A COMPARISON OF ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS OF GENERATION Y STUDENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND ZIMBABWE

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is my own work; that all sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this dissertation was not previously submitted by me or any other person for degree purposes at this or any other university.

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I dedicate this research study to my dad, Chrispen Marire Ndlovu, my late mom, Elma Tandare and my late brother, Reply Daison Marire.

I extend my gratitude to the following people who made this research study possible:

- To the Lord, Jesus Christ who loved me and blessed me until this moment; and that same God of yesterday, today and forever for the ability he gave me.
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- To all the respondents (students) who took their time to take part in the survey.
ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS OF GENERATION Y STUDENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND ZIMBABWE

Keywords: Entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurship, Generation Y, South Africa, Zimbabwe

Entrepreneurship has enjoyed a great deal of attention from researchers and policy makers, and it is often viewed as a developmental pillar for various nations. Researchers have been trying to find answers to the factors that trigger new business creation and entrepreneurial intention. The major reason for this level of interest is the necessity for more entrepreneurs which may contribute to growth and prosperity of economies in terms of job creation and to the reduction of unemployment levels. However, the majority of entrepreneurial intention studies were undertaken with reference to non-African nations and those that were done in Africa were more attentive to existing entrepreneurs.

This research aims to determine differences or similarities in entrepreneurial intentions between a sample of Generation Y students from South Africa and those from Zimbabwe. The core objective is to compare the entrepreneurial intentions of students from different backgrounds and cultures. This study employed a descriptive research design. A questionnaire survey was administered to meet the empirical objectives. Data was collected from 400 undergraduate students from South Africa (North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus) and Zimbabwe (Great Zimbabwe University, Mashava Campus). To enable comparisons, 200 undergraduate students registered at each institution were selected through convenience sampling.

The study applied Azjen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to evaluate factors inducing entrepreneurial intent among university students. The study tested the validity of the TPB through an international comparison. The Entrepreneurial Intention Questionnaire (EIQ) developed by Liñán and Chen (2009:612) was administered to undergraduate students. It was accompanied by a cover letter requesting participation from respondents. Moderate to strong positive correlations were found between personal attitudes and entrepreneurial intentions, perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions. Regression analysis was also performed. The dependent variable in this study is entrepreneurial intention, whereas the independent variables are personal attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial education. The study found
that personal attitudes and perceived behavioural control positively impacted on entrepreneurial intentions, while, the subjective norm made an insignificant impact on entrepreneurial intention.

The findings show that South African and Zimbabwean students have the necessary attitudes and behavioural control to start their own businesses. However, South African students seem to have a greater propensity to start their own business compared to their Zimbabwean counterparts. Zimbabwean students’ lower entrepreneurial inclination may be attributed to the lack of entrepreneurial emphasis in their curriculums. Entrepreneurship education should not only be about the historical and theoretical aspects of entrepreneurship but it should also promote entrepreneurship in practice. There were differences in entrepreneurship education in both countries. This points to the fact that universities have their own approach to constructing entrepreneurship module/s or courses. Evidence shows that the subjects and skills taught at universities do not appear to encourage students to become active agents of their own destiny through developing qualities such as independence, creativity, risk-taking, self-motivation and innovation. Further it has been found that universities through their own curriculums do not prepare students for self-employment as a career option. Hence, a revision of the content of the curriculum is required to further generate an entrepreneurial orientation by including learning outcomes which are about and for entrepreneurship. However, this calls for a holistic approach from all role players with adequate resources to support them. Universities as institutions can create campus entrepreneur networks linked to the institutional websites. This can make it possible for students with entrepreneurial intention to connect with others who have similar intentions. They can even share ideas on such platforms.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

CCPD: Centre for Continuing Professional Development

EE: Entrepreneurial education

EI: Entrepreneurial intention

EIQ: Entrepreneurial Intention Questionnaire

EMS: Economic and Management Sciences

GDP: Gross Domestic Product

HEI: Higher Educational Institution

PA: Personal attitude

PBC: Perceived behavioural control

SA: South Africa

SEE: Shapero and Sokol’s Entrepreneurial Event model

SLP: Short Learning Programmes

SME: Small and Medium Enterprises

SN: Subjective norm

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TPB: Theory of Planned Behaviour

YEP: Youth Empowerment Policy

Zim: Zimbabwe
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND STUDY CONTEXT

The study field of entrepreneurship has been of importance to scholars over many years (Harris et al., 2009:407). According to Zahra (1999:37), entrepreneurship has been considered a major factor for socio-economic progress and expansion, because it offers many more job opportunities, and impacts on a country’s national wealth and standard of living. Certo et al. (2009:319) describe entrepreneurs as people who are capable of doing something different and of recognising opportunities, where other people cannot. Entrepreneurial intention is the way of thinking that guides and directs the activities of the entrepreneur in the direction of the development and execution of a business idea (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994:64). Entrepreneurial intentions and activities offer opportunities for people to attain financial freedom, to have authority and the ability to make decisions. This also benefits the economy by aiding in job creation, employment opportunities and economic development (Basu & Virick, 2008:79).

One of the most challenging problems facing countries is the high unemployment levels of the youth. The job environment, therefore, is very competitive as the supply of jobs is very limited (Keat et al., 2011:206). South Africa’s unemployment rate was 24.5 per cent in 2015’s last quarter (Yekaterina, 2016:1). According to Mangena (2014:78), the unemployment rate in Zimbabwe was recorded at a high rate of 94 per cent in 2008. Furthermore, contributing to the unemployment problem is the fact that there is a high drop-out rate of university students because of escalating university fees (MacGregor, 2007:1).

Entrepreneurship is seen as a catalyst of economic growth and countries are using it as a strategy to reduce the unemployment problem amongst the youth. Most governments have made countless efforts to promote entrepreneurial activities (Wu & Wu, 2008:752). The government of South Africa, for example, has been providing increasing support to small businesses and entrepreneurs, with initiatives such as tax relief and training support. Moreover, there is the strengthening of industry incentives, including special economic zones funding (Gordhan, 2013:6). The Zimbabwean government has also introduced its own initiatives, for example, the implementation of the Youth Empowerment Policy (YEP) that involved the development of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) which included the vocational training of youth as a vital element for entrepreneurial skills development (Chinamasa, 2013:205).
Against the background of high employment rates in both the countries (South Africa and Zimbabwe) this study focuses on the entrepreneurial intentions of university students. Intentions are an integral part of human behaviour and one of the most widely used psychological theories to predict and explain human behaviour in recent years is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). This theory is an extension of the theory of reasoned action, developed by Ajzen and Fishbein in 1980 (Ajzen & Cote, 2008:301). The TPB is regarded as a valuable framework for understanding human behaviour (Ajzen, 2011:454). Further, Ajzen and Cote (2008:303), maintain that TPB is considered a useful and effective instrument for human behaviour predictions. In the TPB, when the behaviour is under volitional control (conscious willingness), intentions are considered to be excellent forecasters of behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005:192). The TPB advocates that the instant cause of action is an individual’s intention to act or not to act (Ajzen, 1985:11). Based on the foregoing discussion, the study draws from this theory to provide an approach to the study.

1.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this study, the focus was to examine what attributes are behind the intention to act upon certain behaviour. In this case, the study concept shows that there were independent variables such as personal attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial education. Entrepreneurial intention was the dependent variable in this study concept as illustrated in Figure 1.1.

![Conceptual framework of the study](image)

**Figure 1.1** Conceptual framework of the study
1.3 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

H1: There is significant positive relationship between personal attitude and entrepreneurial intention.

H2: There is significant positive relationship between subjective norms and entrepreneurial intention.

H3: There is significant positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention.

H4: There is significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Developing nations such as South Africa and Zimbabwe are facing twin problems, which are unemployment and poverty. In South Africa, these problems originated from the apartheid era which ended in 1994. In addition, inequality still exists in the country as, 20 per cent of the population are in possession of 80 per cent of the nation’s wealth (Nisonger, 2008:62). Zimbabwe on the other hand is also at a critical level in terms of economic development. These countries can tackle these challenges through entrepreneurship as it leads to economic growth and job creation (Zahra, 1999:37). The South African and Zimbabwean governments, businesses and higher education institutions have been involved in encouraging entrepreneurial activities as possible solutions to these challenges. However, there is still a lack of collaboration between government, business and higher education in supporting and taking entrepreneurship to higher levels (Tau, 2012:5). Despite the efforts made, there is no formal report of any success stories regarding such collaboration.

between students’ entrepreneurial intentions, students’ attitudes and entrepreneurship education, even though some authors proposed such a relationship.

Generation Y students will be the focus in this study. For the purpose of this study, Generation Y students will be defined as people who were born between 1986 and 2005. According to Martin (2005:39), it is believed that this Generation Y is the most educated, diverse, tech-proficient, and soon-to-be the largest generation ever. These are the children of the baby boomers as described by Nowak et al. (2006:316). According to Leohla (2009:16), Generation Y was estimated to be approximately 14.5 million people in 2009 in South Africa. In 2013, Generation Y constituted more than 5 per cent of the Zimbabwean population (Chinamasa, 2013:205). Nowak et al. (2006:316) state that the Generation Y population is much larger than the Generation X population. Generation X refers to people who were born between 1963 and 1981 (Jurkiewicz, 2000:55).

Although there is a growing interest in the study of entrepreneurship, many of these studies were done in Western countries (Autio et al., 2001:145, Lüthje & Franke, 2003:135; Moriano et al., 2012:166). Unfortunately, not enough entrepreneurship research has been done in African countries such as South Africa and especially in Zimbabwe. Likewise, not enough is known concerning differences in attitudes and entrepreneurial intentions among students from diverse cultures and backgrounds (Wilson et al., 2004:178). University students from various parts of the world are raised and educated in very different economic, political and cultural environments. This research focuses on South Africa and Zimbabwe because they are culturally different and they differ in their economic history. On the African continent, entrepreneurship research is predominantly South African. Naudé and Havenga (2005:116) found that of all the research done on entrepreneurship in Africa, 61.2 per cent was done in South Africa, 5.0 per cent in Zimbabwe, 3.84 per cent in Nigeria and 3.65 per cent in Kenya.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives have been formulated for the study.

1.5.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to identify differences or similarities of entrepreneurial intentions between Generation Y university students from South Africa and Zimbabwe.
1.5.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- Conduct a literature review on entrepreneurship in South Africa and in Zimbabwe;
- Review the relevant theories underlying entrepreneurial intentions;
- Review literature on entrepreneurial education in South Africa and Zimbabwe; and
- Review literature on personal attributes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions of university students.

1.5.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective of the study, the following empirical objectives were formulated:

- Conduct a comparative analysis between South African and Zimbabwean students regarding their personal attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions;
- Examine the linear association between personal attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial educations and entrepreneurial intentions;
- Examine the predictive relationship between personal attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control with entrepreneurial education; and
- Examine the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions.

1.6 METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

The study comprised a literature review and an empirical study. A quantitative research method was used to investigate the entrepreneurial intentions of Generation Y students between the two countries, namely South Africa and Zimbabwe. A questionnaire survey method was used to obtain the required information.

1.6.1 Literature review

In order to support the empirical study, a review of South African, Zimbabwean and international literature was conducted using secondary data sources. These secondary sources
included relevant textbooks, the Internet, academic databases, business and academic journal articles.

1.6.2 Empirical study

The empirical design for this study followed a quantitative paradigm. This approach provided a deeper understanding of entrepreneurship and its related constructs. Bryman and Bell (2007:26) define quantitative research as a “research paradigm that emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data and viewing the relationship between theory and research as deductive”. It includes the use of a large sample that is representative of the population, thus broadening the range of possible data and ultimately forming a better picture for analysis (Cooper & Emory, 1995:202). It is suitable for testing hypotheses, measuring social reality and quantifying opinion (Cooper & Emory, 1995:202). The empirical part of this research comprised the following methodological aspects:

1.6.2.1 Target population

The target population proposed for this study were undergraduate students of North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus (South Africa) and the Great Zimbabwe University, Mashava Campus (Zimbabwe). From the North-West University, the students from the Faculty of Economic and Information Technology were selected. From the Great Zimbabwe University, the students were selected from the Faculty of Commerce.

1.6.2.2 Sampling method

A non-probability, convenience sampling technique was used to draw samples of students from the different universities. Convenience sampling was chosen for this study, because it is relatively easy, less costly and less time-consuming.

1.6.2.3 Sample size

This research study followed the historical method in determining the sample size (i.e. sample size based on past studies on entrepreneurial intentions). The study by Kristiansen and Indarti (2004:64) used a total sample of 251 students, comparing Norway (n=121) and Indonesia (n=130). Gurel et al. (2010:646) used 409 students from UK and Turkey as their sample, Liñán et al. (2005:8) used a sample of 354 students from two universities in Spain, Hmieleski and Corbett (2006:45) used a sample of 430 students. Gürol and Atsan (2006:25) used a sample of
400 students from two Turkish universities. These studies were used as guidelines for the sample size of this study. A sample of 400 students was chosen for the study. To facilitate comparisons, 200 students enrolled at each institution were chosen.

1.6.2.4 Measuring instrument and data collection method

A survey method was used to obtain the data required. The measuring instrument used was an adapted version of the instrument used by Liñán and Chen (2009:612) namely the Entrepreneurial Intention Questionnaire (EIQ). Six-point Likert scales were used, anchored by 1= strongly disagree and 6= strongly agree, on which respondents indicated to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the various statements. The questionnaire also included a section soliciting information about the demographic and general information of respondents. The data collection procedure involved personal delivery and collection of the questionnaires. The questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study and requesting permission to participate in the study.

1.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The captured data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 22.0 for Windows. Descriptive statistics, including the calculation of means, standard deviations, tests for or differences, correlations and regression analysis was used in the analysis of the data.

1.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ANALYSIS

Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results when repeated. According to Joppe (2000:1), reliability is the degree to which outcomes are constant over time. If the results of a study can be repeated under a similar methodology, the research instrument will therefore be considered reliable. The EIQ has been empirically tested in several studies (Liñán et al., 2011:200; Rashid et al., 2012:74). Cronbach alpha reliability was used. The acceptable requirement for Cronbach coefficient should be greater than 0.70 (Hair, et al., 1998:134).

Validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it is meant to measure (Cooper & Emory, 1995:149). Validity refers to how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure (Joppe, 2000:1). Content and face validity of the questionnaire was verified by asking a number...
of qualified, skilled researchers to review the questionnaire. In addition a pre-test and pilot test was conducted to establish construct validity. Convergent and predictive validity was established through correlations and regression analysis.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A better understanding of the perceptions and attitudes towards entrepreneurship in South Africa and Zimbabwe will permit role players such as policy makers and Universities to assess, strengthen and to change educational approaches if necessary, so as to improve entrepreneurial behaviour of students in each of these countries.

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This research study complies with the ethical standards of academic research and some of them are as follows:

- Permission should be acquired from the university management in the form of writing where a university is used as a case study;
- Participation in the study should be voluntary. No participant should be forced to take part in the study if they are not willing to participate;
- Personal information of respondents will be treated lawfully, fairly, and will only be used for the purposes of this study;
- Personal responses produced by individuals will not be ascribed to any individual. No data will be linked to individual respondents or will be personal, but rather, data will be collectively computerised;
- The filling out of questionnaires will be anonymous, as respondents will not have their names labelled on questionnaires;
- Only relevant personal data needed for the study will be collected from respondents; and
- Neutrality in the interpretation and understanding of the survey results will be sustained.

1.11 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

This section briefly highlights what each and every chapter in this study entails.

Chapter 1: The problem and its setting
This chapter focuses on the introduction and background of the study. This includes the problem statement, the objectives and the research methodology used in the study.

**Chapter 2: Entrepreneurial intentions**

This chapter provides the literature review on the entrepreneurial intentions of Generation Y students for the two countries, namely South Africa and Zimbabwe. It will also focus on the definitions and theories of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial intentions and related constructs such as attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norms, behavioural control and entrepreneurial education.

**Chapter 3: Research methodology and design**

The research methodology is described in this chapter. The population, sampling method, sample frame and data collection method are discussed and the data analysis and statistical techniques are outlined.

**Chapter 4: Results and findings**

The chapter aims to provide a detailed analysis and interpretation of the findings of the study. The results obtained are evaluated against findings from previous studies within the field.

**Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations**

This chapter comprises a review of the entire study and provides conclusions drawn from the study. Recommendations will be made. Suggestions for further research are given in this chapter.
CHAPTER 2
ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature which is essential for structuring a solid theoretical background for answering the research questions. This chapter begins with an overview of who an entrepreneur is. It provides an overview of entrepreneurship and discusses the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurship. Relevant articles were reviewed, giving some proposed models to measure entrepreneurial intention. The chapter closes with the discussion of two theories of entrepreneurial intention namely, the Theory of Planned Behaviour of Ajzen (1991) and Shapero and Sokol’s Entrepreneurial Event Model.

2.2 AN ENTREPRENEUR

The lack of unanimity amongst researchers made it impossible to determine a universal definition for an ‘entrepreneur’. Different writers define an entrepreneur in various ways, depending on their study fields. Psychologists view an entrepreneur as that individual who is naturally motivated to achieve something and who aims towards attaining a certain goal (Shaver & Scott, 1991:39). On the other hand, economists view an entrepreneur as the person who produces something valuable and worthy by putting different resources together, as a distributor and as an economic growth agent (Barreto, 2013:1803). Richard Cantillon introduced the word entrepreneur and he used this term to refer to a risk-taking expert (Casson & Godley, 2005:26). The entrepreneur is a principal character in various analyses of economic growth according to Casson and Godley (2005:25). Schumpeter (1951:261) maintains that an entrepreneur is that individual who ensures that new things are accomplished. Moreover, the meaning of an entrepreneur goes beyond the physical person and extends to the individual’s function (Schumpeter, 1951:263). An entrepreneur is defined by Stokes and Wilson (2010:34) as an individual who undergoes a change process by executing an idea that is new. Hébert and Link (1989:47) define an entrepreneur as “someone who specializes in taking responsibility for and making judgmental decisions that affect the location, form, and the use of goods, resources or institutions”.

An entrepreneur is that person who creates the business and controls it in the face of uncertainty. The major reason for that would be to create wealth and to generate profits. An entrepreneur
make things happen at the firm level and at the market level. An entrepreneur manages and leads the business. An entrepreneur centres and plays a crucial role in evaluating levels of market consumption, distribution and production and acts as a force to maintain financial equilibrium (Nijkamp, 2003:397).

The literature therefore provides different ways of defining an entrepreneur. However, the common theme emerging from the definitions is that an entrepreneur is a person who opportunistically pursues economic wealth via risk-taking and creative initiatives.

2.2.1 Types of Entrepreneurs

Self-employed people are referred to as entrepreneurs and they are also regarded as change agents. Entrepreneurs can fall into two categories, namely latent entrepreneurs and actual entrepreneurs (Pihie & Akmaliah, 2009:341). According to Mueller (2004:200), there are people who aim to start a business as time goes on and these are called latent entrepreneurs while those who have started a business already are actual entrepreneurs. Sharma and Chrisman (2007:91) highlight that entrepreneurs can operate as individuals or as independent groups of individuals or can operate in the corporate system, creating new businesses for the sake of making a profit by exploiting opportunities available to them.

An entrepreneur makes jobs available for others, is a wealth creator, exploits resources efficiently and decrease waste. In the market, this individual can act as a partner, customer, supplier, a rival or a threat to other players. Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2009:9) describe an entrepreneur as an individual who realises an opportunity in the market, puts resources together, starts-up and grows a business firm to meet the identified needs. If the business succeeds, an entrepreneur gets profit as a reward, by taking a risk of starting a business without any guarantee that the business is going to succeed.

2.2.2 Functions and Characteristics of Entrepreneurs

“The function of entrepreneurs is to reform or revolutionize the pattern of production by exploiting an invention or, more generally, an untried technological possibility for producing a new commodity or producing an old one in a new way, by opening up a new source of supply of materials or a new outlet for products” (Schumpeter, 1942:132). Hébert and Link (1989:41) produced the following twelve points to summarise the definitions and functions of an entrepreneur:
• An entrepreneur is the person who takes up the risk that supplements uncertainty;
• An entrepreneur is a provider of financial capital;
• An entrepreneur innovates;
• An entrepreneur makes decisions;
• An entrepreneur is a leader in the industry;
• An entrepreneur is an overseer or a manager;
• An entrepreneur synchronizes and organizes economic resources;
• An entrepreneur is an enterprise owner;
• An entrepreneur employs elements of production.
• An entrepreneur is a contractor;
• An entrepreneur is an adjudicator; and
• An entrepreneur assigns resources to different uses.

Table 2.1 provides an overview of the functions of an entrepreneur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Functions of an entrepreneur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discovers and exploits opportunities</td>
<td>A creator who initiates and motivates the process of change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepts risks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses intuition, is alert, explores new business</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership, initiates new ways of acting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifies business opportunities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of new firms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Cuervo et al. (2007:2)

There are various characteristics of an entrepreneur that need to be taught. There are priceless qualities that one needs to have, to be able to bear the risks (Hyrsky & Tuunanen, 1999:253). An entrepreneur normally possesses an innovator’s character, is a leader by nature and takes
calculated risks in managing a business (Carland, et al., 1984:358). According to Van Praag (1999:316), this special individual called ‘an entrepreneur’ needs to possess an exceptional mixture of experience and qualities that others do not have. Entrepreneurs can be noticed or recognized by their attitudes and actions. A summary of the characteristics of an entrepreneur as identified by Carland et al. (1984:356) is provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2  Characteristics of entrepreneurs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Characteristic(s)</th>
<th>Normative</th>
<th>Empirical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1848</td>
<td>Mill</td>
<td>Risk-bearing</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917</td>
<td>Weber</td>
<td>Source of formal authority</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>Schumpeter</td>
<td>Innovation, initiative</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>Sutton</td>
<td>Desire for responsibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>Hartman</td>
<td>Source of formal authority</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>McClelland</td>
<td>Risk taking, need for achievement</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>Davids</td>
<td>Ambition; desire for independence; responsibility; self-confidence</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>Pickle</td>
<td>Drive/mental; human relations; communication ability; technical knowledge</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>Palmer</td>
<td>Risk measurement</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>Hornaday &amp; Aboud</td>
<td>Need for achievement; autonomy; aggression, power; recognition; Innovative/independent</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>Winter</td>
<td>Need for power</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>Borland</td>
<td>Internal locus of control</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>Liles</td>
<td>Need for achievement</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>Gasse</td>
<td>Personal values orientation</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>Timmons</td>
<td>Drive/self-confidence; goal oriented</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2  Characteristics of entrepreneurs (Continued …)
People are motivated differently to become self-employed. According to Veciana (2007:42), there are quite a number on reasons why one can decide to be an entrepreneur. These include the following:

- Aspiration to acquire economic freedom: A number of people decide on becoming self-employed, based on an economic opportunity. They might be driven by the expected rewards, depending on the merit they get.

- Aspiration to be independent: People would want to fall into entrepreneurship due to the need to get some independence rather than to be submissive to other people.

- Aspiration to exert authority: Some individuals would be attracted by the power to make decisions which comes with being an entrepreneur.

- Self-actualization: Other individuals embark on the journey of becoming entrepreneurs, so that they can have a chance and an opportunity to show their creative talents, to follow their dreams and to be self-actualized.

There is a relationship between entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs are the causes of entrepreneurship (Carland et al., 2002:48). The next section provides a discussion of entrepreneurship.

2.3 ENTREPRENEURSHIP

This section discusses entrepreneurship in terms of historical view and definition.
2.3.1 Historical views on entrepreneurship

The history of entrepreneurship dates back to 1732. An Irish economist Richard Cantillon introduced the term ‘entrepreneurship’ into the literature. This banker and economist used the word with reference to those individuals who are ready and willing to take some risk in starting a new business, especially the financial risk (Minniti & Lévesque, 2008:603). The word entrepreneurship originates from the German word *unternehmen* and the French verb *entreprendre* which means to undertake (Wennekers, 2006:22-24).

Richard Cantillon was the first to recognize and accept that in the economic system, there is presence of the entrepreneurial function (Hébert & Link, 1989:42). Three kinds of agents were acknowledged in the economic system, namely, landlords as capitalists who are financially independent, entrepreneurs as arbitragers who are risk takers and hirelings as employees who are stable income securers (Van Praag, 1999:313).

2.3.2 Entrepreneurship defined

Entrepreneurship historians have different meanings for the term (Casson & Godley, 2005:25; Gedeon, 2010:17). Several authors in entrepreneurship agreed on the difficulty in discovering a single suitable and universal definition of this term (Louw *et al.*, 2003:7; Makgosa & Ongori, 2012:249). Numerous researchers referred to entrepreneurship as a way of thinking that is creative (Henry *et al.*, 2005:99; Makgosa & Ongori, 2012:249).

According to Low and MacMillan (1988:141) entrepreneurship refers to new business creation. Bygrave (1989:21) states that there is an increasing consciousness that entrepreneurship is what one is, not what one is working towards to become. Ronstadt (1985:28) describes entrepreneurship as a process whereby certain individuals who are risk takers generate and accumulate wealth.

Stevenson and Jarillo (1990:23) define entrepreneurship as “a process by which individuals - either on their own or inside organizations pursue opportunities without regard to resources they currently control”. Entrepreneurship also refers to the art of converting an idea into a new venture, for self-employment. It is a type of intentionally planned behaviour; therefore many authors used intentional behaviour in exploring this phenomenon (Bird & Jelinek, 1988:21; Krueger & Carsrud, 1993:315; Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999:269; Autio *et al.*, 2001:145).
Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2009:9) relate entrepreneurship to the creation of an opportunity and executing it, irrespective of the presently regulated resources. Normally, when students enter into self-employment they consider the values that come with it, like independence, challenge, and self-realization (Lüthje & Franke, 2003:136). Hisrich and Peters’ (2002:10) definition shows that entrepreneurship is the creation of a new valuable commodity by sacrificing some monetary and personal satisfaction expectations. From the literature, entrepreneurship can therefore be viewed as the process of value creation by transforming ideas into profitable opportunities. This phenomenon involves attitudes that mirror people’s enthusiasm and ability to recognize the opportunity and to execute it to create value and economic achievement. Directly related to entrepreneurship is entrepreneurship education, which is overviewed in the next section.

2.4 ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

This section provides an in-depth discussion of entrepreneurship education.

2.4.1 Entrepreneurship education defined

Entrepreneurship education is defined in several ways by different scholars. An agreement on which definition should be used universally has not been reached. Entrepreneurship is a diverse phenomenon that can relate to different educational disciplines (Aderemi et al., 2008:166). Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:76) define education as a “purposeful, conscious, intervention by an adult in the life of a non-adult with the specific purpose of bringing the non-adult successfully to adulthood. Education includes, not only teaching of subject matter, but through teaching the imparting of qualities such as leadership, perseverance, patience, morals, values and decision-making”.

Entrepreneurship education is the determined involvement of an educationalist in the education lifetime of the student to instil entrepreneurial qualities and expertise to qualify the learner to stay abreast in the business economy (Gouws, 2002:43; Isaacs et al., 2007:614).

Entrepreneurship education is defined as the courses and lectures that are part of the curriculum scope that offer entrepreneurial capabilities, expertise and understanding to students, so that they can follow the entrepreneurship path as a profession (Ekpoh & Edet, 2011:172; Keat et al., 2011:209). According to Politis (2005:401), entrepreneurship education is a continuous procedure taken to simplify the development of required acquaintance and skills for starting a business. Martínez et al. (2010:8) define entrepreneurship education as the development of
know-how and abilities towards entrepreneurship. This training can be at different educational levels, from primary to tertiary. According to Jones and English (2004:416), entrepreneurship education is referred to as a process of providing individuals with the skill to identify opportunities that were overlooked by others and the vision, confidence, acquaintance and expertise to produce valuable results.

Gibson et al. (2011:13) state that the principle aim of entrepreneurship education is to develop and nurture future entrepreneurs who are skilled for starting and sustaining successful ventures, irrespective of their educational background. Conversely, it is commonly accepted that most educators teach ‘about’ entrepreneurship instead of teaching ‘for’ entrepreneurship (Kirby, 2004:514). The following section provides insights to entrepreneurship education as an overview.

2.4.2 Overview of entrepreneurship education

The history of entrepreneurship education dates back to 1938, when its pioneer Shigeru Fijii first introduced and taught it in Japan at Kobe University (Alberti et al., 2004:5). Entrepreneurship education was further developed in American universities, and it only started surfacing around the 1940s. According to Kirby and Ibrahim (2012:98), the first entrepreneurship course in the United States of America was introduced at Harvard Business School by Myles Mace in February 1947. Students who got attracted to and enrolled for that first course were 188 out of 600 second-year MBA students. In Western Europe and the United Kingdom, around the early 1980s was when initial courses in entrepreneurship were offered (Kirby & Ibrahim, 2011:182). There was noticeably rapid growth in America more than in European countries because they were faster to understand benefits of entrepreneurship (Thurik & Wennekers, 2004:143). While reaching its maturity in the United States, entrepreneurship education is also growing in the United Kingdom.

Jones and Iredale (2010:7) note a massive expansion in courses relating to entrepreneurship and small business management over the past 30 years. In developed countries, entrepreneurship education has grown exponentially in the last two decades (Matlay & Carey, 2007:252). The actual rise of entrepreneurship education took place around the 1980s during which there was an enormous growth in the total number of universities and college offering entrepreneurship-related courses (Kirby & Ibrahim, 2011:182). The institutions offering these courses were very few in the 1970s, but in 2005, there were over 1,600 United States institutions offering more than
2,200 entrepreneurship and small business management courses (Kuratko, 2005:577). During the 1980s, growth of entrepreneurship education was also evidenced by the number of published articles as shown in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3 Entrepreneurship education studies (1980s)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Year published</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hornaday</td>
<td>1982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loucks</td>
<td>1982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clark, Davis, and Harnish</td>
<td>1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexton and Upton</td>
<td>1984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McMullan, Long, and Wilson</td>
<td>1985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vesper</td>
<td>1986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McMullan and Long</td>
<td>1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ronstadt</td>
<td>1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexton and Upton</td>
<td>1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zeithaml and Rice</td>
<td>1987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hills</td>
<td>1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klatt</td>
<td>1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solomon</td>
<td>1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vesper and McMullen</td>
<td>1988</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Kuratko (2005:582)

Internationally, governments have acknowledged the significance of entrepreneurship education in education institutions to inspire an innovative and creative society (Henry _et al._, 2005:100; Brijlal, 2011:818; Kirby & Ibrahim, 2012:98). Entrepreneurship courses in schools, colleges and universities could be the best way to reverse the difficulty in finding jobs upon graduation that is now encountered by graduates (Keat _et al._, 2011:206).
Kuratko (2005:580) states that it is becoming widely accepted that certain aspects of entrepreneurship can be taught, thus opposing the perception that entrepreneurs are not made, but born. Gorman et al. (1997:56) present a similar argument reminding us that several empirical studies pointed out that entrepreneurship can be taught. A number of researchers supported this view and these include Ronstadt (1990:69); Gorman et al. (1997:56) and Kuratko (2003:11).

Exogenous aspects such as prior entrepreneurial exposure stimulate attitudes and therefore intentions (Krueger, 1993:6). Charney and Libecap (2000:2) and Hamidi et al. (2008:316) argue that there is a positive relationship between entrepreneurship education and the start-ups or the creation of businesses in the future. Empirical support was put forward by several scholars that entrepreneurship education is a valuable and effective way to stimulate and motivate students’ intention to take entrepreneurship as a career choice (Lee et al., 2005:41; Keat et al., 2011:216; Tope et al., 2014:43). Further educational choice has not been fully explored by many students (Hamidi et al., 2008:316).

Undergraduates’ understanding of entrepreneurship most probably leads them to the preference to create their own businesses in the future (Wang & Wong, 2004:171). Souitaris’ et al. (2007:566) study reflected that entrepreneurship programmes positively influence the attitude towards being an entrepreneur and also raise overall levels of intention. Wilson et al. (2007:391) state that directed education can play a vital role in rising self-efficacy levels. Furthermore, entrepreneurship education can also raise students’ attention, awareness and curiosity towards taking the career path of an entrepreneur.

Boyd and Vozikis (1994:74), Peterman and Kennedy (2003:132) and, Izquierdo and Buelens (2011:20) argue that self-efficacy links entrepreneurship education to entrepreneurial intention. That is because a course relating to entrepreneurship might boost students’ confidence to believe that they have the capability of starting and managing their businesses and this enhances their entrepreneurial intention. Other authors like Izquierdo and Buelens (2011:19) and Tam (2009:1) confirmed that participation in entrepreneurship education positively enhances students’ attitude to entrepreneurship as it equips them with valuable skills. Clearly, this proves that if the majority of the students go through entrepreneurship education, there will be greater entrepreneurial levels as a result. These factors are not, however, satisfactorily explored. There is a reduction of interest and a growth in negative attitudes towards entrepreneurship amongst those students who did not take part in entrepreneurship education. As such, Hamidi et al. (2008:311) suggest that there are
differences in entrepreneurship students and non-entrepreneurship students’ entrepreneurial intention.

Other research stressed that entrepreneurship education is a limiting factor in indicating self-assessed abilities and entrepreneurial intentions for university students (Wang & Wong, 2004:171; Oosterbeek et al., 2008:17; Oosterbeek et al., 2010:442; Von Graevenitz et al., 2010:92; Göksel & Aydintan, 2011:41).

2.4.3 Entrepreneurship education objectives

According to Mwasalwiba (2010:26), the majority of authors who have tried to define entrepreneurship education have definitions that lean substantially on perceived outcomes. Entrepreneurship is designed to achieve certain objectives which include job creation, providing self-employment skills, knowledge advancement and to develop the entrepreneurial attitudes. Among others, Mwasalwiba (2010:26) and Jyothi (2009:39) portray the following general objectives of entrepreneurship education as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

![Figure 2.1 Entrepreneurship education objectives](source)

**Source:** Mwasalwiba (2010:26) and Jyothi (2009:39)

2.4.4 Entrepreneurship education in South Africa

North (2002:25) states that around the early 1990’s, entrepreneurship education evolved in South Africa. Around the same period, curriculum and academic professionals came together to explore the viability of including entrepreneurship as a subject in the future. These professionals
formed a committee. Officially, in South Africa, entrepreneurship education was initiated in 2000, with the application of the Curriculum 2005 programme (North, 2002:26).

According to Orford et al. (2003:34), education is viewed as one of the most significant ways of disseminating entrepreneurial knowledge. If an individual is educated, it is most probable that they will find a business and employ a lot of people. The chance of creating employment by people who went through tertiary education is 2.5 times more than for people who just completed secondary education only and 11 times more than those who did not even complete secondary education (Von Broembsen et al., 2005:28).

Young South African adults who went through tertiary education have high chances of identifying an opportunity and of starting a business just like youths in other developing countries. South Africa’s entrepreneurial activity rate is the lowest compared to all other developing countries (Herrington et al., 2010:33). According to Farrington et al. (2011:3), South African students learn the importance of security, therefore, making them prefer working in private companies or in government departments rather than becoming self-employed and being an entrepreneur. Hence, their enthusiasm to be employers and job creators is very low. This rate is so low because the possibility of black students in black schools attaining basic entrepreneurial skills, knowledge and attitudes is 50 per cent lower than for the mostly white students’ schools (Von Broembsen et al., 2005:48). Basically this emanates from the fact that South Africa is failing to give its citizens proper, effective education, especially those who were previously disadvantaged or those from poor backgrounds.

According to Mauchi et al. (2011:1311), most teachers experience a challenge in conveying and teaching entrepreneurial skills to students. Mashiapata (2006:20) argues that teaching Economic and Management Sciences (EMS) is still a challenge in South Africa, since teachers lack confidence, as they do not have the necessary business training and capabilities. Some schools even force teachers who really do not even know how to teach the learning area to teach that subject. As a result, students will not obtain the positive attitude towards entrepreneurship. Moreover, according to Mashiapata (2006:24), implementation of EMS as a Learning Area is not done by several schools, even though there is a policy considering it as one of the compulsory Learning Areas.

In South Africa, the public higher education institutions are twenty-six in number, consisting of conventional Universities, Comprehensive Universities and Universities of Technology. Most
conventional Universities offer modules related to entrepreneurship. Some of these Universities now focus on entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship as a research field (Tau, 2012:14).

At the North-West University, Vaal-Triangle Campus, one of the initiatives is the Centre for Continuing Professional Development (CCPD) which is there to support entrepreneurs. Regardless of the implementations and support given by South African government towards entrepreneurial activity, there is lack of a strong policy approving entrepreneurship as the driver for the country’s success.

2.4.5 Entrepreneurship education in Zimbabwe

Entrepreneurship education is still in its infancy (Mauchi et al., 2011:1310). An entrepreneurship course was introduced and is now being taught in most Zimbabwean tertiary institutions, such as colleges, vocational training institutions and universities, even though the course is not yet nationally accepted as a compulsory course. The course is mostly restricted to the business faculties. Entrepreneurship education is offered at all levels such as bachelor, honours, masters and Doctorate. In Zimbabwe attention is being directed towards inspiring students in tertiary institutions to have positive attitudes and to believe in entrepreneurship (Mauchi et al., 2011:1306).

The Zimbabwean situation is similar to the South African situation in that, entrepreneurship educators lack proper entrepreneurship expertise in the subject, therefore, that makes it challenging to efficiently influence graduates to create businesses of their own. These lecturers would not be in the best place to motivate students as excellent role models (Mauchi et al., 2011:1310).

There are a number of recommendations that were highlighted by Mauchi et al. (2011:1311), which can be implemented to improve the culture of entrepreneurship through education and improve the order in entrepreneurship education. The recommendations can be applicable to Great Zimbabwe University as well. The recommendations to Zimbabwe as a nation follow:

Zimbabwe must implement more efficient learning system, supplemented by learning by doing. Traditional examinations should be accompanied by a business project.
The entrepreneurship educators must be skilled in entrepreneurship and must have been entrepreneurs of some kind themselves which will enable them to share exactly what they know and what they have been through. Lecturers must therefore possess relevant education and fresh experience of business practice.

Tertiary institutions should arrange and plan some events that are linked to entrepreneurship: organize meetings, conferences, seminars and workshops involving investors and external entrepreneurs with the aim of encouraging students to start their own businesses.

The government should donate some funds for the launching of entrepreneurship centres at tertiary institutions to ascertain the diffusion of entrepreneurship across diverse fields of study in institutions, promoting the exploitation and commercialization of new business ideas and constructing relations with other businesses. As part of the demographics, gender is discussed in the section that follows.

2.5 GENDER AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

A number of studies in the scientific literature investigate the connection linking ‘gender’ to attitudes towards entrepreneurship. Several of those studies confirm that males are more inclined to starting a business than females (Kolvereid & Moen, 1997:157; Yordanova & Tarrazon, 2010:245). Zhao et al. (2005:1265) argue that gender links directly to entrepreneurial intention and is not related to self-efficacy, with men having a higher entrepreneurial intention than women. Similarly, Pushkarskaya’s (2008:103) results provide evidence that gender is one of the key factors influencing the decision to create a venture, and that males are most probably the ones to start businesses rather than females.

In support, Díaz-García and Jiménez- Moreno (2010:261) found an association between gender and the intention of starting a business. Correspondingly, Veciana et al. (2005:180) also found the same relationship. Expanding their focus, they also went on to investigate the connection, linking gender and desirability. Wang and Wong (2004:170) confirm the influence of gender on entrepreneurial intention on Singaporean students. Females fear apparent difficulties and unsatisfactory rewards, even though they feel like they are capable of starting a business. According to Wilson et al. (2007:388), the gender influence, might be the reason for the slow uptake of women in entrepreneurship, leading to very few women owning businesses. Next, cultural considerations are discussed.
2.6 ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND CULTURE

It is widely accepted in the literature of entrepreneurship that culture has some sort of effect on entrepreneurship. Culture is defined as the principal value system that is attached to a specific society or group of people (Mueller & Thomas, 2001:58). Therefore, culture inspires people in a certain society to participate in actions and display manners that might not be present or identified in other societies. Several authors, including Busenitz et al. (2000:995) and, George and Zahra (2002:5) view culture as a mediator between entrepreneurship and, economic and institutional circumstances. Moreover, in situations where culture towards entrepreneurship is comparatively poor, ‘dissatisfied’ people would rather pursue personal-realization by going for self-employment.

Different countries and regions have different entrepreneurial activity levels. Reynolds et al. (2002:7) show that in the year 2000, 18 per cent of Indian and Thailand adults were participating in entrepreneurial activities, while in Japan and Russia it was only two per cent of adults that were involved. It is clear that in some cultures and nations there is higher entrepreneurial activity and a higher rate of new venture creation than in others.

Several studies propose that differences of entrepreneurial activity levels in different countries can be better described by cultural factors in those specific countries (McGrath et al., 1992:115). The same researchers from above confirmed the importance of culture in influencing attitudes towards and the perceived value of entrepreneurship after conducting their study that explored the connection between culture, values and entrepreneurship. McGrath et al. (1992:115) undertook a comparative study between America and China in terms of entrepreneurship and their results show that American culture inculcated entrepreneurial values and attitudes that were more solid and organised than those promoted by the Chinese culture.

If a culture supports entrepreneurship, then that society will have higher entrepreneurial activity levels (Mueller & Thomas, 2001:52). The effects of culture are higher when it comes to the effects upon the subjective norm, since it reflects social pressure on an individual (Begley & Tan, 2001:547). Begley and Tan (2001:547) argue that subjective norms happen to be the best in predicting intention in collectivist cultures than in individualistic cultures.

It is vital to recognize and to know an individual’s entrepreneurial intention prior to becoming an entrepreneur, as this can help in making the picture clear of where the person is going, what
s/he wants to achieve and how s/he can successfully achieve his/her goals. The following section provides an overview of entrepreneurial intention.

2.7 ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION

Entrepreneurial intention refers to one’s preference and willingness to establish a new business as time goes on. Entrepreneurial intention is defined as people’s enthusiasm to be engaged in self-employment, starting a business or to participate and accomplish an entrepreneurial activity (Engle et al., 2010:38). Thompson (2009:676) defines entrepreneurial intention as the individual’s deliberate plan and belief that they will start a business in the future. Entrepreneurial intentions act as the catalyst towards behaviour. According to Shane et al. (2003:259), the individuals’ actions of chasing opportunities are the reason for the occurrence of the entrepreneurial process. This phenomenon is grounded in the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:181).

Generally, intentionality refers to an individual’s state of mind that leads that person to consider a particular goal (Bird, 1988:442). There is intentionality in most of entrepreneurship (Krueger et al., 2000:413). Consequently, intentions signify an individual’s incentive to make efforts towards a deliberate plan (Conner & Armitage, 1998:1430). Behaviour is projected by intentions (Krueger et al., 2000:413). Forthcoming behaviour happens as a result of some anticipatory commitment, hence, an intention indicates an upcoming course of action. Intention leads to actions, meaning if there is no intention, there can be no action. The intentional process is initiated from an individual’s personal needs, wants, values beliefs and habits (Bird, 1988:445). If there is a high level of intention, it is more likely that the behaviour will result (Ajzen, 1991:181). People that are more confident, independent and ready to take risks normally possess greater intention towards becoming entrepreneurs (Autio et al., 2001:146).

The choice of starting a new business and being an entrepreneur involves extreme intentional preparation, planning and thinking (Autio et al., 2001:146). Researchers like Van Gelderen et al. (2008:541) and, Armitage and Conner (2001:471) affirm that in other practical scenarios, intentions are great behaviour predictors. Entrepreneurial intention can be controlled by individuals and the environment.

2.8 ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION MODELS

This section explores the entrepreneurial intention models.
2.8.1 Entrepreneurial intention models background

During the eighties and nineties, six models in the entrepreneurial intention field were developed in an attempt to better understand the entrepreneurial phenomenon. Guerrero et al. (2008:36-38) provided the following breakdown:

- **Entrepreneurial Event Model** (Shapero, 1982). This model argues that the interaction between initiatives, abilities, management, relative autonomy and risk can better explain the event of creating a new business. It is also considered the first model.

- **Theory of Planned Behaviour** (Ajzen, 1991). This model explains that behaviour can be well predicted by intention and that any behaviour involves some sort of planning.

- **Entrepreneurial Attitude Orientation** (Robinson et al., 1991). This model explores an entrepreneur’s attitude using reactions such as “affective, cognitive or conative”, and sub scales such as “achievement, self-esteem, personal control and innovation”. Guerrero et al. (2008:37) described “the attitude of the entrepreneur with more than personality and demographic characteristics”.

- **Basic Intention Model** (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). This model explains that behaviour and attitudes influence the intentional process of starting a business. It investigates the relationship between attitudes and intention towards entrepreneurship.

- **Entrepreneurial Potential Model** (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994). This model is rooted in the previously developed models of Shapero (1982) and Ajzen (1991). Krueger and Brazeal supported their verification and proof from the enterprise development and corporate venture viewpoints.

- **Davidsson’s Model** (Davidsson, 1995a, b). This model explains that people can be attracted to self-employment due to the economic-psychological aspects. The model states that intention is controlled and motivated by the current situation and general attitudes. It is also considered the last model.

For the purpose of this research, not all the entrepreneurial intention models mentioned above are explored, but only two dominant models, which are the Shapero and Sokol’s Entrepreneurial Event model (SEE) and the Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). These two models are discussed in the following section.
2.8.2 **Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Shapero and Sokol’s Entrepreneurial Event model (SEE)**

Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Shapero and Sokol’s Entrepreneurial Event model (SEE) are the main models used to explain entrepreneurial intentions. Miralles *et al.* (2012:482) state that these two theories have a lot of explanatory power compared to other theories. The models make it easier to understand why one would prefer entrepreneurship as a career. Moreover, they have a predictive power in foretelling whether or not one will take the entrepreneurial path in the near future.

Krueger *et al.* (2000:419) identified an overlap between the TPB and the SEE on two elements of entrepreneurial intention as publicised by scholars. First, Shapero and Sokol’s construct of perceived feasibility is reported to be related to Ajzen’s perceived behavioural control and both constructs are believed to be linked to perceived self-efficacy. Secondly, Shapero and Sokol’s perceived desirability is reported to be equivalent to Ajzen’s determinant of attitude towards the behaviour of entrepreneurs (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994:96). Therefore, it can be concluded that the TPB and SEE models can be combined into one model productively, in an attempt to predict the intention to be self-employed (Iakovleva & Kolvereid, 2009:66). Table 2.4 provides a relationship between Shapero and Sokol’s SEE model, and Ajzen’s TPB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shapero and Sokol’s Model</th>
<th>Ajzen’s theory of planned behaviour</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception of desirability of entrepreneurship</td>
<td>Attitudes toward conduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subjective norms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of feasibility of entrepreneurship</td>
<td>Perceived control of behaviour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Díaz-Casero *et al.* (2012:60)

2.8.3 **Shapero and Sokol’s model of the ‘Entrepreneurial Event’ (SEE)**

Shapero and Sokol’s SEE model proposes that entrepreneurial intentions can be projected from perceived desirability, perceived feasibility as well as from the propensity to act (Krueger *et al.*, 2000:412). In addition, the SEE model assumes that inertia (a tendency to remain unchanged) controls human behaviour up until something displaces or interferes with that inertia (Wang *et
According to Liñán (2004:7), this model suggests that the desire to carry-out the behaviour develops from the interaction between cultural, situational and social influences.

Figure 2.2 provides an illustration of the Shapero and Sokol’s SEE model.

![Shapero’s Entrepreneurial Event (Shapero and Sokol 1982)](image)

**Figure 2.2 Shapero’s Entrepreneurial Event (Shapero and Sokol 1982)**

**Source:** Adapted from Krueger (1993:7)

In the SEE model, an entrepreneurial result is most likely to show clearly when individuals feel attracted to the action of starting a business, have insights that they are capable of starting a business individually and have an inclination to act on their own choices. According to Wang *et al.* (2011:36), Shapero and Sokol (1982) view the entrepreneurial procedure as an event that is activated by some displacements and these displacements are called trigger events. The researchers also argue that the most commonly noticed trigger events are those displacements which are job-related. McStay (2008:32) maintains that displacement acts as a catalyst for a behaviour change. This displacement can either be a positive displacement, such as receiving some financial support or a negative displacement, such as losing a job or going through a
entrepreneurial intention

divorce. Hence, either way, it can pull or push an individual to self-employment. The predictive validity of the SEE model was confirmed by the findings of Krueger et al. (2000:424).

2.8.4 Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

The TPB proposes three theoretically independent causes of intentions, namely, perceived behavioural control, subjective norms and attitude towards the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991:188). This theory further explains that a person’s intention to start a business can be predicted with great accuracy from these determinants (Ajzen, 2012:376). The TPB antecedents as identified by Ajzen and Cote (2008:301) are:

- **Attitude towards the behaviour**, as the first antecedent, is described as the degree to which an individual has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or judgement of the behaviour required to start a business (Ajzen & Cote, 2008:301). In this instance, there is a higher possibility of an individual who prefers starting a business if they believe that there are more advantages than disadvantages that come with an entrepreneurial career.

- The second antecedent, **subjective norms** refers to the people’s perceptions about the approval or disapproval, of individuals who are close to them regarding the setting up of a business venture (Ajzen, 1991:188). Example: If an individual’s family (e.g. parents, spouse etc.) disapprove of his/her idea of becoming an entrepreneur, there are slim chances of that individual starting a business.

- The third factor which is **perceived behavioural control** refers to the level of self-efficacy or capability to perform the action (Ajzen & Cote, 2008:301). Actually, it is the perceived simplicity or complexity of the behavioural performance. Example: If an individual feels and believes that they have what it takes to start a business, the chances are higher for them to end-up starting one in the near future because they believe in themselves.

The only excellent predictors of planned behaviour are intentions (Krueger, 1993:5). The TPB is diagrammatically shown in Figure 2.3.
Figure 2.3  Theory of Planned Behaviour

Source: Adapted from Ajzen (1991:182)

According to Ajzen and Cote (2008:302), the backgrounds of entrepreneurial intention are also induced by behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs. The actions of individuals are influenced by the beliefs they have concerning factors that may simplify or hinder the behaviour performance. This process is illustrated in the following, Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4  Theory of Planned Behaviour: Behaviour as a function of beliefs

Source: Díaz-Casero et al. (2012:59)

The TPB has been validated in several studies from the time it was introduced. Some of these studies focused on the growth intentions (Douglas, 2013:633), the growth decision (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2003:1307) and the intention to start a business (Krueger et al., 2000:411; Liñán & Chen, 2009:593; Liñán et al., 2011:187; Nishimura & Tristán, 2011:55; García-Rodríguez et al., 2013:1). Autio et al. (2001:157), Liñán and Chen (2006:14) and Liñán et al. (2011:203) found that subjective norms have an indirect influence on entrepreneurial intention and it can only
affect entrepreneurial intention through attitudes toward behaviour and perceived behavioural control. These findings resonate with those of Krueger et al. (2000:424); Oruoch (2006:29); Li (2007:456); Nishimura and Tristán (2011:67) and Garcia-Rodríguez et al. (2013:1). However, other studies have reported the direct influence of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intention, therefore, fully supporting the TPB in terms of the three antecedents of entrepreneurial intention and these include those by Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999:278); Gird and Bagraim (2008:717); Basu and Virick (2008:84); Engle et al. (2010:50); Mueller (2011:66); Iakovleva et al. (2011:353); Angriawan et al. (2012:1) and Otuya et al. (2013:132).

The TPB was also used to forecast employment status intentions among business undergraduate students (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006:866). In addition, the TPB and its predecessor, the theory of reasoned action were applied to multiple and diverse scenarios. These settings include the prediction of consumer behaviour, job searching behaviour, participation and voting in elections, cheating and lying, shoplifting, weight loss and class attendance (Ajzen, 1991:190). The following section provides a discussion on the three independent, determining factors of intentions in the TPB.

2.8.4.1 Attitude towards the behaviour

Attitudes are referred to as an individual’s opinions and beliefs concerning personal attractiveness towards behaviour which is related to personal influences on expected outcomes. Ajzen and Fishbein (2000:216) define attitude as an individual’s sensation of desirability toward different stimulus objects. Ajzen (1991:188) referred to attitude towards the behaviour as the extent to which a person places a positive or negative value on the behaviour. Li (2007:452) also described it as the individual’s desire to be self-employed. Individuals’ attitudes are influenced by the higher status they get if they become entrepreneurs and whether there are opportunities for them to start a business. The opinions about implications of risk, income and independence of performing certain behaviour influences an individual’s attitudes, as claimed by Douglas and Shepherd (2002:81) and, Ajzen and Fishbein (2005:193). These implications of behaviour can involve costs and benefits, behavioural beliefs or outcome expectations (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005:193).

Various studies have examined how noticeable beliefs or apparent outcomes of entrepreneurship influence the intention of starting a business (Ajzen, 2001:35; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005:193). People’s entrepreneurial intentions are motivated by the particular benefits that an individual can
get from an entrepreneurial profession (Volery et al., 2013:433). Choo and Wong (2006:60) state that the intention to start a business is inspired by intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Significantly beliefs stimulate attitudes towards becoming an entrepreneur and these beliefs include self-realisation, financial opportunity, independence, and authority (Fretschner & Weber, 2013:423). Self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions are closely linked to family security, income and independence (Vanevenhoven & Liguori, 2013:320). The study done by Schwarz et al. (2009:286) found that perceived University support, money, change, competitiveness and attitudes towards becoming an entrepreneur greatly inspire students’ intention of starting a business.

One normally follows an entrepreneurial career if one is more attracted to self-employment than to being employed elsewhere (Segal et al., 2005:42). Moreover, individuals decide to be entrepreneurs because of the mental benefits and satisfaction that come with entrepreneurship (Douglas & Fitzsimmons, 2013:124). However, people can have negative attitudes towards entrepreneurship if they see other entrepreneurs going through some hardships and this can result in low entrepreneurial intentions (Douglas & Fitzsimmons, 2013:124). Individuals with greater expectations of entrepreneurial outcomes most probably have greater entrepreneurial intentions and hence become entrepreneurs.

2.8.4.2 Subjective norms

Subjective norms are also called social norms which refer to the people’s perceptions about the approval or disapproval by individuals who are close to them of the performance of certain behaviour. This raises the question of whether to execute the behaviour or not (Ajzen, 1991:188). Krueger et al. (2000:417) defined subjective norms as people’s opinions concerning beliefs, values and norms believed by the individuals who are important to them or those individuals they respect, and the people’s wish to conform to those norms. Entrepreneurial behaviour can be influenced by important people such as close friends, an individual’s parents, family members, co-workers, spouse or even professionals. People are most expected to have entrepreneurship intentions if they have any relationships with other entrepreneurs.

Subjective norm’s relevance as an entrepreneurial intention predictor has been investigated by numerous researchers. Some researchers including Krueger et al. (2000:422); Autio et al. (2001:157) and Liñán (2004:16) found that subjective norm is not a major factor when it comes to forecasting entrepreneurial intention. Other scholars even totally abandoned the subjective
norm variable as a measure and predictor of entrepreneurial intention. Subjective norm is not an individual variable, meaning it can be used in connection with other variables and can be useful as a facilitator of relationships between other variables like attitude towards behaviour and perceived behavioural control. Krueger et al. (2000:423) found that the major relationship between perceived behavioural control and attitude towards behaviour links with subjective norms. Liñán (2004:17) found that there is a major relationship connecting attitude towards the behaviour and the subjective norm. On the other hand, other authors found that there is no major relationship between subjective norm and attitude towards behaviour (Krueger et al., 2000:423; Autio et al., 2001:156).

However, the significance of subjective norm in predicting entrepreneurial intention was stressed by some researchers such as Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999:277) and Kolveried and Isaksen (2006:882). Moreover, a number of studies supported the effect of subjective norms on intention to start a business and these studies include those undertaken by Souitaris et al. (2007:585) and, Gird and Bagraim (2008:717). The results of these studies assume that increased social pressure on intentions to start a business can be experienced when people believe that their peers think they should perform the behaviour, and also if these peers are involved in similar behaviour. The more the support one can get from those close to the entrepreneur about the behaviour, the more entrepreneurial intentions they can have (Yordanova & Tarrazon, 2010:256). On the other hand, the more the individuals perceive that peers disapprove of the performance; they will not consider performing the behaviour. Kolveried and Isaksen (2006:882) found that there is a major relationship between subjective norms and self-employed intention on Norwegian business founders. Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999:278) also found that there is a direct noteworthy connection between subjective norm and self-employed intention by first-year undergraduate Russian students. Individuals’ perceptions are also influenced positively in terms of the behaviour’s attraction, perceived desirability and the individual’s abilities to accomplish the performance (Oruoch, 2006:3). Therefore, if important people, who are close to an individual, support the entrepreneurial behaviour, that individual normally reflects strong entrepreneurial intentions.

In addition, there are clashes of views concerning subjective norms as a measure of entrepreneurial intentions due to differences in the element of national culture and the place where the research was conducted (Ajzen, 2001:48; Begley & Tan, 2001:549; Kristiansen & Indarti, 2004:74). Begley and Tan, (2001:549) affirm that collectivist culture is more likely to be
influenced by subjective norms more than individualist culture from their research when they compared Anglo-Saxon and East Asia countries. Similarly, the family background can also influence subjective norms in motivating entrepreneurial intentions (Basu & Virick, 2008:83). Therefore, it is evident that, many factors influence subjective norms and its significance in predicting intention.

It is unclear just how effective subjective norms are as a predictor of entrepreneurial intention (Liñán & Chen, 2009:594). Different views on whether to accept or to reject subjective norms as a measure of entrepreneurial intention can clearly be shown by different authors’ results in Table 2.5.

**Table 2.5 Past research results on subjective norm**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Relationship of Subjective Norm with Entrepreneurial Intention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reitan</td>
<td>Where do we learn that entrepreneurship is feasible, desirable, and/or profitable?</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolvereid</td>
<td>Prediction of Employment Status Choice Intentions</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolvereid and Tkachev</td>
<td>Self-employment intentions among Russian students</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud</td>
<td>Competing Models of Entrepreneurial Intentions</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autio, Keeley, Klofsten, Parker and Hay</td>
<td>Entrepreneurial Intent among Students in Scandinavia and in the USA</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peterman and Kennedy</td>
<td>Enterprise Education: Influencing Students’ Perceptions of Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Not included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veciana, Aponte and Urbano</td>
<td>University Students” Attitudes Towards Entrepreneurship: A Two Countries Comparison</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Not Included</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liñán</td>
<td>Intention-based models of entrepreneurship education.</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Insignificant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolvereid and Isaksen</td>
<td>New business start-up and subsequent entry into self-employment</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Adapted from Ni (2012:23-24)
2.8.4.3 Perceived behavioural control

The apparent easiness or struggle involved in certain behaviour refers to perceived behavioural control as defined by Ajzen (1991:188). Perceived behavioural control refers to the judgement of the extent in which one is skilled enough to perform a specific behaviour. It is influenced by a number of factors, of which some follow. Firstly, control beliefs regarding the existence of factors that may enable or hinder behaviour performance regulate perceived behavioural control (Ajzen & Cote, 2008:303). In addition, the extent to which somebody is in control of the situation can clearly be shown by intention and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991:185). Moreover, if people in the society value and approve the entrepreneurial behaviour, it is probable that an individual will feel that they have the ability to perform the behaviour (Kautonen et al., 2013:699). Furthermore, individuals with past self-employment knowledge are most likely to have enhanced entrepreneurial intentions as claimed by Gird and Bagraim (2008:718) and, Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2013:127). According to Ajzen (1991:184), there are noteworthy similarities between perceived behavioural control and the theory of perceived self-efficacy by Bandura (1977:191). Bandura (1982:122) posits that perceived self-efficacy deals with perceptions about an individual’s accuracy in undertaking the performance of certain behaviour.

Uygun and Kasimoglu (2013:32) found that entrepreneurial intentions are influenced positively by expertise in a certain sector as it raises entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Moreover, there are also findings that entrepreneurial intentions are increased if one has role models who are entrepreneurial, because that improves one’s self-efficacy (Barnir et al., 2011:289; Uygun & Kasimoglu, 2013:34). According to Ramos-Rodríguez et al. (2010:576), there is a positive relationship between people’s beliefs that they have the capabilities of starting a business, that they have entrepreneurial role models, and the ability to identify business opportunities.

Entrepreneurship education is also found to have certain influence on entrepreneurial intention. Basu and Virick (2008:82) found that some past entrepreneurship education exposure increases perceived behavioural control. Bandura (1993:117) stated that since entrepreneurship education increases the self-efficacy of students, their know-how and understanding, it will definitely lead to enhanced entrepreneurial intention. Moreover, one’s past knowledge and skills in entrepreneurship gives them self-confidence about capability and therefore increases their entrepreneurial intention.
From the literature, it is concluded that in order to encourage entrepreneurial intention, it must be possible to access those organisations which provide entrepreneurial support, such as Universities. This can be further facilitated by providing entrepreneurs networking platforms and by making them easily accessible to students. All these efforts can later result in improved perceived competences in starting a business and hence higher entrepreneurial intentions. Therefore, individuals who believe they have the skills and the abilities to start a business, they are most likely to have higher entrepreneurial intentions.

2.9 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 2

In this chapter, a review of literature was presented. It provided a theoretical background that includes the definition of the significant variables related to the study. Discussion of past research, highlighting their important findings was also undertaken regarding entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intention. It included the definition and characteristics of an entrepreneur, discussion of entrepreneurship and an exposition of entrepreneurship education. Moreover, the relationship between gender and entrepreneurship, as well as between culture and entrepreneurship was explored. The chapter closed by fully discussing some models on which this study is based. The next chapter provides a detailed discussion of the research methodology of this study.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

“Research methodology is a systematic way to solve a problem. It is also defined as the study of methods by which knowledge is gained” (Rajasekar et al., 2006:5)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on reviewing the literature on entrepreneurship and a discussion of relevant models of entrepreneurial intention. This chapter aims to provide the researcher with a map of how to go about testing the study hypotheses. Furthermore, it provides detailed descriptions of the geographical location in which the study was conducted; the population and the sample size for this study. The procedures taken to ensure reliability and validity of the study were also discussed. The chapter begins with a detailed description of the research design and follows with the approach, strategies and the instruments used in the study and concludes with the analysis procedures followed.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Thomas (2010:308), research design is the research logic that clearly shows a picture of procedures involved in conducting a research study. The research design can be referred to as a planned outline of how to execute the research with the aim of getting valid data for solving a problem in question. It links the theoretical assumptions to the data collection procedure. Kent (1993:5) states that three types of research designs are commonly used and these are descriptive research, exploratory research and causal research.

According to Zikmund et al. (2007:21), descriptive statistics are employed when a detailed description and explanation is necessary. Exploratory research can be done if there is no clear problem definition. In the case of examining a cause-effect relationship, casual research can be employed.

A descriptive research design was used in this study. It was employed to achieve the study objective to compare entrepreneurial intentions of Generation Y students in South Africa with students in Zimbabwe. According to Thomas (2010:310), ‘descriptive’ as an approach examines broad details describing the occurrence, situation or subject in question. It focuses on the
description of the present phenomena. It explains the current situations or opinions instead of the causes of such situations or opinions.

A survey approach was used in this study to collect data from the target population, by means of a structured, self-administered questionnaire. A survey is suitable in the collection of the data, for the purpose of describing and defining a population that is difficult to observe because of its size (Mouton, 1996:232). A survey can collect data from a sample through self-reports (Polit & Hungler, 1993:148). A survey does have a number of advantages such as; it being excellent as a means of collecting descriptive data, it is relatively inexpensive and it has the ability to cover many topics. However, its disadvantages include possible bias in responses, unwillingness to respond to sensitive issues and lack of in-depth responses, although a general picture might be provided (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:266).

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Research methods are commonly classified into quantitative and qualitative approaches (Amaratunga et al., 2002:19). “Qualitative inquiry applies to situations where relevant variables producing an outcome are not apparent or where the numbers of subjects or outcomes under study are insufficient for statistical analysis” (Lakshman et al., 2000:371). This method can be used in cases where quality is important and data are non-numerically presented. By comparison, “Quantitative methods examine the effects of specified circumstances (independent variable) on an outcome of interest (dependent variable), in ways that can be expressed numerically” (Lakshman et al., 2000:369). In this case, the method applies in cases which can be expressed in quantities and data are numerically presented. Differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods are presented in Table 3.1.

This study employed a quantitative approach. According to Burns and Grove (1993:777), quantitative research involves an objective, formal and logical procedure to define and examine relationships between dependent and independent variables. This approach was accepted and employed because of the specific advantages it has to offer, namely, it is easy, time saving and cost-effective. Moreover, quantitative approaches provide accuracy and a potential for publication. It also offers prestige and trustworthiness to the study (Kayrooz & Trevitt, 2005:114-115). However, there are also drawbacks to this specific approach. There are doubts if the results will be the same in reality, because certain results are based on a controlled setting. In
addition, the reason for the occurrence might not be clearly shown from the results (Gunter, 2002:225).

Table 3.1 Distinction between qualitative and quantitative research methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concerned with understanding</td>
<td>Concerned with discovering facts about social phenomena</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>human behaviour from the informant’s perspective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumes a dynamic and negotiated reality</td>
<td>Assumes a fixed and measurable reality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodological</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data are collected through</td>
<td>Data are collected through measuring things</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participation observation and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interviews</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data are analysed by themes from</td>
<td>Data are analysed through numerical comparisons and statistical inferences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>descriptions by informants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data are reported in the language of the informant</td>
<td>Data are reported through statistical analysis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Minichiello et al. (1990:5).

3.4 SAMPLING STRATEGY

The sampling strategy employed in this study is discussed in this section. According to Malhotra and Birks (2007:406), sampling refers to a systematic process that comprises the following: target population definition, sampling frame determination, sampling technique selection, sample size determination, actual collection of data and sample validation.

3.4.1 Defining the target population

According to Burns and Grove (1993:779), Martins et al. (1996:251) and, Churchill and Iacobucci (2009:282), a population refers to all components (objects, individuals and events) that fit the sample standards to be included in the study. According to Zikmund (2003:292), it is essential to define the target population because it gives the researcher direction on where appropriate data can be collected.
The population was referred to as the Generation Y students of the North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus (South Africa) and Great Zimbabwe University, Masvingo Campus (Zimbabwe). These were full-time students registered at two public higher education institutions, one situated in South Africa and the other in Zimbabwe, during the academic year of 2014. The population involved both male and female students who were doing their undergraduate studies in business-related courses. The study focused on students pursuing business related courses because, business related courses normally involve entrepreneurial programmes which inspire entrepreneurial attitudes. At the North-West University, the students were from the Economic and Information Technology Faculty, while at the Great Zimbabwe University, the students were those from the Commerce Faculty.

3.4.2 Sample and sampling method

According to Mouton (1996:132), a sample refers to elements selected for the aim of identifying or examining something concerning the total population from which the elements were drawn. In addition, it is a group of elements taking part or participating in the study.

According to Malhotra (2010:376), there are two regular classifications of sampling methods. These methods are probability sampling which can also be called random sampling and non-probability sampling which can be also called non-random sampling. In probability sampling the researcher is sure of the chances of each population member to be selected as part of the sample and these members normally pose a non-zero chance to be selected. The selection of each element is independent from the selection of other elements. On the other hand, in non-probability sampling the researcher does not have the knowledge of each population member’s chance to be selected as part of the sample (Malhotra, 2010:376; Wagner et al., 2012:92). The choice of a sampling method rests on the study goal. Figure 3.1 presents these sampling methods.
Each of these sampling methods has certain advantages and disadvantages (refer to Table 3.2). Probability sampling allows the sample results to be generalized to the population. However, it is expensive and is not easy to execute, compared to non-probability sampling. This is the reason why the study followed a non-probability sampling method (Wagner et al., 2012:92).

### Table 3.2 Advantages and disadvantages of probability and non-probability sampling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Probability Sampling</th>
<th>Non-probability Sampling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Advantages</strong></td>
<td>Avoids selection bias</td>
<td>Control over selection process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enables generalizations from the sample to the wider population</td>
<td>Inclusion of important political actors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disadvantages</strong></td>
<td>Risks omitting important respondents through chance</td>
<td>Greater scope for selection bias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited potential to generalize from the sample to the wider population</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Tansey (2007:769)
Non-probability sampling is cheaper and simple. However, this sampling method’s results can only be limited to the elements involved in the sample and cannot be generalized to the whole population.

The different types of non-probability sampling methods are discussed below.

3.4.2.1 Convenience sampling

Convenience sampling can also be referred to as accidental or availability sampling. In this sampling type the researcher makes use of those respondents who are readily available. In this sampling form, the researcher does this, irrespective of subject characteristics.

3.4.2.2 Snowball sampling

The snowball sampling can also be referred to as a chain-referral sampling method. In this form of sampling the researcher identifies primary respondents who are relevant to the study. The researcher goes-on to ask those primary respondents to identify and recommend other possible subjects with similar characteristics to add to the primary respondents.

3.4.2.3 Judgement sampling

Judgemental sampling can also be referred to as purposive sampling. This type of sampling is when the researcher selects elements subjectively. The researcher’s understanding of the population gives overall guidance to the selection process of choosing those subjects appropriate for the study. The research objectives also serve as a guide when the researcher chooses the subjects.

3.4.2.4 Quota sampling

Quota sampling is the combination of convenience and judgement sampling. This one serves to overcome convenience and judgement drawbacks. This type of sampling is used to make sure a certain population segment is included.

A convenience sampling method was used and 400 students were selected from the two institutions, 200 from each. This type of sampling method was used because it made it easier to access the students, as they were readily available at the right place and time. The study followed a single cross-sectional design, because data was collected from each of the sample groups only once (Malhotra, 2010:108).
The study made use of a non-probability, convenience sampling method as it was difficult to obtain a comprehensive sampling frame for the study. In addition, it was difficult for the researcher to employ a probability sampling technique as students were approached during their non-contact times in both locations (South Africa and Zimbabwe) which required extensive travelling between both campuses due to their geographical locations.

### 3.4.3 Sample size

In determining the sample size for the study, the researcher can follow and use the sample size for a similar study (Israel, 1992:2). The studies by Kristiansen and Indarti (2004:64) used a total sample of 251 students, comparing Norway (n=121) and Indonesia (n=130), Gurel et al. (2010:646) used 409 students from the UK and Turkey as their sample. Liñán et al. (2005:8) used a sample of 354 students from two universities in Spain, Hmieleski and Corbett (2006:45) used a sample of 430 students, and Gürol and Atsan (2006:25) used a sample of 400 students from two Turkish universities. These studies were used as guidelines on the sample size of this study. Therefore, 400 students were surveyed, with 200 students enrolled at the North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus and 200 students enrolled at the Great Zimbabwe University. Based on the above sample sizes a total of 400 students were deemed appropriate for this study.

### 3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The data collection methods employed in this study are discussed in this section.

#### 3.5.1 Measuring instrument and data collection method

In descriptive research, primary data can be collected either through observation methods, through personal interviews methods or through questionnaire methods. An observation method is followed when the investigator gathers data by just observing the respondent, without talking to the respondent or asking any questions. A personal interview is the use of oral-verbal incentives to ask questions and getting responses in the form of oral-verbal answers (Malhotra & Birks, 2007:267) The questionnaire method involves a number of questions typed or printed on a form on which respondents answer the questions on their own (Kothari, 2004:100; Malhotra & Birks, 2007:269).

A questionnaire is a measuring instrument comprising questions developed and directed to respondents (Giesen et al., 2012:7). A self-administered questionnaire refers to a survey in which
it is the responsibility of a respondent to read and to answer the questions from the researcher (Zikmund, 2003:158). This common measuring instrument is considered very important to understand the prevailing phenomena. Other advantages of the questionnaire are; it makes it easier for coding, exploring and analysing the data. In addition, it is also less time consuming, relatively easy, and cheap and it is simpler to use when dealing with larger samples.

This research made use of a self-administered questionnaire to collect the data. The researcher collected data until 200 fully completed questionnaires from each university were realised.

3.5.2 Questionnaire design

Questionnaire design refers to the formulation process of the questionnaire writing, layout and format (Giesen et al., 2012:7). The researcher must design a questionnaire that is reliable and able to produce meaningful results (Kothari, 2004:103).

According to Kothari (2004:103), the researcher needs to decide whether to use close-ended questions or open-ended questions when designing a questionnaire. Close-ended questions, also known as fixed alternative questions or multiple choice questions are those questions in which the respondent is provided with alternative possible answers from which to choose one answer. Conversely, open-ended questions refer to questions that allow respondents to provide the answers in their own words, hence encouraging free thought. These are the best to use in the exploration of complex issues (Falthzik & Carroll, 1971:1121; Carey et al., 1996:1; Kothari, 2004:103).

For the purpose of this research, closed-ended questions were used. Close-ended questions are time-efficient in answering and analysis. However, close-ended questions “put answers in people’s mouths”, instead of them giving their opinions (Kothari, 2004:103). On the other hand, with open-ended questions, the respondents are offered freedom of providing answers in their own words. However, as a drawback of open-ended questions, it is difficult to interpret and to compare the responses, especially where some interviewer bias is involved (Falthzik & Carroll, 1971:1121).

The questionnaire used for this study was an adapted version of the Entrepreneurial Intention Questionnaire (EIQ), developed in 2009 by Liñán and Chen (2009:612). They developed this questionnaire as a standard for measuring entrepreneurial intentions and its antecedents. The questionnaire comprised 6 sections – see Appendix 1. The questionnaire was developed in the
English language for both samples. It also included a covering letter, requesting students to participate in the study, explaining study purposes and providing instructions on how to answer the various sections of the questionnaire. The cover letter also emphasises issues of confidentiality and anonymity. The cover letter is considered an essential part of the questionnaire.

3.5.3 Questionnaire format

Babbie (2013:237) states that a questionnaire must not be cluttered, but must be clear. A well-formatted questionnaire is easier to administer, easier to answer and produces quality answers. It also gives a good impression about the researcher; hence, respondents will most probably take the administration seriously. However, a poor questionnaire format may lead to respondents missing questions or even end-up throwing the questionnaire away due to frustration. Similarly, the appearance of the questionnaire questions influence the responses (Fanning, 2005:1). Therefore, it is very important for the researcher to consider questionnaire format and to try by all practicable means to develop an excellently formatted questionnaire.

Different scales can be used in formulating questions. Kumar (2014:204) states that the three most frequently employed methods of attitudinal scaling are the Likert scale, the Thurstone and the Guttman scale. Firstly, a Likert scale is also referred to as the summated rating scale and requires a respondent to choose a preference that best describes his/her judgement (Kumar, 2014:204). According to Aaker and Day (1990:284), a Likert scale is a scale on which a respondent is supposed to indicate a degree of disagreement or agreement with a range of statements presented. Secondly, a Thurstone scale is also referred to as the equal-appearing intervals scale and deals with weights or values of each statement presented. Ratings that determine the weight of items are assigned by a group of judges (Kumar, 2014:208). Thirdly, a Guttman scale is centred on the impression that anybody who provides a strong indicator of a certain variable will also provide the weaker indicators of the same variable, but in different scenarios (Babbie, 2013:219).

For the purpose of this study, Likert scales were employed in Sections A to E because their construction and administration are relatively easy. The scale items ranged from 1 to 6, with 1 denoting strongly disagree and 6 denoting strongly agree.
3.5.4 Questionnaire layout

Layout can be achieved by proper display of information in various sections of a questionnaire (Malhotra, 2010:352). According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010:125), a questionnaire should be laid out in a neat format to increase the response rate.

The questionnaire comprised six sections, namely sections A, B, C, D, E and F. Sections A to E measured constructs of the TPB based on 6-point Likert scales. Section A aimed at understanding personal attitudes towards being an entrepreneur, based on the students’ view of an entrepreneur. Section B questions were directed to measure subjective norms on whether or not people close to an individual would support the decision of becoming an entrepreneur. Section C questions focused on perceived behavioural control, which is the apparent capability they think they have. Section D measured entrepreneurial intentions of students. Section E focused on understanding entrepreneurial education of these students and whether they have taken any entrepreneurial education and how their education can influence their entrepreneurial intention. Section F questions sought information on demographic data such as age, gender, race and level of education.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Between the second week of August and second week of September 2014, data were collected from Generation Y students of the North-West University in South Africa and those of the Great Zimbabwe University in Zimbabwe through a questionnaire. The researcher personally distributed the questionnaire to the students to complete. The researcher chose to access students during their non-contact periods (free periods).

3.7 DATA PREPARATION

Pink (2010:1) outlined some steps which are vital when preparing data appropriately. These data preparation steps are elucidated as follows:

3.7.1 Questionnaire checking

Questionnaire checking includes excluding unacceptable, improper questionnaires, due to the way they were filled in. These questionnaires may not have been fully completed, or had missing pages, were filled in differently from what the instructions say or the respondent did not meet the requirements in some other way. The researcher personally performed questionnaire checking.
3.7.2 Editing

Editing aims at correcting unreadable, incomplete, unreliable and unclear answers. Data editing can be achieved by checking every questionnaire for any omissions, errors and inconsistency. The researcher personally edited the questionnaire.

3.7.3 Coding

Coding usually involves the allocation of numeric codes to responses. According to Polit and Beck (2004:33), coding refers to the transformation of verbal data into the data that is numerical. For the purpose of this study questionnaire responses were assigned a specific number, for example from section A to E codes were assigned from 1 to 6 depending on students’ responses to each question. Coding was done by the Institution statistician (North-West University).

3.7.4 Data capturing

Data capturing is the entering of coded data directly into the system package. The researcher made use of a personal computer to enter data into an Excel spreadsheet. The captured data was finally checked by the supervisor for any mistakes and then exported to the SPSS programme.

3.8 RELIABILITY

Reliability means the “research tool is consistent and stable, hence predictable and accurate” (Kumar, 2014:215). According to Babbie (2013:188), reliability refers to a specific measuring technique applied on a certain object or subject at different times and still producing the same results. DeVon et al. (2007:160) state that reliability can be defined in terms of either sustainability, reliability or equivalence reliability.

There are three methods to test reliability and these are test-retest reliability, alternative reliability and internal consistency reliability. Test-retest reliability applies if a certain test is repeated on the same respondents at different times. Alternative reliability tests the scores reliability through diverse instrument versions (DeVon et al., 2007:160). This research study used internal consistency reliability testing (Cronbach’s alpha). According to DeVon et al. (2007:160), internal consistency shows whether the questions on a measuring instrument fit together well, theoretically. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is the most widely employed statistic to confirm internal consistency reliability. Coefficient alpha measures responses’ internal consistency of a particular sample (DeVon et al., 2007:160). Most researchers state that...
Cronbach’s alpha values with more than 0.70 are acceptable (Hair et al., 1998:134; Malhotra, 2010:319). Therefore, this study accepted all variables greater than or equal to 0.70.

3.9 PILOT TESTING

A pilot study is defined as the complete study's mini-version and is a vital component of an excellent study design (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002:33). According to Brancato et al. (2006:86), questionnaire quality is vital, as it affects the data quality. Therefore, it is important to do a pilot test as it reduces errors which are complicated or even impossible to correct at a later stage (Brancato et al., 2006:86). A pilot test for reliability was conducted on 50 students. Details of the pilot study are discussed in Chapter 4.

3.10 VALIDITY

Validity refers to the dependability and whether the research results are credible, persuasive and, well-grounded (Polit & Beck, 2004:36). Fraenkel and Wallen (2008:147) define validity as “the appropriateness, meaningfulness, correctness, and usefulness of the inference a researcher makes”. Face, content, convergent and predictive validity was used in the study.

3.10.1 Face validity

According to Babbie (2013:191), face validity relates to an instrument’s quality which on initial review appears as sound and proper to measure a particular variable. Two academics and the supervisor with experience in questionnaire construction performed the face validity of the measuring instrument.

3.10.2 Content validity

Content validity measures the extent to which a questionnaire represents all the items presented in an orderly manner to measure the concept in question (Adcock & Collier, 2001:537). According to Babbie (2013:192), content validity refers to the extent to which the instrument explains a variety of meanings involved in a concept. Content validity seeks answers to a question: Does the measuring instrument fully measure all the constructs it is supposed to measure? This research made use of the EIQ and the EIQ items which were also used in past studies. Initially, pilot testing was undertaken to establish the content validity of the measuring instrument by examining the item-total correlations among the scale items that made up a construct.
3.10.3 Convergent validity

Convergent validity is established when factors that are supposed to be related are tested and are found to be related (Shuttleworth, 2008:2). Convergent validity was tested using correlation coefficients in order to establish the strength of linear relationship between two factors. The results of the correlation analysis are presented in Chapter 4.

3.10.4 Predictive validity

Predictive validity concerns the extent to which a measured variable is able to predict some future/state with which it is associated (Webb, 2002). Predictive validity was measured through regression analysis. For example, personal attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control were used in this study as predictors of entrepreneurial intention. Chapter 4 reports on the results of the regression analysis.

3.11 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Babbie (2013:460) states that there two statistical types, namely, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics refers to a standard used for describing data in controllable ways, whereas, inferential statistics can be defined as a statistical measure that enables an investigator to make sense, assume and make some conclusions or declarations about, normally a large population from which a sample was drawn. Brief discussions of only those descriptive and inferential statistics used in the study are discussed.

3.11.1 Frequency distributions and means

For the purpose of this study, descriptive statistics were used mainly for data analysis in the form of frequency distributions and means. A frequency distribution shows how popular the values of the variables are among the units of analysis (Malhotra, 2010:486). Frequency distribution produces a table of frequency counts, percentages and cumulative percentages for all the variables associated with that variable.

Means refer to a measure of central tendency which can be calculated by totalling all the observations under study and dividing it by the total number of observations (Zikmund, 2006:404). Frequency distributions and means were computed for section A to E of the questionnaire and reported in different sections in Chapter 4 of the study. In some instances the frequency distributions were transformed into figures and tables.
3.11.2 **T-Statistics to establish difference in group means**

T-tests are used when two independent groups need to be compared based on their average score on a quantitative variable. The research study made use of T-tests to compare means of two sample groups of South African and Zimbabwean students. These results are reported on in Chapter 4.

3.11.3 **Correlations**

Correlations measure the strength of a linear relationship between two quantitative variables.

According to Bernstein *et al.* (2007:238), correlation analysis scrutinises the relationship between variables. Correlations were performed in this study, to examine the linear relationship between different constructs of the measuring instrument. These results are discussed in Chapter 4.

3.11.4 **Regression analysis**

According to Sykes (1993:1), regression analysis refers to a statistical technique employed to test the relationship between variables. The purpose of regression analysis is to find out the significant impact or influence of independent variables on the dependent variable. Regression analysis was performed to establish the predictive relationship between personal attitudes, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control on entrepreneurial intentions. Details of the results of the regression analysis are reported in Chapter 4.

3.12 **SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 3**

This chapter detailed the research methodology used in this study. It began with the discussion of the research design, approach and strategies used in the study. In addition, the chapter includes sections about the study sample, measuring instrument, data collection procedures and analysis methods. A brief discussion of the data coding and pilot testing was presented. In this study, a descriptive research design was employed and analysed by descriptive and inferential statistics. The methods used to determine the reliability and validity were explained. The next chapter is the discussion of the results of the analysed data.
CHAPTER 4
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on describing the methodology of the study. It served as a map on how to go about answering the research objectives and hypothesis. This chapter focuses on analysing and interpreting the findings of this study. Descriptive statistics, t-tests, correlations and regression analysis are reported on and interpreted. Finally, reliability and validity issues are discussed in this chapter.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PILOT STUDY

In the pilot study, the reliability of the constructs was tested by means of internal consistency, using Cronbach’s alpha coefficients. Only sections A to E were tested for reliability as they were the underlying constructs used in the study. Section F was not subjected to Cronbach alpha reliability test as this related to general and demographic information of respondents. All other constructs (section A to E) were deemed reliable and acceptable for both samples as the coefficient reliability values were all > 0.800 which is above the acceptable value of 0.700 (Maree, 2011:216). No changes were thus made to the questionnaire for the main survey.

4.3 RESPONSE RATE

A total of 200 questionnaires for each university were collected from each sample. A total of 400 questionnaires were used for analysis, therefore, there was 100% response rate. The frequency distributions are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Frequency distribution of the samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>Valid Per cent</th>
<th>Cumulative Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN SURVEY FINDINGS

The analysis of the data and its discussion is presented in the following order in the remaining sections of this chapter. A descriptive analysis of the general and demographic information of respondents (Section F) is presented followed by an analysis of each construct (Section A to E of the questionnaire). An analysis of the means of the constructs, t-test to establish group differences, correlations, regression analysis and testing of the hypothesis is thereafter presented. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument.

4.4.1 General and demographic profile of respondents

Section F required respondents to provide responses to general and demographic information. The results are reported in the foregoing section.

4.4.1.1 Choice of being a salaried worker or an entrepreneur

Table 4.2 reports on students’ preference to be a salaried worker as compared to being an entrepreneur.

Table 4.2 Salaried worker versus an entrepreneur

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (F1)</th>
<th>South African sample</th>
<th>Zimbabwean sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salaried worker</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show that the majority of the students preferred to be salaried workers. These represented 53% (n=107) in the South African sample, compared to those who preferred being an entrepreneur at 47% (n=93). In the Zimbabwean sample the majority of the students also preferred to be a salaried worker at 51% (n=103) compared to those who preferred being an entrepreneur at 49% (n=97).

The preferences in both the samples to be a salaried worker may be attributed to students’ desire for security that comes with being a salaried worker such as a guarantee of being given a regular income and benefits that accrue such as medical aid and retirement provisions.
4.4.1.2 Age

Figure 4.1 reports on the age of respondents. The majority of South African respondents were between 21 and 23 years of age (59.5%; n=119), followed by those who were 20 years and younger (35%; n=70), those between 24 and 26 years (3.5%; n=7), those between 27 and 29 years (1%; n=2) and those who were 30 years and older (0.5%; n=1). However, one respondent did not disclose his/her age category (0.5%; n=1).

Similarly, the Zimbabwean sample had more respondents between 21 and 23 years of age (43%; n=86), followed by those who were 20 years and younger (38.5%; n=77), those between 24 and 26 (15.5%; n=31), those between 27 and 29 (1.5%; n=3) and those who were 30 years and older (1.5%; n=3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Category</th>
<th>Zim Age</th>
<th>SA Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 and older</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-29 years old</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-26 years old</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-23 years old</td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 and younger</td>
<td></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1 Age distribution

4.4.1.3 Gender

Figure 4.2 report on the gender of respondents. In the South African sample, 42% (n=84) were male students, 57% (n=114) were female students and 1% (n=2) did not indicate their gender.

In the Zimbabwean sample, 56% (n=112) were male students and 44% (n=88) were female students.
4.4.1.4 Race

Figure 4.3 reports on the race of students. South African sample had mostly Black respondents (73.5%; n=147), followed by Whites (23%; n=46) and very few Coloureds (2%; n=4). Asian/Indian(s) were close to unnoticed, (0.5%; n=1). One student selected the other option (0.5%; n=1) and one student did not disclose his/her race (0.5%; n=1).

The Zimbabwean sample was constituted mostly of Black respondents (99%; n=198) with one Coloured student (0.5%; n=1). One student selected the other option (0.5%; n=1) with no specification of their race.
4.4.1.5 Year of study

Figure 4.4 reports on the year of study of respondents. Most of South African respondents were in their 3rd year of study (34.5%; n=69), followed by those who were 2nd year students (32.5%; n=65), those who were in their 1st year (18%; n=36) and 4th year student (14.5%; n=29). One student did not indicate the year of study (0.5%; n=1).

The Zimbabwean sample consisted mostly of 1st year students (47.5%; n=95, followed by those who were in their 2nd year (32%; n=64) and those who were in their 4th year (19%; n=38). Three students did not indicate their year of study. The Zimbabwean sample did not have any 3rd year students, because at that level of study they are on attachment (work related study), doing their practical training. Three students did not indicate their year of study (1.5%; n=3).

![Year of Study](image)

**Figure 4.4  Year of study**

4.5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EACH CONSTRUCT

The foregoing section provides a descriptive analysis for Sections A to E for the samples. The results are reported using the overall means regarding each construct and the highest means of the variable that constitute the construct.

4.5.1 Section A: Personal attitudes towards being an entrepreneur

Table 4.3 provides a descriptive overview on the personal attitudes of students towards being an entrepreneur.
Table 4.3  Personal attitudes towards being an entrepreneur

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More advantages than disadvantages</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship is an attractive career</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With opportunity/resource-will start business</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entail great satisfaction</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would rather be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean/Standard deviation</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale rating: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Slightly disagree; 4= Slightly agree; 5= Agree; 6= Strongly agree

The overall means for both the samples seem to show that university students do possess personal attitudes towards being an entrepreneur (M=4.80 and M= 4.90 respectively) as all the means are more than 4 this indicates agreement to the various statements. Further there are very few differences in the means in both the samples for the various variables that made up the construct. The highest mean for both the samples was M=5.26 and M=5.29 whereby students indicated that if they had the opportunity and resources, they would start a business.

4.5.2  Section B: Subjective norm

Table 4.4 provides an overview of the students’ responses to the role played by family, friends and colleagues (subjective norms) when deciding to become an entrepreneur.
Table 4.4 The role of subjective norm towards being an entrepreneur

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close friends will approve my decision</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends will approve my decision</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleagues will approve my decision</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean/Standard deviation</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale rating: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Slightly disagree; 4= Slightly agree; 5= Agree; 6= Strongly agree

The overall means for both the samples indicate that subjective norms do play a role among students towards being an entrepreneur. The means for both the samples are M=4.95 and M=4.70 respectively, indicating that family, friends and colleagues play a part among students in their decision-making process towards starting a business. In the South African sample, it seems that close family strongly influences students’ entrepreneurial decisions. In the Zimbabwean sample, colleagues seem to be a stronger influencing factor of students’ entrepreneurial decisions.

4.5.3 Section C: Perceived behavioural control

Table 4.5 provides an analysis of perceived behavioural control regarding students’ in starting a business.
Table 4.5 Perceived behavioural control towards being an entrepreneur

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To start a business/keep it working is easy</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepared to start a viable business</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can control the creation process of a new business</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know the practical details of a new business</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know how to develop an entrepreneurial project</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I tried a business, I would have a high probability of success</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean/Standard deviation</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale rating: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Slightly disagree; 4= Slightly agree; 5= Agree; 6= Strongly agree

The overall means for both the samples were fairly close to each other (M=4.29 and M=4.27 respectively) providing an indication that South African and Zimbabwean students do have the necessary behavioural control in terms of their self-efficacy in starting their own business. The highest mean for both the samples (M=4.51 and M=4.81) indicates that if students started a business they would have a high probability of success.

4.5.4 Section D: Entrepreneurial intention

Table 4.6 outlines students’ responses on whether or not students have seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur. In the South African sample, the results show that 64% (n=128) of the respondents agreed that (Yes), they have seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur, while, 36% (n=72) disagreed indicating that (No), they have never seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur. In the Zimbabwean sample, the results show that 63% (n=126) of the students agreed that (Yes), they have seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur, while, 37% (n=74) disagreed that (No), they have never seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur.
Table 4.6  Have you ever seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur?</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7 provides an overview of students’ entrepreneurial intentions.

Table 4.7  Students entrepreneurial intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ready to do anything legal to become an entrepreneur</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional goal is to become an entrepreneur</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make every effort to start my own business</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determined to create a business in the future</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seriously thought of starting a business</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm intention to start a business</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean/Standard deviation</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale rating: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Slightly disagree; 4= Slightly agree; 5= Agree; 6= Strongly agree

The overall means for both the samples were M=4.49 and M=4.77 respectively providing an indication that South African and Zimbabwean students do have the necessary intentions to start their own businesses. It seems that students’ propensity among the South African sample is slightly higher when compared to their Zimbabwean counterparts. The highest mean for both the samples (M=4.88 and M=5.09) indicates that students are determined to start their own businesses.
Section E: Entrepreneurial education

The first question solicited information from students on whether or not they have taken any course or module that could be considered as entrepreneurial education. Table 4.8 provides an overview of the responses. In the South African sample, the results show that 80% (n=160) of the respondents agreed that (Yes), they have been exposed to a course/module that could be considered entrepreneurial education, while, 20% (n=40) disagreed that (No), they were not exposed to entrepreneurial education. In the Zimbabwean sample, the results show that 55% (n=110) of the students agreed that (Yes), they have been exposed to a course/module that could be considered as entrepreneurial education, while, 45% (n=90) disagreed that (No), they have never been exposed to entrepreneurial education.

Table 4.8 Exposure to entrepreneurial education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever taken a course/module that could be considered as entrepreneurial education?</td>
<td>160 80 40 20 110 55 90 45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.9 provides an overview of entrepreneurial education in both the samples.
Table 4.9  Students entrepreneurial education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
<th>Zimbabwe</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge about the entrepreneurial environment</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurial characteristics</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The preference to become an entrepreneur</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The necessary abilities to be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The intentions to be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall mean/Standard deviation</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale rating: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Slightly disagree; 4= Slightly agree; 5= Agree; 6= Strongly agree

Overall, the results show that means of M= 4.81 and M= 4.92 respectively for both samples. The majority of the students who have been exposed to some form of entrepreneurial education seem to agree that the course/module has helped them to acquire knowledge about the entrepreneurial environment, entrepreneurial characteristics and skills required to become an entrepreneur.

4.6  GROUP STATISTICS

4.6.1  T-test to establish group differences

The t-test was performed to identify whether or not there were significant differences between perceptions of South African and Zimbabwean students towards entrepreneurial intention, personal attitudes, subjective norm and entrepreneurial education. These results are reported in the foregoing section.

4.6.1.1  Differences between South African and Zimbabwean students regarding entrepreneurship

Tables 4.10 and 4.11 report on the differences between the South African and Zimbabwean samples. There are significant differences found in three out of five constructs tested, between South African and Zimbabwean students.
Table 4.10  Construct mean values of South African and Zimbabwean sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of personal attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>4.8370</td>
<td>.88450</td>
<td>.06254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>4.9580</td>
<td>1.06692</td>
<td>.07544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of subjective norm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>4.9533</td>
<td>.90228</td>
<td>.06380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>4.7067</td>
<td>1.21665</td>
<td>.08603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of behavioural control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>4.2950</td>
<td>.78950</td>
<td>.05583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>4.0792</td>
<td>1.04317</td>
<td>.07376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial intention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>4.4992</td>
<td>1.10838</td>
<td>.07837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>4.7725</td>
<td>1.05808</td>
<td>.07482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>3.9430</td>
<td>2.08747</td>
<td>.14761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>2.7317</td>
<td>2.48611</td>
<td>.17624</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant differences were found on subjective norm (p= 0.001; < 0.05), perceived behavioural control (p= 0.000; < 0.05) and entrepreneurial education (p= 0.000; < 0.05) between South African and Zimbabwean students.

Table 4.11  T-test: group differences between South African and Zimbabwean sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>do</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of personal attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.254</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>-1.235</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance not assumed</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of subjective norm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.764</td>
<td>.001*</td>
<td>2.303</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance not assumed</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of behavioural control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.388</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance not assumed</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial intention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.827</td>
<td>.364</td>
<td>-2.523</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance not assumed</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>54.045</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>5.272</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance not assumed</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the 0.05 level
On examination of the means the South African students (M=4.95) seem to be more influenced by subjective norms compared to their Zimbabwean counterparts (M=4.70) with regard to their entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, South African students seem to be influenced by behavioural control (M=4.29) compared to Zimbabwean students (M=4.07). Finally, the South African students seem to vary significantly (M=3.94) with their Zimbabwean counterparts (M=2.73) when it comes to entrepreneurial education. It therefore seems that entrepreneurial education is more pronounced among the South African students compared to Zimbabwean students.

The reasons for insufficient entrepreneurship education in Zimbabwe, compared to South Africa might be because, in Zimbabwe, entrepreneurship courses were introduced, but they are not compulsory for every student. Secondly, there is no specific budget set aside for entrepreneurship education at institutions. Most institutions also do not have entrepreneurship centres on campus to guide and support students. In addition, lack of business infrastructure discouraged the great results of entrepreneurship education. Moreover, the entrepreneurship trainers and lecturers lack expertise in entrepreneurship training (Mauchi et al., 2011:1310). All these identified challenges seem to be rooted on the unpleasant situation in Zimbabwe where funding seems to be a challenge in every sector.

4.7 CORRELATIONS

Correlation analysis was undertaken to examine the linear relationship between variables in the study.

4.7.1 Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and personal attitudes

The results of the correlation analysis are reported in Table 4.12. The correlation results show that there is a strong positive relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and personal attitudes of students in both the samples (r= 0.734; p= 0.000; <0.05 and r= 0.643; p=0.000; <0.05). These results are consistent with the findings of some other researchers who found that there is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and personal attitudes (Souitaris et al., 2007:582; Volery & Mueller, 2006:7). Wu and Wu (2008:762) also tested this relationship on Chinese University students and they found that personal attitudes positively influence entrepreneurial intention and they are the second best predictor after personal attitudes. Similarly, personal attitudes’ total effect on entrepreneurial intention of Portuguese students have been found to be positive (do Paço et al., 2011:100).
Table 4.12  Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and personal attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial intention</th>
<th>Mean value of total score of personal attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>Zim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.7.2  Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and subjective norm

Table 4.13 reports on the correlation analysis between entrepreneurial intentions and subjective norm. The correlation analysis shows a significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and subjective norm for both South African and Zimbabwean samples (r= 0.147; p= 0.037; < 0.05 and r= 0.414; p= 0.000; < 0.05). These results are consistent with the findings of some other scholars (Souitaris et al., 2007:582). In a German sample of students, Volery and Mueller (2006:7) found that subjective norms have a significant positive relationship with entrepreneurial intention, although its influence is minimal, compared to personal attitudes and perceived behavioural control. However, the relationship between entrepreneurial intention and subjective norm was stronger among Zimbabwean students compared to South African students. The difference between these two samples might be because Zimbabwean students value the opinions of influential people such as parents and peers in their lives about their career choices (Fini et al., 2012:391).
Table 4.13 Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and subjective norm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial intention</th>
<th>Mean value of total score of subjective norms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.147*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.414*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.7.3 Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and perceived behavioural control

Table 4.14 reports on the correlations between entrepreneurial intention and perceived behavioural control. There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and perceived behavioural control for both South African and Zimbabwean samples (r = 0.511; p = 0.000; p < 0.05; and r = 0.512; p = 0.000; p< 0.05). These results are consistent with the findings of some researchers who found that there is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and behavioural control (Souitaris et al., 2007:582; Wu & Wu, 2008:768). A test on Russian students confirmed a significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and perceived behavioural control (Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999:278). Liñán and Chen’s (2009:610) study on Taiwanese respondents also found that there is a positive association between perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention.
Table 4.14  Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and behavioural control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial intention</th>
<th>Spearman’s rho</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Zim</th>
<th>Mean value of total score of behavioural control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.511*</td>
<td>.512*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Mean value of total score of behavioural control       | Correlation Coefficient | .511*  | .512*   | 1.000   | 1.000                                           |
|                                                        | Sig. (2-tailed)         | .000   | .000    |         |                                                 |
|                                                        | N                        | 200    | 200     | 200     | 200                                             |

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.7.4  Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial education

Table 4.15 reports on the correlations between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial education. There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial education for both South African and Zimbabwean samples (r= 0.429; p= 0.000; p<0.05; and r= 0.321; p= 0.000; p<0.05). However, in the South African sample, the relationship seems stronger when compared to the Zimbabwean sample. Positive associations were also found in previous studies between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial education (Raposo & do Paço, 2011:456). Kolvereid and Moen (1997:154) found that among Norwegian business school students, those who took entrepreneurship as a major are likely to possess more entrepreneurial intention and showed propensity to venture into new businesses creation. Moreover, a study on Malaysian students attested that participation in entrepreneurship education inclined students towards an entrepreneurial career path (Keat et al., 2011:215).
Table 4.15  Correlation between entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial intention</th>
<th>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spearman’s rho</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial intention</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value of total score of entrepreneurial education</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.429*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.8  REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Table 4.16 presents the regression model summary of entrepreneurial intention with personal attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control as predictors of entrepreneurial intention in the South African sample.

Table 4.16:  Regression- personal attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control as predictors of entrepreneurial intention of South African students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1 summary: (entrepreneurial intentions)</th>
<th>dependent variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tol.</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Personal attitudes</td>
<td></td>
<td>.627</td>
<td>11.882</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.732</td>
<td>1.366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: Subjective norms</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.096</td>
<td>-2.047</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td>1.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3: Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td></td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>5.170</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.749</td>
<td>1.335</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R=0.775; R squared=0.601; Adjusted R squared=0.595; Sig P<0.01; Tol=Tolerance; VIF-Variance inflation factor

In model 1, personal attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural were entered into the regression model as independent variables and entrepreneurial intentions was entered as the
dependent variable. Furthermore, regression analysis shows an adjusted $R^2 = 0.595$, denoting that approximately 60% of entrepreneurial intentions of South African students can be accounted for by their personal attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. On examination of the beta coefficients, personal attitudes ($\beta = 0.627$) and perceived behavioural control ($\beta = 0.270$) seem to positively contribute to behavioural intentions. However, subjective norms do not seem to play an influencing role among South African students in engaging in entrepreneurial intentions.

Table 4.17, model 2 presents the regression model summary of personal attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control as predictors of entrepreneurial intention in the Zimbabwean sample. The regression analysis show an adjusted $R^2 = 0.584$, denoting that approximately 59% of entrepreneurial intentions of Zimbabwean students can be accounted for by their personal attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Personal attitudes ($\beta = 0.547$) and perceived behavioural control ($\beta = 0.294$) positively predict students entrepreneurial intentions while subjective norms do not seem to impact on students entrepreneurial intentions.

Table 4.17: **Regression- personal attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control as predictors of entrepreneurial intention of Zimbabwean students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model summary: dependent variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>$T$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tol</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Personal attitudes</td>
<td>.547</td>
<td>10.235</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.733</td>
<td>1.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: Subjective norms</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>1.705</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.814</td>
<td>1.228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3: Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>5.663</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td>1.290</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R=.768; R squared=.590; Adjusted R squared=.584; Sig. P<0.01; Tol=Tolerance; VIF=Variance inflation factor

In both the samples, it therefore seems that personal attitudes and perceived behavioural control of students appear to be strong predictors of students’ entrepreneurial intentions.

These results resonate positively with findings from previous researchers (Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999:277; Autio et al., 2001:156-157; Volery & Mueller, 2006:7-8; Wu & Wu, 2008:762; Liñán & Chen, 2009:607; do Paço et al., 2011:31; Fini et al., 2012:402), whereby it was revealed that attitudes toward entrepreneurial behaviour and perceived behaviour control are strong predictors
of entrepreneurial intentions, whereas subjective norms did not manage to reach the acceptable statistical significance (path not significant) in predicting entrepreneurial intentions.

Even in different cultures, attitudes toward entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial perceived behavioural control were found to be robust in predicting students’ entrepreneurial intentions (Autio et al., 2001:145) and subjective norms seemed least to predict entrepreneurial intentions of students of different cultures (Moriano et al., 2011:16). Conversely, the common weak predicting effect of subjective norms towards entrepreneurial intentions may be because youth career decisions are mostly centred on personal attitudes and perceived behavioural control, not subjective norms (Moriano et al., 2011:16).

Steenekamp et al. (2011:53) are of the view that early formal entrepreneurship education affects the attitudes of students, directing them towards certain future careers. Taatila (2010:48) affirms that ‘without an entrepreneurial attitude societies can stagnate, which can hinder the long-term growth and prosperity of a region’. This noticeably specifies the importance of entrepreneurship in society, but also the nation’s global competitiveness and economic development.

Table 4.18 presents the regression model 3 summary of entrepreneurial education as a predictor of entrepreneurial intention in the South African sample.

**Table 4.18 Regression - entrepreneurship education as a predictor of entrepreneurial intention of South African students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 3 summary : dependent variable (entrepreneurial intentions)</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tol.</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Entrepreneurship education</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>3.951</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R=.270; R squared=.073; Adjusted R squared=.068; Sig 0.01; Tol=Tolerance; VIF=Variance inflation factor

The regression analysis reports an adjusted $R^2 = 0.068$, indicating that approximately 7% of entrepreneurial intentions of South African students are predicted through their entrepreneurship education. The beta coefficient ($\beta=0.270$) implies that entrepreneurship education positively impacts on entrepreneurial intentions of South African students.

Table 4.19, model 4 presents the regression model summary of entrepreneurial intention with entrepreneurship education as a predictor of entrepreneurial intention in the Zimbabwean sample.
Table 4.19  Regression - entrepreneurship education as a predictor of entrepreneurial intention of Zimbabwean students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 4 summary: dependent variable (entrepreneurial intentions)</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tol.</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Entrepreneurship education</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>4.114</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R=.281; R squared=.079; Adjusted R squared=.074; Sig 0.01; Tol =Tolerance; VIF=Variance inflation factor

In the Zimbabwean sample the regression analysis shows an adjusted $R^2 =0.074$, indicating that approximately 7% of entrepreneurial intentions can be predicted by entrepreneurship education. The beta coefficient ($\beta=0.281$) indicates that entrepreneurship education positively and significantly impacts on entrepreneurial intentions of students.

The education system was found to have had an influence on entrepreneurial intention. The results show that students in both countries, South Africa and Zimbabwe are motivated by entrepreneurial education, although the system is not currently fully supporting entrepreneurial education. With the little attention given to entrepreneurial education in these countries, South Africa (mean= 3.9430) appears to be better than Zimbabwe (mean= 2.7317) in terms of their entrepreneurial education.

Overall, these results are not surprising as Kolvereid and Moen (1997:154), Keat et al. (2011:207) and Zhang et al. (2014:638) also found in their studies that entrepreneurial education positively influences students’ entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, entrepreneurship education could be pertinent in generating a positive entrepreneurial culture in the society and instrumental in generating students’ career choices (Kolvereid & Moen, 1997:159; Peterman & Kennedy, 2003:129; Liñán, 2008:267). Moreover, previous research has demonstrated that those students who are exposed to entrepreneurial education show a greater propensity to engage in entrepreneurial activities and choose entrepreneurship as a career choice (Gorman et al., 1997:67; Volery & Mueller, 2006:13).

However it should be noted that there is a low current predictive influence in both samples of students. This may point to the content of entrepreneurial-related programmes in both countries. Traditionally higher education institutions have not prepared students for self-employment as a career option, resulting in the loss of many potential entrepreneurs (Matsheke et al., 2015:4). As a result of this educational bias and lack of information on self-employment as a career option, many HEIs are now offering courses related to entrepreneurship and small business through...
business schools and short learning programmes (SLP’s). However, “… the skills traditionally taught in business schools are essential but not sufficient to make a successful entrepreneur” (Rae, 1997:199). Furthermore, different countries are at different pedagogical levels of entrepreneurship education, hence different outcomes from this education (Haase & Lautenschläger, 2011:158).

4.9 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The regression analysis results are used to assess the hypothesis. The results of the hypothesis are reported in Tables 4.16, 4.17, 4.18 and Table 4.19. The outcome of the hypothesis is reported in Table 4.20.

Table 4.16 (model 1) and Table 4.17 (model 2) provided an exposition for both samples of the predictive relationship between personal attributes and entrepreneurial intentions (H1), subjective norms with entrepreneurial intentions (H2) and perceived behavioural control with entrepreneurial intentions (H3). The results supported the first hypothesis H1, showing that there is a significant relationship between personal attitudes and entrepreneurial intention for both samples. The second hypothesis H2 was also not supported, that there is no significant relationship (p value >0.01) for both the samples. The third hypothesis H3 was supported showing that perceived behavioural control significantly predicts entrepreneurial intention.

Table 4.18 (model 3) and Table 4.19 (model 4) provided an exposition for both samples on the predictive relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, the fourth hypothesis (H4) sought to establish the predictive relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions. A significant relationship (p value <0.01) between the constructs was found for both the samples. The fourth hypothesis is therefore supported.
Table 4.20  Hypotheses testing of entrepreneurial intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path Hypothesis</th>
<th>South African Results</th>
<th>Zimbabwean Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>EI</td>
<td>H1: supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H1: supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN</td>
<td>EI</td>
<td>H2: not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H2: not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBC</td>
<td>EI</td>
<td>H3: supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H3: supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>EI</td>
<td>H4: supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H4: supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PA= Personal attitude  
EI= Entrepreneurial intention  
SN= Subjective norm  
PBC= Perceived behavioural control  
EE= Entrepreneurial education

4.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The reliability values for both the samples are reported in Table 4.21. The reliability of the constructs in this study was tested through internal consistency, using Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients. Variables in sections A to E were tested for reliability. All the six constructs (attitudes towards being an entrepreneur, subjective norms, behavioural control, entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial education) were deemed reliable and acceptable because the coefficient values were all more than 0.80 which is above the acceptable value, 0.70 (Maree, 2011:216).

Table 4.21  Reliability of the constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>South African sample</th>
<th>Zimbabwean sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No of items</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section A: Attitudes towards being an entrepreneur</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section B: Subjective norms</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section C: Perceived behavioural control</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section D: Entrepreneurial intention</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section E: Entrepreneurial education</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.897</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Initially face validity was assessed through a review of the questionnaire with experts in the field together with the supervisor. During this process the questionnaire was scrutinised through subjective evaluation and minor changes were made.
Content validity was assessed to check if the scale variables adequately covered the construct under investigation. This was done by an extensive review of literature and by the item-total correlation of each scale item that comprised the construct. Scale items showing item-total correlations <0.50 were deleted from the scales. However, no item-total correlations were <0.50 (no items deleted).

The study constructs were assessed for convergent validity through correlation analysis. Moderate to strong correlations were observed between entrepreneurial intentions and personal attitudes, entrepreneurial intentions and behavioural control, entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurship education thus confirming the convergent validity of the measuring instrument.

Predictive validity was assessed through the computation of regression analysis. In this study personal attitudes and behavioural control showed a strong and significant (p<0.01) predictive relationship with entrepreneurial intentions. Further, entrepreneurship education showed a strong predictive relationship (p<0.01) with entrepreneurial intentions, thus providing evidence of predictive validity of the measuring instrument.

4.11 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER 4

This chapter reported on and interpreted the empirical study findings by means of tables and figures. All the important data were analysed to answer the research questions and to meet the research objectives. A detailed discussion of the respondents’ demographic profiles, descriptive statistics and correlations and regression analysis of the variables were pursued in this chapter. The results of the hypothesis were presented. Reliability and validity issues were discussed.

Chapter 5 focuses on drawing conclusions, making recommendations, declaring limitations and exploring implications for further research.
CHAPTER 5
OVERVIEW, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reported on the analysis and interpretation of the study findings. This chapter provides an overview of the study and reports on the major findings from which recommendations are suggested. A brief outline of the study contributions, limitations and avenues for future research are also provided.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of the study was to determine differences or similarities of entrepreneurial intentions between Generation Y students from South Africa and Zimbabwe. This section provides a brief overview of the previous chapters.

The problem statement section advocated the need for the study to be conducted on Generation Y students in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The sections that follow provide a synthesis of how the theoretical and empirical objectives were achieved in the study.

5.2.1 Theoretical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical objectives have been formulated for the study as follows:

- conduct a literature review on entrepreneurship in South Africa and Zimbabwe;
- review on the relevant theories underlying entrepreneurial intentions;
- review literature on entrepreneurial education in South Africa and Zimbabwe; and
- review literature on personal attributes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions of university students.

The first theoretical objective was accomplished in Chapter 2 (Section 2.3) of this study where entrepreneurship was defined and its historical views were placed in perspective. From the literature, it was evident that entrepreneurship is the key in driving economies and it is essential for any country to develop and promote it as it boosts the economy, creates employment and contributes to the GDP of a country.
The second theoretical objective was accomplished in Chapter 2 (Section 2.8) where the models and theories were alluded to. Two theories, namely Shapero and Sokol’s model of the Entrepreneurial Event and Ajzen’s theory of planned behaviour were discussed in detail.

The third theoretical objective was accomplished in Chapter 2 (Section 2.4) of this study. In this section entrepreneurship education was defined in detail. Further, the relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intention was elucidated.

The fourth theoretical objective was accomplished in Chapter 2. Personal attributes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control were discussed in Section 2.8 of the study. Entrepreneurial education was discussed in Section 2.4 and entrepreneurial intentions discussed in Section 2.7.

5.2.2 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the primary objective of the study, the empirical objectives were formulated as follows:

- conduct a comparative analysis between South African and Zimbabwean students regarding their personal attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions;
- examine the linear association between personal attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial educations and entrepreneurial intentions;
- examine the predictive relationship between personal attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control with entrepreneurial education; and
- examine the relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions.

The first empirical objective was achieved in Chapter 4 (Section 4.5) whereby a descriptive analysis of each construct was established in terms of the aggregate means. Overall the mean scores show small differences regarding the constructs in both samples. Furthermore, group statistics using t-test (Section 4.6) was undertaken in order to establish whether or not there are any significant differences between South African and Zimbabwean students regarding the following constructs: personal attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intention. Group differences were found between
both the samples with reference to subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial education.

The second empirical objective was achieved in Chapter 4 (Section 4.7). While moderate to strong correlations were found between the constructs, of concern was the relationship between the relationship between subjective norms and perceived behavioural control in the South African sample.

The third empirical objective was addressed in Chapter 4 (Section 4.8) where the predictive relationship between personal attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control with entrepreneurial intention was established. Again subjective norms made an insignificant impact on entrepreneurial intention while personal attitudes and perceived behavioural control positively impacted on entrepreneurial intentions.

The fourth empirical objective was addressed in Chapter 4 (Section 4.8, Table 4.18). Entrepreneurial education was found to significantly influence entrepreneurial intention of students.

5.3 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

In the light of the discussions of the empirical results, the following recommendations are made:

- It has been acknowledged that entrepreneurship is essential to reach high levels of economic growth, to promote innovation and to reduce unemployment rates in developed and developing countries. A revisit of policies in both countries is recommended in order to create opportunities for University students. The opportunities to be created include, granting them bursaries for fully fledged entrepreneurial programmes as encouragement to students. Generation of enthusiasm among students is vital, so that they can pursue a career in entrepreneurship and be motivated to start their own businesses. Financial incentives can also act as entrepreneurial intention motivators. Financial barrier is one of the great entrepreneurial hindrances in African countries. It is very important that required resources are allocated to institutions to support students in their business start-ups.

- Entrepreneurship education should not only be about entrepreneurship, but it should actively promote entrepreneurship in practice. There were differences in entrepreneurship education in both countries. This points to the fact that Universities have their own approach in constructing entrepreneurship module/s or courses. Further evidence shows that the subjects
and skills taught in Universities do not appear to encourage students to become active agents of their own destiny through developing qualities such as independence, creativity, risk-taking, self-motivation and innovation. Further it has been found that Universities through their own curriculums have not prepared students for self-employment as a career option. This is evident from the large number of students who have indicated that they would rather be a salaried worker as opposed to an entrepreneur. Solomon (2007:169) states that entrepreneurship education should produce entrepreneurial founders capable of generating real enterprise growth and wealth. It is therefore recommended that Universities craft courses, programmes and major fields of study that meet the rigors of academia while keeping a reality-based focus on the entrepreneurial climate in the learning experience environment. Hence, a revision of the content of the curriculum is required to further generate an entrepreneurial orientation by including learning outcomes which are about and for entrepreneurship. However, this calls for a holistic approach from all role players with adequate resources made availability. These role players may include, but are not limited to: top management, faculties, local government, businesses and communities (Matsheke et al., 2015:19).

- Governments and policy makers should ensure that public entrepreneurship campaigns are one of their priorities. They need to educate the various communities including students to understand the importance of entrepreneurship and to create awareness even during their public political campaigns. The policy makers need to understand that promoting entrepreneurship is never a waste of resources, but rather a guarantee for the economic development of nations. Entrepreneurship education in both countries should be supported by three pillars; industry, academia and public policy which includes government and government agencies, and funds should be obtained to support these linkages. Such campaigns should include the allocation of resources through various government agencies to students for start-up businesses.

- The regression analysis showed a significant predictive relationship with entrepreneurial intention. Students’ entrepreneurial intention can be improved by conducting regular workshops and seminars where well-known, successful entrepreneurs are invited as guest speakers. By so doing, students can easily be motivated as they can interact with successful entrepreneurs and obtain first-hand business guidance.

- Finally, Universities as institutions can create campus entrepreneur networks linked to the institutional websites. This can make it possible for students with entrepreneurial intention to
connect with entrepreneurs and among themselves. They can even share ideas on such platforms.

5.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study contributes, hopefully, to the body of knowledge in the entrepreneurial intention field. It generated insights, specifically on Generation Y students’ entrepreneurial intention. It clearly revealed the extent of entrepreneurial intention of students in South Africa and of those in Zimbabwe. The study findings can be applied to other society groups besides students. Since the countries of interest are African countries, the study findings can also be applied to other African countries, since they are currently all sailing in the same economic waters (Sachs & Warner (1997:337).

Understanding the current state and extent of entrepreneurial intention of South African and Zimbabwean students may provide an opportunity for policy makers and Universities to find innovative ways to improve these economies. The study provides a deeper understanding of the influence of entrepreneurial education on entrepreneurial intention. The study was conducted in an academic environment and education was found to have an influence on students’ entrepreneurial intention. Finding ways to initiate and improve the education system to enhance the entrepreneurial spirit of students and graduates is important in alleviating the already high levels of unemployment in both countries.

Another contribution of this study is that it confirmed that the application of the TPB is suitable for use in African, developing countries. The study adopted the EIQ measuring instrument grounded on the TPB and it seems to be appropriate for use in developing countries such as South Africa and Zimbabwe.

5.5 LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The research study is not without its limitations. The first limitation of this study was the sample location bias. Generalisation of the results must be viewed with caution, because the study used samples drawn only from two Universities in two countries. Therefore the study results cannot represent the perceptions of all the students in South Africa or in Zimbabwe. Future researchers should draw their sample from more than one University in each country so that further comparisons could be made.
The second limitation of this study was the sample size. The study sample does not represent the population of all Universities in both countries. In South Africa, a sample of 200 students was drawn and the same number was drawn from Zimbabwe. A larger sample size is therefore warranted for future research.

The third limitation of this study was the race bias. The designated respondents did not represent every race fairly. The majority of the respondents were African/Black students in both the samples. Therefore, the study results cannot be representative of all races because some groups were not adequately represented. For example, the study could be expanded to other campuses that contain a more diverse student population.

This study provided a snapshot to students’ entrepreneurial intention as it was located within a quantitative research paradigm. Future research could be extended through a qualitative study or longitudinal study which may generate further information on students’ entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, researchers should test other variables that affect entrepreneurial intention, such as parents’ occupation especially those engaged in family businesses.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Successful entrepreneurship education requires an education approach directed at changing the behaviours and attitudes of students. With entrepreneurship as a pillar and driver of economic development, it is important for different nation’s governments and Universities to find innovative ways to stimulate an entrepreneurial spirit among their students. Such actions will in the long run address problems such as unemployment and poverty. Developing countries like South Africa and Zimbabwe should improve ways to enhance entrepreneurial intention, through their education systems by revisiting the curriculums. Nations can only protect themselves from the dynamic, ever-changing economic situations by having strong entrepreneurial economies that are competitive with other nations.

The study showed that students from both countries possessed entrepreneurial intention, but chose to be salaried workers rather than entrepreneurs. This might be because, since these students are from developing countries, they fear taking risks that are difficult to calculate due to unstable economies. In circumstances where graduate employment projections are never guaranteed, the chance of becoming self-employed remains an employment option in developing countries. Hence, entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial ethos among students should be fostered which may allow graduates to become masters of their own destiny.
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Tau, B.A., 2012. Intentions of students from the North West University to consider entrepreneurship as a career choice. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation- Masters)


Dear student

My name is Esther Marire, a Masters student at the North-West University Vaal Triangle Campus. I am investigating the differences and similarities of entrepreneurial intention between a sample of students in South Africa and those from Zimbabwe. I am requesting your assistance in providing the data for my study.

Kindly complete the questionnaire as honesty and accurately as possible.

Please answer all the questions.

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 the strictest confidence.

Completing the questionnaire should take you approximately 20 minutes.

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

Kindly use either BLACK or BLUE coloured pen in completing this questionnaire.

Thank you  Esther Marire

Email: emarire@gmail.com

Cell: 071 848 2741
## Questionnaire

### Personal attitudes towards being an entrepreneur

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using a cross (X) in the appropriate block where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A1</th>
<th>Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>A career as an entrepreneur is attractive to me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>If I had the opportunity and resources, I would like to start a business</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>Being an entrepreneur would entail great satisfaction for me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Among various options, I would rather be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjective norm

Imagine that you have decided to start your own business. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using a cross (X) in the appropriate block where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B1</th>
<th>My close family will approve my decision.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>My friends will approve my decision.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>My colleagues will approve my decision.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perceived behavioural control

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using a cross (X) in the appropriate block where 1 = Strongly disagree and 5 = Strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C1</th>
<th>To start a business and keep it working would be easy for me.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>I am prepared to start a viable business.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>I can control the creation process of a new business.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>I know the necessary practical details to start a business.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>I know how to develop an entrepreneurial project.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>If I tried to start a business, I would have a high probability of succeeding.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Entrepreneurial Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D1</th>
<th>Have you ever seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using a cross (X) in the appropriate block where 1= Strongly disagree and 5= Strongly agree.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2</td>
<td>I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3</td>
<td>My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D4</td>
<td>I will make every effort to start and run my own business</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D5</td>
<td>I am determined to create a business in the future</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D6</td>
<td>I have thought very seriously of starting a business</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D7</td>
<td>I have the firm intention to start a business some day</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Entrepreneurial Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>E1</th>
<th>Have you taken any course or module that could be considered as entrepreneurship education?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using a cross (X) in the appropriate block where 1= Strongly disagree and 5= Strongly agree.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>Knowledge about the entrepreneurial environment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>Entrepreneurial characteristics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4</td>
<td>The preferences to be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>The necessary abilities to be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E6</td>
<td>The intentions to be an entrepreneur</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**SECTION F: DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

Please mark each question with a cross (X) in the appropriate box.

F1 What would be your first choice?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To be a salaried worker</th>
<th>To be an entrepreneur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

F2 Age [ ] years

F3 Gender [ ] Male [ ] Female

F4 Race [ ] African/Black [ ] Asian/Indian [ ] Coloured [ ] White [ ] Other

F5 In which year of study are you? [ ] 1st [ ] 2nd [ ] 3rd [ ] 4th

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!
### APPENDIX B

**ETHICAL CLEARANCE**

![North-West University logo]

**FACULTY OF ECONOMIC SCIENCES AND INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY**

**ETHICS CLEARANCE DOCUMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dissertation (M)</th>
<th>X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thesis (PhD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SUPERVISOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Leader / Promoter / Author(s)</th>
<th>Prof. C. May</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### STUDENT / AUTHOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>ESTHER MARIRE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student / Staff Number</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered Title of Dissertation or Thesis or Project</td>
<td>A COMPARISON OF ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS OF GENERATION Y STUDENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND ZIMBABWE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title of Article</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>Accounting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### ETHICAL CLEARANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethics clearance number</th>
<th>ECONIT-ECON-2014-012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>24 July 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(of Ethics Sub Committee Meeting)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAIRPERSON: ETHICS COMMITTEE**

**RESEARCH DIRECTOR**
APPENDIX C
GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY PERMISSION REQUEST

North-West University,
Vaal Triangle Campus
PO BOX 1174, Vanderbijlpark
South Africa, 1900
Tel: (016) 910-3111
Fax: (016) 910-3116
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

24 July 2014

Prof P. Gwirayi
Acting Director, Research and Postgraduate Studies
Great Zimbabwe University
Box 1235 Masvingo
Zimbabwe

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY

Dear Prof P. Gwirayi

My name is Esther Marire, and I am a Business Management student at the North-West University, Vaal-Triangle Campus in Gauteng. The research I wish to conduct for my Master’s dissertation involves a comparison of entrepreneurial intentions of Generation Y students in South Africa and Zimbabwe. This project will be conducted under the supervision of Professor Christopher May (NWU Vaal, South Africa).

I am hereby seeking your consent to approach students at your institution, Great Zimbabwe University to participate for this project. I will be doing a quantitative research; therefore, I will make use of questionnaires.
I have provided you with a copy of my dissertation proposal which includes copies of the questionnaire and the ethics checklist from my university.

Upon completion of the study, I undertake to provide the Department of Education with a bound copy of the full research report. If you require any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on +27 718482741 or emarire@gmail.com. Thank you for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

Esther Marire

North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus
APPENDIX D

GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY PERMISSION GRANTED

5 August 2014

Esther Marire
North-West University
Vaal Triangle Campus
P.O. Box 1174, Vanderbijlpark
SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Esther Marire

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH WITH GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY

The above matter refers.

This is to confirm that your request has been approved, but please note that we would request a copy of your findings too.

Wishing you good luck in your studies.

Sincerely

S. Tirivanhu (Ms)
Registrar
APPENDIX E

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

PO Box 263409
Three Rivers
1900
Tel: 083-626-9191
18 November 2016

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have done the statistical analysis for the master's dissertation done by Esther Marire. The title of the dissertation is:

A COMPARISON OF ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS OF GENERATION Y STUDENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA AND ZIMBABWE

The interpretation of the statistical rests with the author of the dissertation.

Yours truly,

[Signature]

Aldine Oosthuizen (MSc)