OR BLUE coloured pen when you complete.

SECTION A

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate option:

A.1 Gender	Male				Female								
A.2 Age	≤18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	≥30
A.3 Designated group	Black/African				White				Coloured		Indian		
	Other (Specify):												
A.4 Year of study	Second Year				Third Year		Honours						
A.5 Field of study	Commerce	Law		Health		Education		IT		Engineering			
	Other (Specify):												
A.6 Are you currently self-employed?									Yes		No		
A.7 Are your parents currently self-employed?									Yes		No		
A.8 Have your parents ever been self-employed?									Yes		No		

SECTION B

	Strongly	Disagree	Slightly	Slightly	Agree	Strongly
B1.1 I would prefer to be an entrepreneur, rather than an employee of a large business.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1.3 I would rather start a new business than be the manager of an existing one.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1.4 Starting my own business sounds attractive to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

B1.5	I personally consider entrepreneurship to be a highly desirable career for people with my education background.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1.6	Overall, I consider a career as an entrepreneur to be good.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2.1	I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2.3	I excel at identifying opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2.4	I love to challenge the status quo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2.5	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	1	2	3	4	5	6
-- +B3.1	I can take risks with my money, such as investing in risk businesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3.2	When I travel I tend to take new routes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3.3	I like to try new foods, new places, and totally new experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3.4	Even if I should launch a new business and fail many times, I will keep on trying until I succeed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3.5	I want to launch a new business of my own before graduating.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3.6	I am confident that I can successfully launch a new business on my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3.7	If I should launch a new business, I would like to expand it to other countries as well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B3.8	I am more interested in establishing my own business than getting a job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B4.1	I know many people at my university who have successfully started their own business	1	2	3	4	5	6

B4.2	At my university, people are actively encouraged to pursue their own ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B4.3	At my university, you get to meet lots of people with good ideas for new businesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B4.4	At my university there is a well-functioning structures to support the start-up of new businesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B4.5	Entrepreneurship cannot be taught people are born to be entrepreneurs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B5.1	I am confident that I will succeed if I would start my own business.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B5.2	It would be easy for me to start my own business.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B5.4	I have the skills and capabilities required to succeed as an entrepreneur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.1	I plan to be self-employed in the foreseeable future after I graduate from my university.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.2	I intend to start my own business in the next five years to address the needs of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.3	I intend to start my own business in the next five years to address the needs of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.4	I am ready to start a business that will address the needs of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.5	My professional goal is to become a business person who addresses the needs of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.6	I will make every effort to start and run my own business to address the basic needs of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.7	I am determined to create a business in the future that will focus on the needs of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6

B6.8	I have very seriously thought in starting a business that will focus on the needs of the society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B6.9	I have the business intention to start a business that will address the needs of the society someday.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION C

C.1. Do you seriously intend to start a business?	YES	No	
C.2. The purpose of this business would be to	Serve the needs of the community	Generate wealth for own use	Both
C.3. What type of business would you like to start?			

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

