

EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF SELF-EMPLOYMENT

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I hereby declare that this dissertation submitted is my own independent work and has not been previously submitted by me for a degree at any other university.



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ABSTRACT

The perception that someone has of an entrepreneurial career ultimately influences his/her decision to pursue such a career path. By investigating employees' perceptions of owning a business, this study provides insights regarding the question of why so few South Africans embark on this path. Entrepreneurship is regarded by many as the solution to South Africa's employment and economic problems. As such, an understanding of the reason why some people become entrepreneurs and others do not could provide solutions on how to stimulate entrepreneurship among all South Africans, and hopefully increase the levels of entrepreneurship in the country.

The purpose of the study was to contribute to the field of entrepreneurship by investigating the perceptions and attitudes that employees have regarding an entrepreneurial career, that is, to ask employees what they think having their own business might be like. By investigating these perceptions, the researcher looked for reasons why many individuals remain in the employment of others rather than embarking on an entrepreneurial career, as well as establishing whether these employees had intentions of starting their own businesses. Therefore the primary objective of this study was twofold, namely to establish the perceptions that employees have regarding self-employment, running their own business or following an entrepreneurial career, and to establish the influence of these perceptions on their entrepreneurial intentions.

After conducting a comprehensive literature study and examining the various models of intentions, *attitude towards the behaviour* was identified as having the strongest influence on entrepreneurial intentions. *Attitude towards the behaviour* is the extent to which an individual makes a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question, and additionally is a function of beliefs applicable to the behaviour. *Attitude towards the behaviour* is closely related to *perceived desirability*, and "desirability" is a form of value. More specifically, work values have the propensity to significantly predict career choice. For the purpose of this study, the 14 work values identified by Farrington *et al.* (2011) served as the factors to be investigated in establishing the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.

The independent (work values) and dependent (entrepreneurial intentions) variables investigated in this study were defined and operationalised. Reliable and valid items were sourced from existing studies. Respondents were identified by means of convenience and snowball sampling, and a structured questionnaire was made available to the respondents. The data gathered from the 184 usable questionnaires was subjected to various statistical analyses. The validity and reliability of the measuring instrument were confirmed by means of an exploratory factor analysis and calculating Cronbach-alpha coefficients. Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarise the sample data distribution. Pearson's moment product correlations were calculated to establish the correlations between the various work values and entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, a multiple regression analysis was undertaken to investigate whether relationships existed between the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of several work values and entrepreneurial intentions.

The following work values were identified as influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of employees working in small businesses:

- *Stimulating*
- *Stability and advancement*
- *Flexibility*
- *Autonomy*

The more the work values above were perceived to be experienced when following an entrepreneurial career, the more likely it was that the respondents in this study reported intentions of following such a career.

In order to investigate the influence of the various demographic variables on the independent and dependent variables, an Analysis of Variance was performed. In addition, the post-hoc Bonferroni test was done to identify significant differences between the means scores of the various categories within each demographic variable. The practical significance of these differences was assessed by means of calculating Cohen's d. The results showed a significant positive relationship between the demographic variable *Population group* and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial*

intentions. In addition, relationships were identified between *Population group* and the intrinsic work values *Challenging* and *Stimulating*, the extrinsic-related work values *Financial benefit and security* and *Stability and advancement*, and the social-related work value *Serving the community*. A significant positive relationship was also reported between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and the intrinsic-related work value *Stimulating*, the extrinsic-related work value *Future prospects* and the social-related work value *Serving the community*. The demographic variable *Age* showed a significant positive relationship with the extrinsic-related work value *Financial benefit and security*.

This study has contributed to the field of entrepreneurship research by focusing on employee perceptions of entrepreneurship, and the influence of these perceptions on their intentions to become entrepreneurs. As far as can be established, no other study has adopted this perspective for understanding entrepreneurial behaviour in South Africa or abroad. Furthermore, no study has specifically focused on investigating entrepreneurial intentions among employees of small businesses.

KEYWORDS:

Entrepreneurship, Self-employment, Entrepreneurial career, Entrepreneurial Intentions, Work Values.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Policymakers and academics agree that entrepreneurship is important to the well-being and development of a society (Kelley, Bosma & Amoros, 2011: 12). This is because entrepreneurship creates jobs and is a catalyst for economic growth (Kelley *et al.*, 2011: 12). Entrepreneurs bring new technologies, products and services and create new markets along the way. No field is as dynamic as the field of entrepreneurship (Kaplan & Warren, 2010: 4). Entrepreneurship empowers citizens, generates innovation and changes mind sets. It has the potential to successfully integrate developing countries into a global economy and has a multiplier effect on these developing economies (The Importance of Entrepreneurship for South Africa's Economic Development, 2008). According to Booyens (2011) the positive contribution that entrepreneurship and an entrepreneurial culture have on the economic and social development of a country cannot be overemphasised.

The South African government has long recognised the fundamental contribution that entrepreneurs have on the economic and social development of the nation (Fatoki, 2010: 90). A crucial part of the government's ten year vision for the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa is for the country to become an entrepreneurial nation that rewards and recognises those who see a business opportunity and pursue it (Fatoki, 2010: 90).

Research shows that South Africa has a lower-than-expected entrepreneurial activity rate when compared to other countries with efficiency-driven economies. According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) survey of 2010 (Kelley *et al.*, 2011: 18), the total early stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA) rate scored by South Africa (8.9%) is considerably lower than the average (11.7%) for all other emerging countries. The survey reports that 16.7% of South Africans intend starting their own business; this is lower than the average of 23.2% reported for other efficiency-driven economies. South Africa's lack of improvement in the TEA rate and low

entrepreneurial activity rates suggest that efforts to stimulate entrepreneurship have largely been ineffective (Herrington, Kew & Kew, 2010: 59).

In the State of the Nation address, the President of South Africa stated “we are concerned that unemployment and poverty persist despite the economic growth that South Africa has experienced during the past 10 years” (Jobs: a weighty topic in the Zuma speech, 2011). His concern confirms that efforts to improve and encourage entrepreneurship have so far been ineffective.

Being employed by someone else is the preferred career choice of the majority of South Africans (Van Aardt, Van Aardt & Bezuidenhout, 2000: 4). According to Parr (2007), South Africans who have the potential to become entrepreneurs are either finding it too difficult to recognise opportunities for feasible business ventures, or else are just not choosing to become entrepreneurs. In an attempt to understand why South Africans are not choosing to follow an entrepreneurial career path, this study turns to the intentions-based theories for an answer. According to Ajzen (1991) intention is the best predictor of behaviour. If the factors that influence entrepreneurial intentions are understood, they might explain why so many South Africans are not entrepreneurial.

Increasingly, intentions-based models are being used to explain why some individuals embark on entrepreneurial activity and others do not (Ariff, Bidin, Sharif & Ahmad, 2010; Autio, Keeley, Klofsten; Degeorge & Fayolle, 2008; Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Kolvereid, 1996; Kreuger & Carsrud, 1993). The theory of planned behaviour is one of the most commonly used intentions-based models (Haase & Lautenschläger, 2011; Kuehn, 2008; Leffel & Darling, 2009; Gaddam, 2008).

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is an extension of the theory of reasoned action, focussing on an individual's intention to perform certain behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The stronger the intention to engage in behaviour, the more likely will be the performance of that behaviour (Fayolle & Gailly, 2004). According to the TPB, intentions predict behaviour, and these intentions are predicted by three things: attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norms regarding the behaviour, and the perceived behavioural control over the behaviour. Attitude towards the behaviour is

the personal attitude one has about outcomes of the behaviour. Perceived behavioural control refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour (Urban, Botha & Urban, 2010: 117). Subjective norms refer to the perceived social pressure to perform the behaviour (Norris & Krueger, 2000).

Both international (Pihie, 2009; Lüthje & Franke, 2003) and national studies (Gray, Farrington & Sharp, 2010; Gird & Bagraim, 2008) have shown that attitude towards the behaviour has the strongest influence on entrepreneurial intentions. This refers to how positive a person feels about the behaviour and depends on expectations and beliefs about the personal impact of outcomes resulting from the behaviour. These beliefs are known as "behavioural beliefs". There is consensus that the more positive the attitude of an individual towards the behaviour, the more likely that the behaviour in question will be performed (Kakkonen, 2010; Bergmann, 2002).

Zaidatol (2009: 340) defines attitude towards self-employment as a person's perception of working as the owner of a business, and this is associated with self-employment intentions (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006; Kolvereid, 1996). The theory of planned behaviour states that one's attitude toward an entrepreneurial career or self-employment determines one's intentions to embark on such a career. Attitude is determined by one's beliefs or perceptions about such a career path (Urban, Botha & Urban, 2010: 115).

For South Africa to fully benefit from the contributions that small businesses can make to the economy, entrepreneurship and self-employment should be shown to be highly desirable career options, and South Africans should be encouraged to pursue these (Parr, 2007). To make entrepreneurship a sought-after career, the beliefs and perceptions about starting one's own business should first be established. A person's choice to follow a particular career path is influenced by his/her attitude towards that career, which in turn is influenced by his/her beliefs about the experience. According to Zellweger, Sieger and Halter (2010: 3), one's attitude about performing the behaviour is influenced by perceptions of the personal desirability of performing the behaviour. Related to the desirability of becoming an entrepreneur is the image of an entrepreneur in society. When choosing a career, a person must decide whether the desirability of a specific career option is greater than that of alternative

options (Douglas & Shepherd, 2000). "Desirability" is a form of value (Steel & Konig, 2006), and values are important determinants of behaviour, particularly values that influence work attitudes (Twenge *et al.*, 2010: 19).

"Work values" are the results people want to achieve in their work.. A person's work values are the components of a job which are important to his/her work satisfaction (Twenge *et al.*, 2010: 5; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007: 359). Work values shape employees' perceptions of preference in the workplace, and have a direct influence on employee attitudes, behaviours, job decisions and perceptions (Twenge *et al.*, 2010: 5). Values, and specifically work values, play an important role in career counselling and in the career decision-making process (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007: 359). It is these work values which are considered in this study, in an effort to understand the beliefs, perceptions and subsequent attitudes toward an entrepreneurial career.

The perception that someone has towards an entrepreneurial career ultimately influences his/her decision to pursue such a career path. By investigating employees' perceptions of owning a business, insights will be gained regarding the question of why so few South Africans embark on such a career path.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Job creation and poverty alleviation have been identified as the two most important challenges facing South Africa (Burger, Mahadea & O'Neil, 2004). According to Burger *et al.* (2004: 187), the development of an entrepreneurial culture among South Africans could help to address these challenges.

Harrington and Maas (2006) contend that South Africans lack the entrepreneurial mindset and necessary skills to become entrepreneurs, whereas Parr (2007) argues that South Africans who have the potential to become entrepreneurs are just not choosing to follow this career path. According to Gaddam (2008: 35), scarcely 10 percent of adults are interested in starting a business venture.

As implied by the theory of planned behaviour, an individual's decision to become an entrepreneur is influenced by his/her attitude towards that career, which in turn is influenced by perceptions of whether the experience would be desirable or not. According to Smith-Hunter, DeCasperis and Paul (2009: 26) past research has failed to highlight the role of perceptions on entrepreneurial choices. A void exists in the entrepreneurship literature waiting to be addressed (Smith-Hunter *et al.*, 2009: 26).

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to investigate the perceptions and attitudes that employees have regarding an entrepreneurial career, in other words, to ask employees what they think having their own business might be like. By investigating these perceptions, the researcher looks for reasons why many individuals remain in the employment of others rather than embarking on an entrepreneurial career, as well as to find out whether these employees have intentions of starting their own businesses.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 Primary research objective

The primary objective of this study is to establish the perceptions that employees have regarding self-employment, running their own business or following an entrepreneurial career and to establish the influence of these perceptions on their entrepreneurial intentions. For the purpose of this study employee perceptions of self-employment will be investigated in terms of several workplace values. Workplace values are important determinants of behaviour, particularly values that influence work attitudes (Twenge *et al.*, 2010: 19). According to Twenge *et al.*, (2010: 5), work values shape employees' perceptions of preference in the workplace, and have a direct influence on employee attitudes and perceptions.

1.4.2 Secondary research objective

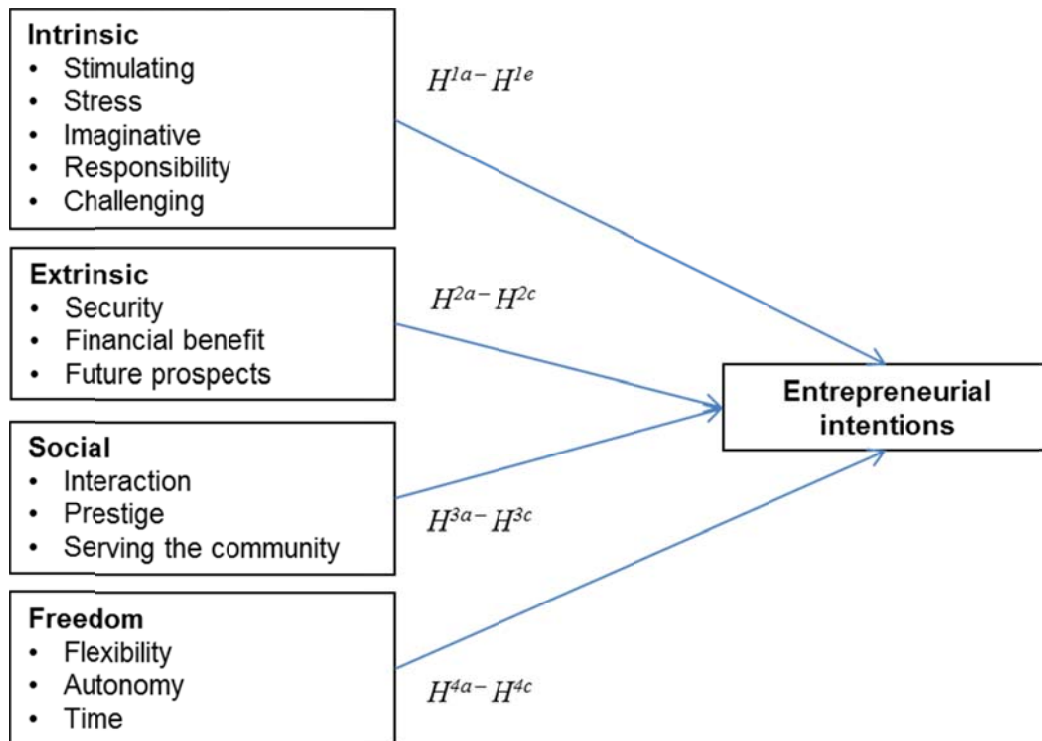
In order to achieve the primary objective of this study, the following secondary objectives are put forward:

- (i) To investigate which research paradigm, research methodology and data collection methods will be most suitable to address the research problem.
- (ii) To undertake an in-depth analysis of secondary sources dealing with various factors influencing an individual's career choice, intentions and work values applicable to an entrepreneurial career.
- (iii) To source primary data from a sample of employees working for small businesses to establish their perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of several work place values.
- (iv) To empirically test whether relationships exist between employees' perceptions of an entrepreneurial career and their intentions of embarking on such a career.
- (v) To empirically test whether relationships exist between selected demographic variables and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- (vi) To empirically test whether relationships exist between selected demographic variables and employee entrepreneurial intentions.
- (vii) To report on the findings and make recommendations for improving people's perceptions of an entrepreneurial career. This could ultimately affect the levels of entrepreneurial activity in South Africa.

1.5 PROPOSED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the proposed theoretical framework several research questions and hypotheses are proposed. These are outlined in the paragraphs below.

Figure 1: Proposed theoretical framework: Factors influencing entrepreneurial intentions.



(Source: Researcher's own construction)

1.5.1 Research questions

Given the purpose and the primary objective of this study, the following research questions are presented:

- (i) Do the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of intrinsic related work values (*Stimulating, Stress, Imaginative, Responsibility and Challenging*) influence the entrepreneurial intentions of employees?
- (ii) Do the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of extrinsic work values (*Security and Financial benefit and Future prospects*) influence the entrepreneurial intentions of employees?

- (iii) Do the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of in terms of social related work value (*Interaction, Prestige and Serving the community*) influence the entrepreneurial intentions of employees?
- (iv) Do the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of freedom related work value (*Flexibility, Autonomy and Time*) influence the entrepreneurial intentions of employees?
- (v) Does a relationship exist between demographic variables and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career?
- (vi) Does a relationship exist between demographic variables and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees?

1.5.2 Research hypothesis

The following hypotheses have been formulated to represent the relationships to be tested in this study:

- H^{1a, 1c-1e}: There is a positive relationship between the perception of the intrinsic related work values (*Stimulating, Stress, Imaginative, Responsibility and Challenging*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{1b}: There is a negative relationship between the perception of the intrinsic related work value, *Stress*, as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{2a-2b}: There is a positive relationship between the perception of the extrinsic related work values (*Security, Financial benefit and Future prospects*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{3a-3c}: There is a positive relationship between the perceptions of the social related work value (*Interaction, Prestige and Serving the community*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{4a-4c}: There is a positive relationship between the perceptions of the freedom related work value (*Flexibility, Autonomy and Time*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

Although the primary objective of this study is to investigate the relationships between work value perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions, the influence of selected demographic variables on perceptions and intentions will also be investigated. The following null-hypotheses are formulated in this regard:

H⁰¹: There is no relationship between demographic variables and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.

H^{a1}: There is a relationship between demographic variables and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.

H⁰²: There is no relationship between demographic variables and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

H^{a2}: There is a relationship between demographic variables and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

To address the objectives of this study, the research strategy will be divided into two main components, namely a secondary and a primary study.

1.6.1 Secondary study

A comprehensive literature search will be conducted to investigate existing perceptions of an entrepreneurial career, factors that influence these perceptions, and ultimately the intentions to become an entrepreneur. International and national data searches will be done at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University library, using databases such as Sabinet databases, Sae publications, Academic source premier, EBSCO host and Google scholar.

1.6.2 Primary research

The primary research will involve four sub-components namely: identifying the most suitable research paradigm, identifying the sample and collecting the data, developing the measuring instrument and analysing the data collected.

1.6.3. Research paradigm

The paradigm employed in this study will be that of the quantitative or positivistic research paradigm. This research paradigm involves the use of structured questions where the response options have been predetermined and a large number of respondents are involved in the study. According to Williams (1998), quantitative research strives to develop knowledge by investigating cause and effect relationships and to predict patterns of behaviour. The aim of this research is to determine the relationship between several independent variables and a dependent variable in the population (Hopkins, 2000).

Statistical analytical methods will be used to interpret the responses and a generalised answer will be formulated. Given the nature of the problem statement and the research objectives in question, the positivistic approach is the most appropriate to gauge the perceptions of employees regarding an entrepreneurial career.

1.6.3 Population, sampling and data collection

The population consisted of all small businesses in the Eastern Cape, whereas the sample consisted of employees from this population. Judgemental and convenience sampling was used to identify employees. Judgemental sampling which is also known as "purposive sampling" refers to choosing a sample based on respondents who are in the best position to provide the information needed for the research. The researcher chooses the sample based on knowledge and judgement (Castillo, 2009). Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where the respondents are chosen in a non-random manner. The members of the population have been chosen based on their ease of access and proximity to the researcher (Castillo, 2009). Judgemental and convenience sampling has been used in the study as they are the only viable techniques through which information can be obtained from this specific group of people.

The criteria by which the respondents will be identified and included in the study is as follows: the person must be in the employment of a small business operating

within the Eastern Cape; the person is a full-time employee in a small business; the small business must have been in operation for at least one year; and the business must employ less than 50 persons. A sample size of between 150 and 200 respondents will be used in the study. Small business owners will be approached and permission requested that their employees can be asked to participate in the study. Once completed, the questionnaires will be collected in person. Employees can also make use of the prepaid reply envelop to return the questionnaire by post.

1.6.4 Measuring instrument

Each construct identified in the literature study will be defined and operationalised. Operationalisation will be done using reliable and valid items sourced from tested measuring instruments used in previous studies, as well as from several self-generated items based on secondary sources. The covering letter of the questionnaire will explain the purpose of the study and will give relevant details of the parties involved. Section A of the measuring instrument consists of 77 statements (items) relating to the various work values under investigation. The items measuring the constructs will be phrased to measure perceptions of “what it could be like to run (own and manage) one’s own business”. Using a 7-point Likert-type interval scale, respondents will be requested to indicate their extent of agreement with regard to each statement. The scale was interpreted as 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. Demographic information pertaining to the respondents, as well as their place of employment, will be requested in Section B.

1.6.5 Data analysis

Validity is the extent to which a test truly measures what it is supposed to measure (Joppe, 2000; Key, 1997). An exploratory factor analysis is a means of establishing validity and can be described as a data reduction method that consists of grouping variables with shared variance, resulting in the formation of several factors (Van Stel, Bogaard, Rijssenbeek- Nouwens & Colland, 2001). An exploratory factor analysis will be performed on all the items in order to identify the unique factors in the data and to assess the validity of the measuring instrument. The software programme STATISTICA 10 will be used to undertake a factor analysis and to assess the validity

of the measuring instrument. Items making up a scale will be considered valid if the factor loading are greater than 0.40 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006) and only load onto one factor.

Reliability refers to the extent to which the results of a study are consistent over time (Joppe, 2000; Key, 1997). In order to assess the reliability of the measuring instrument used in this study, Cronbach-alpha coefficients will be calculated. According to Santos (1999), Cronbach-alpha coefficients are used to describe the reliability of factors used in the questionnaires. Coefficient values range from 0 to 1 and the higher the score, the more reliable the generated scale is. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) propose that 0.7 is an acceptable reliability coefficient; hence for this study a minimum Cronbach-alpha value of 0.7 will be required to deem a scale reliable.

Descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation and frequency distributions of the work values will be calculated to summarise the sample data distribution. Pearson's moment product correlations will also be calculated to find out whether or not the various work values correlate with each other and with entrepreneurial intentions. A multiple regression analysis will be undertaken to investigate whether relationships exist between the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career and entrepreneurial intentions. The various work values will serve as the independent variables and entrepreneurial intentions will serve as the dependent variable.

Although the focus of this study is on measuring the perceptions that employees have of self-employment in terms of several work values, the influence of various demographic variables will also be measured. This will be done by means of an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-tests. In each case, the influence of the demographic variables, as independent variables, will be measured on the dependent variables. The work values under investigation and entrepreneurial intentions will act as the dependent variables in this analysis.

1.7 SCOPE AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

This study will be undertaken among employees working for small businesses operating only in the Eastern Cape. For the purposes of this study "small business" refers to a business which is independently owned and managed and employs fewer than 50 people.

Numerous environmental and demographic work values are associated with career choice, such as the environment surrounding an individual, his/her family background, qualification and marital status. This study, however, focuses only on work values identified by Farrington *et al.* (2011), namely *Stimulating, Stress, Imaginative, Responsibility, Challenging, Security, Financial benefit, Future prospects, Interaction, Prestige, Serving the community, Flexibility, Autonomy and Time.*

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is expand the limited understanding that currently exists around the question of why some individuals become entrepreneurs and others do not. This will be done by investigating perceptions that employees have of self-employment. It is hoped that identification of these perceptions and attitudes could lead to creating a more realistic view of what an entrepreneurial career entails and thus change current perspectives. According to Smith-Hunter *et al.* (2009: 26) past research has failed to highlight the role of perceptions on entrepreneurial choices, and a void exists in the entrepreneurship literature waiting to be addressed. The study proposes to address the shortage of previous research on employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career. Also, the study used data collected from the Eastern Cape and consequently proposed to add to the body of knowledge on entrepreneurship in that province.

1.9 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.9.1 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is defined as the transformation of innovation into a new product,

service or business; this is done in order to take advantage of a market opportunity (Drost, 2010). Fatoki (2011: 161) defines entrepreneurship as a dynamic process of wealth creation by individuals or by a group of individuals.

1.9.2 Entrepreneur

An *entrepreneur* is someone who is prepared to undertake risk, establish a new business venture, and offer new or existing products in order to make a profit (Bann, 2009). Johnson (2001) defines an entrepreneur as an individual who takes responsibility for and ownership in creating a business venture.

1.9.3 Self-employed

Self-employed refers to a person who works in his or her own business which provides him or her with a profit (Ahn, 2009).

1.9.4 Entrepreneurial career

An *entrepreneurial career* refers to owning and managing one's own small business. (Farrington *et al.*, 2011: 5)

1.9.5 Small business

A *small business* is an independently-owned business and employs fewer than 100 employees (Peterson, Album & Kozmetsky, 1986). According to the National Small Business Act (1996), a small business refers to a separate and unique business entity which includes both co-operative enterprises and non-governmental organisations which are usually managed by one manager or more. In the study a small business refers to a business that is independently owned and managed and which employs less than 50 people.

1.9.6 Entrepreneurial intentions

Entrepreneurial intentions refer to the specific planned behaviour intentions of a

person to perform "new venture creation action" (Gird & Bagraim, 2008: 712). Bird (1998) describes entrepreneurial intentions as a state of mind which leads and guides the actions of an individual towards the development and implementation of a new business venture. Fakoti (2010: 88) refers to entrepreneurial intentions as an individual's judgement about the likelihood of owning a business venture in the future. Fakoti's definition is used for this study.

1.9.7 Employee

An *employee* is a person who works for, or provides services to, another person (Venter 2003: 13). According to Ramutloa (2008), an employee refers to any individual, excluding an independent contractor, who is employed by or works for another person or for an organisation and receives or is entitled to receive remuneration for his/her services.

1.9.8 Career

A *career* is defined as the path taken by a person which gives meaning to his/her life; it is the sequence of jobs, roles and positions that an individual holds during the period of his/her working life (Coetzee, 2006). A career refers to all the roles which a person plays during his/her lifetime. A career is regarded as the continuous process of learning and development which a person goes through (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2009).

1.9.9 Values

Values refer to the things that a person considers to be of the utmost importance in life (Peterson & Gonzalez, 2000). Sousa, Ruzo and Losada (2010) regard values as the elements which explain an individual's attitude and behaviour.

1.9.10 Work Values

Work values refer to what individuals want from work in general, and to which components of a job are important to their work satisfaction (Duffy & Sedlacek,

2007). Twenge *et al.*, (2010) describes work values as goals which an individual feels he/she should attain in the work place.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH

The structure of the research is as follows:

Chapter 1 introduces the research by providing a background for the topic under investigation. The problem statement, the purpose of the study and the research objectives are then presented. A theoretical framework is proposed which forms the basis for the generation of several research questions and hypotheses. The secondary and primary studies of the research are also introduced. The scope and demarcation of the field of study are described as well as the significance of the study for the field of entrepreneurship. The chapter concludes with defining the most important terms used in the study and an overview of the structure of the study.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the nature and importance of entrepreneurship and the process of choosing an entrepreneurial career. Entrepreneurship is defined and the importance of entrepreneurship in the South African context and globally is discussed. Entrepreneurship and improving entrepreneurial levels in South Africa is also discussed in the chapter. The chapter concludes with evidence of the experience of being an entrepreneur.

Chapter 3 focuses on different intentions models and on various antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions proposed by these models. Attitude towards the behaviour and perceived desirability is discussed in detail. Perceptions of an entrepreneurial career are established in terms of several work values. Work values and how they influence a person's career choice are then discussed. The chapter concludes with a proposed theoretical framework on which to base the empirical investigation.

Chapter 4 focuses on the theoretical and empirical support for the relationships tested in this study. Several hypotheses are proposed which are subjected to further empirical testing. More specifically, the relationships between the perceptions of an

entrepreneurial career (as described by 14 work values under investigation) and entrepreneurial intentions are investigated.

Chapter 5 elaborates on the research methodology used in this study. The sample frame, measuring instrument, method of primary data collection and the strategies used for administering the measuring instrument are discussed. The data analyses and statistical techniques used are also described.

Chapter 6 discusses the empirical results of the reliability and validity analyses of the measuring instrument used for the study. The results of the empirical investigation assessing the influence of the various work-related values on entrepreneurial intentions follow. In addition, the influence of particular demographic variables on the dependent variables is explained.

Chapter 7 is the last chapter of the study and presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the research. The contributions and possible shortcomings of the study are discussed and recommendations for future research are presented.

CHAPTER 2

AN ENTREPRENEURIAL CAREER

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of this study is to establish the perceptions that employees have regarding self-employment, running their own business or following an entrepreneurial career and to establish the influence of these perceptions on their entrepreneurial intentions. In order to achieve this primary objective it is necessary to describe specifically what an entrepreneurial career entails.

The focus of this chapter is on career choice in general and on the choice of an entrepreneurial career in particular. Individuals are faced with many decisions to make over their lifetime; one is choosing a career path. This decision is of particular importance since most of a person's life is spent in the career he/she has chosen (Baker & Mohamed, 2007: 12). Choosing the right career can contribute towards living a satisfying life and is thus one of the most important life decisions an individual needs to make (Adomaitiene & Zubrickiene, 2010: 94).

This chapter begins by discussing the process an individual goes through when making a career choice as well as the factors that play a role in influencing that choice. Factors related to career choice such as individual, environmental and situational variables will be discussed. Thereafter the chapter will focus on an entrepreneurial career. The nature and importance of entrepreneurship, as well as the entrepreneurial character will be elaborated on. An entrepreneurial career will be described and the reasons for following an entrepreneurial career will be highlighted. The chapter concludes with the status of entrepreneurship in South Africa.

2.2 CAREER CHOICE

In recent times, the employment landscape has undergone fundamental changes. These changes have affected career choices and career management (Ituma & Simpson, 2005: 51) and have been brought about by globalisation, new

technologies, industrial restructuring, downsizing, demographic shifts and the surfacing of new careers. As a result the careers chosen by individuals have been reshaped (Ituma & Simpson, 2005: 51; Ardichvili, 2003).

Traditionally a career was viewed as a linear progression from one organisation to the next. In today's society this is no longer the case. The process of building a career no longer involves finding the right job and staying in that job, but is characterised by continually making career choices in response to a rapidly changing labour market (Mille & Marvin, 2006). "Work is now defined not by occupational title or by categories, but by skills and values" (Miller & Marvin, 2006).

Suliennik, Bendat and Raufman (2004: 8) define a career as an integration of one's personality with the job activities that one performs; hence a career becomes part of a person's identity and self-concept. According to Ayranci and Oge (2011: 198), a career is the sum of all the job experiences that one has throughout a lifetime. Patton (2006) describes a career as the variety of occupational roles that one has during one's life. Similarly, Coetzee (2006: 17) contends that a career is a sequence of jobs, roles and positions that an individual holds during the period of his or her working life.

Corell (2001: 1693) states that an individual's career choice is a process that occurs during his/her life cycle, and involves a person engaging in a series of decisions that have occupational consequences. A career choice is one of the decisions which affect individuals throughout their lives (Borchert, 2002: 11). A career choice determines the kind of profession that one intends to pursue in life (Edwards & Quinter, 2011: 81). If employees are ill-suited for a particular career, chances are that they will perform poorly in their work, be less productive and end up leaving the company. Poor career choices lead to an occupational mismatch, which ultimately results in stress, discontent, depression and a financial burden for the company (Miller & Marvin, 2006).

When individuals engage in informed career choices they are more likely to be committed and engaged employees (Miller & Marvin, 2006). According to Greenbank (2009: 34), rational career decision-making requires planning for the future by being

aware of the opportunities that are available, deciding which career options are the most suitable and preparing for the chosen career by being involved in activities that help develop the kind of skills, attributes and knowledge that are sought by future employers.

2.3 FACTORS INFLUENCING CAREER CHOICE

According to Ozbilgin and Malach-Pines (2007: 1), the process of choosing a career is a complex one. Many authors have tried to classify the factors that influence this choice. Ozbilgin and Malach-Pines (2007: 9) assert that one's career choice is influenced by personal values and attitudes, as well as by expectations regarding how one's work life should be balanced with the rest of one's life.

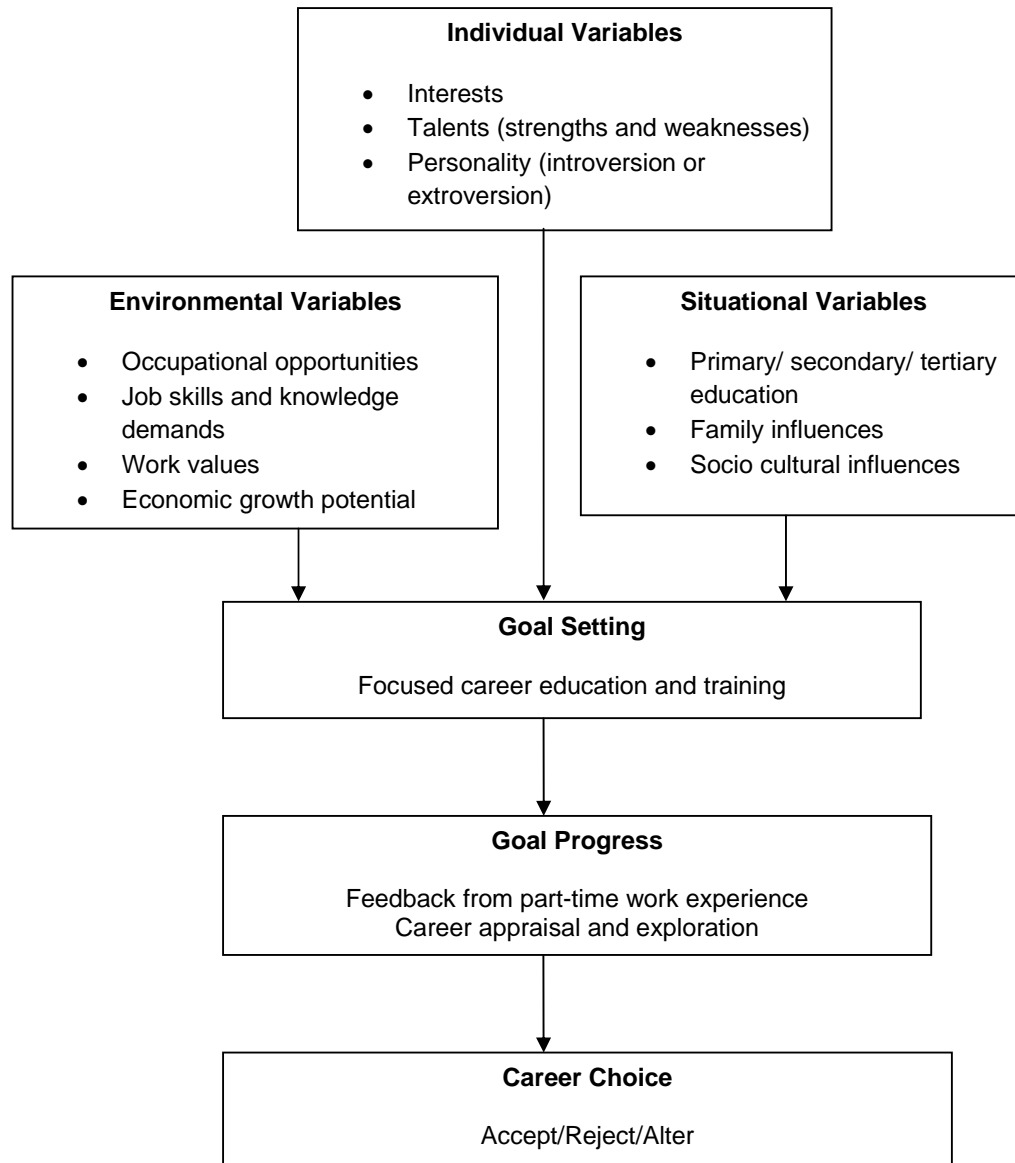
Various factors have been identified as influencing the career choices that individuals make. These factors include population group and gender, job experience and personal prestige, lifestyle preference, personality type and commitment (Harris *et al.*, 2005; Singaravelu *et al.*, 2005; Ramsey *et al.*, 2004; Micallef and Gatt, 2004; Watson, 2004; Makhubu, 2000; Chuenyane, 1983 and Sukovieff, 1989). Nelson (1995) and Stead and Watson (1993) have identified the following factors as influencing career choice:

- Childhood dreams;
- Parents' wishes and the occupation of parents;
- The views of friends, relatives and role models;
- A glamorous picture of certain occupations painted by the media;
- Career guidance and information available on career choices;
- Financial limitations, values and intellectual ability.

Super (1957; 1953) classified three factors affecting career choice: role factors (the self and the role), personality factors (intelligence, special abilities, preferences, values, approaches to work, personality and general adaptability) and situational factors (social and economic status of parents, religious background, home atmosphere and the general economic situation). Rousseau and Venter (2009: 4), on

the other hand, classified these factors as individual, environmental and situational (see Figure 2.1), each of which will be discussed in the paragraphs below.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual model of career choice



(Source: Rousseau & Venter, 2009: 4)

2.3.1 Individual factors

According to Rousseau and Venter (2009: 3) individual factors comprise three components, namely a person's interests, talents and personality types. Greenhaus,

Callanan and Godschalk (2010: 66) assert that interests refer to the activities that an individual likes to partake in within the context of work. It has been observed that individuals who choose careers that are compatible with their interests are more likely to be satisfied in their jobs than those who pursue careers that are not (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010: 66). Edward and Quinter (2011: 83) found that personal interests were considered important when making a career choice by the respondents participating in their study. The respondents believed that matching personal interests with career choice would lead to greater job satisfaction. Similarly, Dediemko (2005) found that interest was often the main motive behind the choice of a particular career path.

An individual's talents are the aptitude, capacity and proficiency that enable him or her to perform different types of tasks (Rousseau & Venter, 2009: 3). According to Greenhaus *et al.* (2010: 66) it is important to consider one's talents and abilities when making a career decision. Many people choose jobs requiring talents and abilities they do not have.

An individual's personality type refers to the unchanging psychological characteristics that represent a person's thoughts, emotions, interests, habits and behaviours (Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010: 69). Splaver (1977) suggests that in order to make intelligent career plans, a person needs to understand who he/she is and also his/her personality type. Personality type has been, and still is, considered an important variable when making career decisions (Splaver, 1977). Borchert (2002: 11) asserts that one's personality type determines the type of careers one chooses to follow and certain careers require a particular personality type to fulfil the requirements for the job. For example, successful sales people require an outgoing personality type (Borchert, 2002: 12).

2.3.2 Environmental factors

According to Borchert (2002: 12), various environmental factors also influence an individual's career choice. Environmental factors include the available occupational opportunities that individuals have access to, their job skills, the knowledge demands of the work, work values and the economic growth potential of the job (Rousseau &

Venter, 2009: 3), as well as the availability of employment and the size and reputation of an organisation (Myburg, 2005: 38). Authors such as Bundy and Norris (1992), Haswell and Holmes (1988), Kochanek and Norgaard (1985), and Paollilo and Estes (1982) are of the opinion that environmental factors such as job market considerations (job satisfaction, job security, job availability, job flexibility and opportunities for advancement) are important factors in the process of making career decisions. Rousseau and Venter (2009: 4) assert that environmental factors may also be responsible for directing an individual's future alternative job exploration. The process of career development represents a long-term process in which an individual's abilities and interests are balanced with the constraints of the environment (Super, 1980).

Twenge *et al.* (2010: 5) describe work values as the aspects of the job that are important to an individual's job contentment. Furthermore, Twenge *et al.* (2010: 5) suggest that these work values have an influence on an individual's job decisions. Rousseau and Venter (2009: 4) also content that work values can provide insights into career aspirations. A more detailed discussion of work values will be done in Chapter 3.

2.3.3 Situational factors

Rousseau and Venter (2009: 5) describe situational factors that influence an individual's career choice as those relating to education, family and socio-cultural conditions. In a study conducted by Daniels (2006: 258), the respondents reported that situational factors were drivers for choosing certain career paths as well as for changing career paths. Daniels (2006: 258) reports that respondents identified societal factors such as lack of teachers and educational experiences which hindered them from pursuing a career in Information Technology. They were also ill-prepared to engage in such a career as they had no mentors and lacked in-depth awareness of occupations in that field (Daniels, 2006: 258).

Baker and Mohamed (2007: 16) state that several individuals play a role in influencing career choices, including parents, counsellors, subject teachers and principals. Parents were reported as having the greatest influence on career

decisions. Bratcher (1982) and Schulenberg, Vondracek and Crouter (1984) also reported that parents have the greatest influence on their children's career choices.

Greenbank (2009: 36) found that students were more inclined to seek career advice from people with whom they were familiar rather than from formal officials such as career counsellors. They reported guidance counsellors had no impact on career decision-making. In contrast Baker and Mohammed (2007) found that guidance counsellors played a significant role in influencing decisions pertaining to future career goals. Greenbank (2009: 36) also reported that students participating in his study used personal experience and observation of significant others to assist them in making career choices. Singaravelu (2005) found that one's family, culture and community all have an influence on one's career choices.

Some individuals make career choices based on the prevailing socio-cultural and economic conditions (Ituma & Simpson, 2005: 50). For example in a study conducted in Nigeria, it was reported that high unemployment rates lead to job-hopping in which individuals continuously search for better-paying jobs that will enable them to support their families financially. In their study Ituma and Simpson (2005: 51), reported that security and good pay are the main attributes which people search for when making career decisions.

2.4 ENTREPRENEURSHIP AS A CAREER CHOICE

2.4.1 The nature of entrepreneurship

The concept of entrepreneurship has long been discussed and the debate concerning its meaning is on-going (Herrington *et al.*, 2009: 11). Numerous definitions exist which do not always agree on the essential characteristics of an entrepreneur (Wickham, 2004: 6). To date, attempts to define entrepreneurship have resulted in vague and at times contradictory definitions (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 99).

"Entrepreneurship" comes from a French word originally coined to describe people who take the risk of initiating a new venture (Berringer & Ireland, 2008: 6). Current literature offers several interpretations of the word. For example according to Spinelli

(2009: 101), entrepreneurship is the process by which individuals pursue opportunities without considering the resources that are currently available and involves identifying available opportunities and practically implementing these opportunities. Timmons and Spinelli (2009: 101) define entrepreneurship as a way of thinking, reasoning and acting that is opportunity-focused, has a holistic approach and is driven by strong and visionary leadership, ultimately resulting in the building of a new business venture.

Kuratko and Hodgetts (2004: 29), on the other hand, describe entrepreneurship as a behaviour that consists of taking initiatives and a process of recognising social economic mechanisms in order to turn resources and situations into practical solutions, as well as accepting the risks associated with starting an entrepreneurial venture. Bosch *et al.* (2011: 90) assert that entrepreneurship involves learning about, creating and growing new business ventures, and that entrepreneurship is about creating simplicity when one encounters complexity.

From these descriptions it can be inferred that entrepreneurship is a process or behaviour, and that this process or behaviour manifests through the person known as the "entrepreneur". Entrepreneurs are individuals who undertake the responsibility of organising, managing and assuming the business risks of the enterprise (Jyothi, 2009: 39; Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2004: 28). They are innovators who identify business opportunities and convert them into practical ideas which add value through the use of time, effort, money and skills (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2007: 28). Entrepreneurs are individuals who recognise opportunities where others see chaos or perplexity (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2007: 28).

According to Shahhosseini, Kavousy, Shirsavar and Ardahaey (2011: 107), the word "entrepreneur" is often synonymous with "founder" and applies to someone who creates value by offering a certain product and or service by selecting a niche in the market that may not yet exist. Chitsike (2000: 71) defines "entrepreneur" as an individual who undertakes a business venture with the likelihood of profit or loss. An entrepreneur perceives the opportunity in the market and has the motivation, drive and ability to organise the resources necessary to take advantage of the identified opportunities (Kaplan & Warren, 2007: 4).

Several definitions of entrepreneurship and an entrepreneur have been presented above. Common to these various definitions are (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 90):

- The ability to recognise and exploit business opportunities;
- The blending of creativity, innovation, risk-taking and hard work;
- The correct appropriation of resources;
- Being rewarded for their initiatives;
- The ability to generate change through innovation;
- The ability to find new combinations of resources;
- The ability to improve existing operations;
- The ability to lead economic activity at a profit in times of uncertainty;
- The willingness to take calculated business risks;
- The promise of growth, expansion and long term financial gain.

As mentioned, entrepreneurship manifests through a person known as the "entrepreneur". Theory suggests that entrepreneurial persons possess a particular type of character. The various attributes (characteristics, personality traits and skills) associated with entrepreneurial characters are described in the paragraph below.

2.4.2 The entrepreneurial character

Numerous characteristics have been identified as being related to entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial success (Deakins & Freel, 2009). It is these attributes that set entrepreneurs apart from non-entrepreneurs (Cromie, 2000). According to Hornaday (1982), as many as 42 different entrepreneurial characteristics have been identified among entrepreneurs and Soetanto *et al.* (2010: 24) note that an abundance of literature exists attempting to define the attributes of entrepreneurs. However, the most commonly mentioned attributes are *the need to achieve, the ability to take risks, tolerance for ambiguity, good locus of control, creativity and innovation* (Chen & Lai, 2010; Deakins & Freel, 2009: 10; Venter, Urban & Rwigema, 2008: 51; Entrialgo *et al.*, 2000).

Deakins and Freel (2009: 10) assert that additional attributes associated with

entrepreneurs include the need for autonomy, being visionary and having self-efficacy. Kakkonen (2010) suggests that having communicative abilities, being energetic, self-confident and responsible are also some of the characteristics of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs have high levels of energy and persevere through difficult situations and possess the imagination that enables them to turn ideas into something concrete (De Vries, 2009:7).

Ndubisi (2008) also asserts that characteristics such as being hard-working, money-orientated and optimistic, as well as having commitment, perseverance and flexibility, maintaining good interpersonal relations, and being able to build a team (Kumara & Sahasranam, 2009) are typical of entrepreneurial personalities. Successful entrepreneurs are obliged to develop themselves in four main areas, namely content, skill, mentality and personality (Hood & Young, 1993). Venter *et al.* (2008: 42) assert that entrepreneurial behaviour is associated with experience and prior knowledge of the business venture and consumers.

As can be seen above, entrepreneurship literature reports that numerous attributes, traits, characteristics and skills are associated with entrepreneurial personalities. In Table 2.1 below, some of the attributes most commonly cited are summarised.

Table 2.1: Entrepreneurial attributes

ENTREPRENEURIAL ATTRIBUTES	REFERENCES
Planning and perseverance	Scarborough, 2011; Barringer & Ireland, 2010; Wilner, 2000; Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Scarborough, Wilson & Zimmerer, 2009; Nieman and Niewenhuizen, 2009; Wickham, 2006; Nieman & Bennet, 2005; Bowler, 1995.
Persuasion and networking	Mugshot, 2010; Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Kuratko & Hodges, 2007: 122; Rwigema & Venter, 2004: 60; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003:30; Van Vuuren, 1997.
Communication ability	Marvin & Jones, 2010; Nitikina (2007); Barrier, 1995; Marx, Van Rooyen, Bosch & Reynders, 1998.

ENTREPRENEURIAL ATTRIBUTES	REFERENCES
Commitment	Calvasina, Calvasina & Calvasina, 2010; Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Siropolis, 1990; Marx <i>et al.</i> , 1998.
Overcoming failure	De Angelis and Hayes, 2010; Barringer and Ireland, 2010; Pryor, Toombs, Anderson and White, 2010; Kuratko, 2009; Goodman, 1994; Burns and Dewhurst, 1993; Gerdes, 1988.
Self-confidence and locus of control	Scarborough, 2011; Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2009; Kuratko, 2009; Scarborough <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Chillemi, 2010; Timmons & Spinelli, 2007; Nieman and Bennet, 2005; Cromie, 2000; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Goodma, 1994.
Risk-taking ability	Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2009; Kuratko, 2009; Scarborough <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Kaluwasha, 2009; Wickham, 2006; Cromie, 2000; Mariani, 1994; Casson, 1991; Siropolis, 1990.
Initiative and responsibility	Scarborough <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Marx <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Goodman, 1994; Gerdes, 1988.
High energy level	Scarborough, 2011; Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Thomas & Mueller, 1999; Marx <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Mariani, 1994; Goodman, 1994; Casson, 1991.
Tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty	Scarborough, 2011; Scarborough <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Nieman & Bennet, 2005; Entrialgo <i>et al.</i> , 2000; Bowler, 1995.
Creativity and flexibility	Timmons & Spinelli, 2009; Nieman an& d Bennet, 2005; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998; Casson, 1991; Gerdes, 1988.
Knowledge-seeking	Julienti, Bakar & Ahmad, 2010; Mushonga, 1981; Bowler, 1995.
Continuous learning	Ribeiro 2010; Ming, 2009; Hellriegel, Jackson & Slocum, 1999; Kroon & Moolman, 1991.
Financial proficiency	Mankelwicz & Kitahara, 2010; Scarborough <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Wickham, 2006; Marx <i>et al.</i> , 1998.
Money sense	Cudmore, Patton, Ng & McClure, 2010; Burns & Dewhurst, 1993; Burch, 1986; Kroon & Moolman, 1991.
Business knowledge	Scarborough <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Gerry, Marques & Nogueira, 2008; Barringer & Ireland, 2008; Marx <i>et al.</i> , 1998, Van Vuuren, 1997.
Leadership	Kuratko & Hodges, 2007: 118; Timmons & Spinelli, 2004: 250; Niemand <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Koltelnikov 2008; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000.
Drive to achieve	Kuratko, 2009: 30; Co, Greonewald, Mitchell, Nayager, Van Zyl, Visser, Train & Emanuel, 2007: 57; Kuratko & Hodges, 2007: 120;

ENTREPRENEURIAL ATTRIBUTES	REFERENCES
	Timmons & Spinelli, 2004: 250; Rwigema & Venter, 2004: 61
Opportunity obsession	Kuratko, 2009: 30; Koltelnikov 2008; Kuratko & Hodges, 2007: 120; Timmons & Spinelli, 2004: 250; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 30; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000.
Hard-working	Morris, Kuratko & Covin, 2011: 163; Koltelnikov 2008; Naidu & Rao, 2008: 154; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 30; Joseph, 2003: 11; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Nurturing quality	Koltelnikov 2008; Verrest, 2007: 152; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 30; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Reward-orientated	Koltelnikov 2008; Verrest, 2007: 152; Maxwell, 2004: 4; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 30; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Optimistic	Yazdipour, 2011: 174; Kuratko, 2009: 31; Koltelnikov 2008; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 30; McDaniel, 2002: 68; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Excellence-orientated	Koltelnikov 2008; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 30; Joseph, 2003: 11; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Good organisers	Morris, Kuratko & Covin, 2011: 163; Koltelnikov 2008; Nieman <i>et al.</i> , 2003: 30; Van Aardt <i>et al.</i> , 2000

(Source: Adapted from Farrington, Venter, Neethling & Louw, 2010)

2.4.3 The importance of entrepreneurship

Globally, there has been a growing interest in the field of entrepreneurship (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 90; Jonker *et al.*, 2009: 383). The main reason for this is the role that entrepreneurship plays in reducing unemployment and alleviating poverty (Alarape, 2008: 81). In South Africa, for example, entrepreneurial ventures contribute to the country's economic growth as well as to unemployment and poverty alleviation (Fatoki & Asah, 2011: 170). The recent economic recession together with government policies, have resulted in entrepreneurship becoming a permanent concern in most developing countries (Jyothi, 2009: 37).

Entrepreneurship plays an important role in reducing unemployment. Unemployed people are often compelled to start their own business ventures (Remeikien & Startiene, 2009: 903; Ladzani & Van Vuuren, 2002: 154) and, given the

disappearance of conventional career paths, young people are increasingly turning to entrepreneurial ventures as an alternative source of employment (Remeikien & Startiene, 2009: 903). The main objective of training and educating young people in the field of entrepreneurship is to encourage them to become job creators instead of job seekers upon completing their education (Zakaria *et al.*, 2011: 616). Entrepreneurship has the potential to reduce the number of academically educated people in traditional employment and to increase interest in new career possibilities (Zakaria *et al.*, 2011: 616). According to Remeikiene and Startiene (2009: 904), interdependence exists between entrepreneurship and unemployment; entrepreneurship lessens unemployment on one hand and unemployment encourages entrepreneurship on the other.

By creating jobs and reducing unemployment, entrepreneurship is also an important facilitator of economic growth (Kaplan & Warren, 2007). According to Zakaria *et al.* (2011: 617), entrepreneurial activities have the propensity to increase the pace of the economy. Allen and Economy (2008: 432) assert that economists have labelled entrepreneurship as the catalyst for economic growth. Economic growth occurs when entrepreneurs identify new customer segments, new customer needs, existing customer needs and new ways of manufacturing and distributing products and services (Allen & Economy, 2008: 432).

One of the factors that influence a country's gross domestic product (GDP) levels and thus the state of the economy is the level of unemployment. Job creation and economic growth are directly proportional to each other, implying that a lack of growth in the economy negatively influences employment opportunities (Niemand, Hough & Nieuwenhuizen, 2003: 3). According to Birley and Muzyka, (2000: 5), entrepreneurs have an influence on the production, consumption and distribution of goods and services in a country. Entrepreneurs represent the wealth of a nation and its potential to create employment.

Entrepreneurs also play an important role in today's society as they are often a source of innovation, and provide the market with new and improved products and services (Okland, 2004). McDaniel (2002: 57) describes "innovation" as a process whereby the entrepreneur takes an invention and uses it to make something new or

to make things differently. Through the process of innovation, entrepreneurs create new competitive markets as well as businesses that lead to job creation and have an increasingly positive effect on the economy (State of entrepreneurship in South Africa, 2010; Allen & Economy, 2008: 432). Entrepreneurs are good for the economy as they are involved in the process of commercialising new technologies and play a critical role in the global economy (Allen & Economy, 2008: 432).

Entrepreneurship plays an important role in both the economic and social development of South Africa (Dempsey, 2010: 2). The South African government has long recognised this important role (Fatoki, 2010: 90), and has set a goal of establishing South Africa as an entrepreneurial nation that rewards and distinguishes entrepreneurship (Dempsey, 2010: 2). For example, a crucial part of the government's ten year vision for the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa) is for South Africa to become an entrepreneurial nation that rewards and recognises those who see a business opportunity and pursue it (Fatoki, 2010: 90).

2.4.4 An entrepreneurial career

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2011: 40), an entrepreneurial career involves managing one's own business and requires one to make personal sacrifices, be innovative and create something new for the benefit of the society. Greenhaus *et al.* (2010: 354) contend that the decision to pursue an entrepreneurial career seems appealing to many individuals and that interest in this career path is growing.

Traditionally a career was seen as a series of roles and progressions that an individual, as an employee, experiences during his/her working life. However, many people's careers have included periods of self-employment and entrepreneurship (Rae, 2007: 224). In Chinese culture, for example, to have your own business or be self-employed is a measure of career success (Wong, 2007: 1216) and Chinese parents are encouraged to pass their businesses on to their children. According to the Chinese saying: "one cannot get ahead if one works for someone else", many Chinese prefer to follow an entrepreneurial career (Wong, 2007: 1226) than work for someone else.

According to Greenhaus *et al.* (2010: 355), an entrepreneurial career path differs from a traditional career path in several ways. These differences are tabled below.

Table 2.2: An entrepreneurial and traditional career paths

An entrepreneurial career path	A traditional career path
An entrepreneur can assume a number of different roles simultaneously such as operations, marketing, accounting, human resources and the planning function.	Individuals in an organisation can only assume one role at a time. The possibility of organisational managers to assume multifunctional influence/roles is limited.
An entrepreneurial career has higher degrees of personal commitment to the success of the business as the business and the career are entwined. "The business is the career and the career is the business".	The individual is a separate entity from the business; hence the level of personal commitment is not as high as in an entrepreneurial career.
Entrepreneurial careers are characterised by having a lower degree of structure, predictability and support.	Organisational careers have higher degrees of structure, predictability and support. This is what drives some individuals to pursue an entrepreneurial career.
Individuals in an entrepreneurial career need to have tendencies toward action and innovation, as entrepreneurs are constantly faced with having to respond and adapt to changing market conditions.	In contrast an organisational career is characterised as being slower-paced. Managers are usually risk-averse and do not reward or appreciate quick and innovative thinking.

(Source: Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010: 355)

2.4.5 Reasons for following an entrepreneurial career

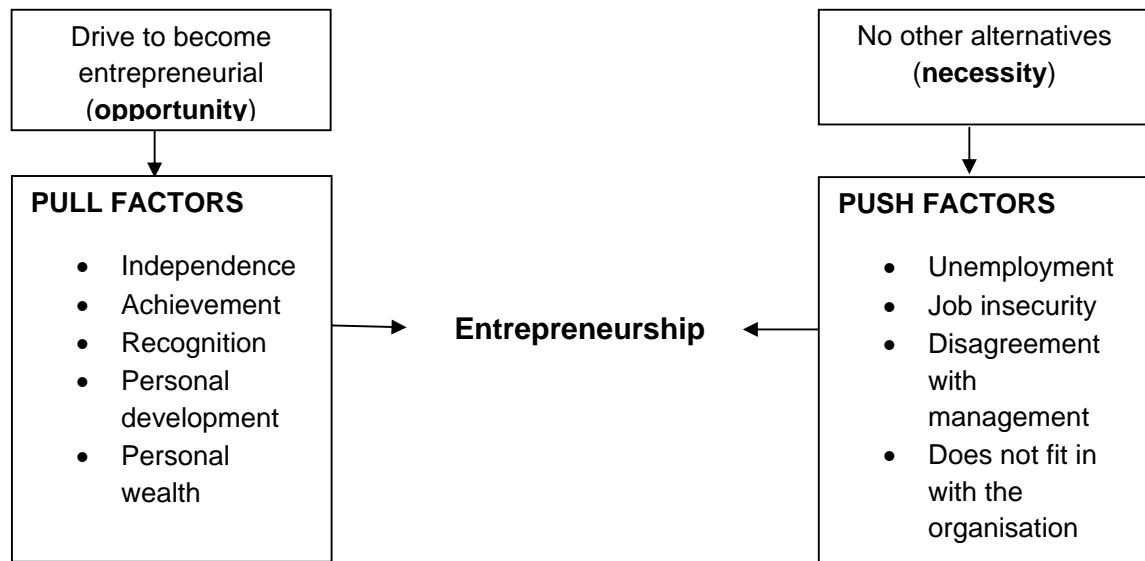
Several factors influence an individual's decision to embark on an entrepreneurial career. These factors are shaped by personal attributes and the environment in which a person exists (Bygrave & Zacharakis, 2008). The following reasons for following an entrepreneurial career are cited: to lead, to achieve something, to earn income, to grow and learn, to challenge oneself, to be respected and to attain a higher position for oneself (Fagenson, 1993; Powell, 1988; Kanter, 1977). People also choose to follow an entrepreneurial career when they expect to derive greater income and independence than following a traditional career choice (Pibie, 2009: 345) or when no alternative employment exists (Hudges, 2003: 436).

Strong differences in perspective exist regarding the question of whether self-employment is the result of a growing enterprise culture, or of increasing globalisation (Hudges, 2003: 436). Those who favour the first approach see entrepreneurship from a *pull* perspective and believe that it comes about because individuals seek out greater challenges and independence (Hudges, 2003: 436). Brown and Ulijn (2004: 167) believe that individuals are attracted to the field of entrepreneurship because of the expectation that self-employment will provide them with greater material and/or non-material benefits. An entrepreneurial career is ideally suited to the way in which many South Africans want to live, that is, to be independent and self-sustaining (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 91). In general people seek freedom, independence, achievement, recognition, personal development and personal wealth and they imagine that an entrepreneurial career will allow them to attain this (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 91). Individuals pursue an entrepreneurial career because of the freedom to work for oneself (Botha, Fairer-Wessels & Lubbe, 2006: 42). Other pull factors include having a good idea, wanting to explore the opportunity of being one's own boss and having the potential to increase one's personal wealth (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 90). Recognition entails the desire to acquire the social standing achieved by the majority of entrepreneurs (Botha *et al.*, 2006: 42). Bosch *et al.* (2011: 90) assert that entrepreneurs who have successfully started their own businesses are seen as achievers. The public has respect for people who have their own businesses and who make it on their own. Brown and Ulijn (2004: 167) describe pull factors as those which are concerned with the expectation of being better off as an entrepreneur than as an employee.

Alternatively, the *push* perspective regards entrepreneurship as occurring because of downsizing, restructuring, unemployment, job insecurity and redundancy (Hudges, 2003: 436). Push factors driving the choice of entrepreneurship as a career include job dissatisfaction and insecurity, downsizing of big businesses and retrenchment due to employment equity (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 109). Some individuals experience a glass ceiling that blocks their upward mobility, whereas others have a fear of retrenchment and bail out when a generous package comes along (Rwigema & Venter, 2004: 14). Other factors that push individuals to become entrepreneurs include arguments with bosses and interpersonal conflicts with other employees (Burke, 2006: 42). Disagreement with management, experiencing career limitations

and setbacks in one's conventional career are other reasons for pushing individuals towards an entrepreneurial career (Nieman *et al.*, 2003: 32). Push factors potentially occur due to conflict that arises between a person's current state and a desired state of being; they are associated with some level of dissatisfaction (Brown & Ulijin, 2004: 167). Several push and pull factors influencing entrepreneurship are depicted in Figure 2.2 below.

Figure 2.2: The push and pull factors influencing entrepreneurship



(Source: Adapted from Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2009: 34)

2.4.6 The status of entrepreneurship in South Africa

According to Jonker, Saayman and de Klerk (2009: 382), since 1994 the South African government has been committed to the development of entrepreneurship by providing financial support, developing new strategies and policies for the SMME's and providing resources where needed. Fatoki and Asah (2011: 170) assert that the South African government has identified entrepreneurial ventures as possible remedies for increasing jobs and decreasing the high unemployment rate which is currently estimated at 25.5% (Statistics South Africa, 2011).

Despite the efforts of government, research shows that South Africa has a lower-than-expected entrepreneurial activity rate when compared to other countries with efficiency-driven economies (Van Aard, *et al.*, 2000: 4). According to the Global

Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) survey of 2010 (Kelley *et al.*, 2011: 18), the total early stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA) rate scored by South Africa (8.9%) is considerably lower than the average (11.7%) for all the other emerging countries. The survey reports that 16.7 % of South Africans have intentions of starting their own businesses; this is lower than the average of 23.2% reported for other efficiency-driven economies. South Africa's lack of improvement in the TEA rates and the fact that entrepreneurial activity rates in the country have remained low since first participating in the GEM studies, suggest that efforts to stimulate entrepreneurship have largely been ineffective (Herrington, Kew & Kew, 2010: 59). According to Herrington *et al.* (2010) an entrepreneurial career is not a favoured career choice among South Africans and the majority prefer to be employed by someone else (Van Aard *et al.*, 2000: 4).

Dempsey (2010) notes that several stakeholders in the private and public sector (for example, First National Bank's Endeavour, the Department of Trade and Industry, the Small Enterprise Development Agency, the Rupert family, the University of Cape Town, the University of Witwatersrand and Gordon Institute of Business Sciences) have tried to encourage entrepreneurship in South Africa. However, their efforts have not been very successful. Dempsey (2010) states, "finding ways to stimulate entrepreneurship in South Africa has become one of the country's Gordian knots".

2.5 SUMMARY

In Chapter 2 career choice and the factors influencing career choices were discussed. Specific reference was made to the various individual, environmental and situational factors that influence career choice. In addition, entrepreneurship as a career choice was described.

The nature of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurial character was described and the importance of entrepreneurship elaborated on. The reasons for following an entrepreneurial career were also discussed. Chapter 2 concluded with a discussion of the status of entrepreneurship in South Africa

Chapter 3 focuses on the nature of intentions, the factors which influence intentions (specifically entrepreneurial intentions), and on the influence which perceptions and attitudes have on entrepreneurial intentions. The nature of values and specifically of work values will also be described.

CHAPTER THREE

ATTITUDES, PERCEPTIONS AND ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Brice and Nelson (2008: 13) considerable debate exists in the entrepreneurship literature on what influences an individual's decision to follow an entrepreneurial career, as opposed to traditional employment options. To date several approaches have been used to understand and analyse why certain individuals start business ventures and others do not. One approach has been to look at the presence of certain personality traits in individuals and to link these traits to entrepreneurial activity (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994: 63; Nga & Shamuhanathan, 2010: 259), while another has been to look at demographic variables such as age, gender, origin, level of education and work experience. Both the personality trait and the demographic approaches have been criticised for their lack of predictive ability (Liñán, 2007: 230).

Increasingly, attention has been drawn to the role of an individual's "intentions" to undertake entrepreneurial activity, hence intentions-based models are being used as a means of explaining why some individuals embark on entrepreneurial activity and others do not (Ariff, Bidin, Sharif & Ahmad, 2010; Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Autio, Keeley, Klofsten, Parker and Hay, 2001; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). Sequeira, Mueller and McGee (2006: 275) contend that theoretical models of entrepreneurship imply that an individual's intention to start an entrepreneurial venture is a strong predictor of ultimate entrepreneurial action.

According to Krueger (2000: 6), intentions models are able to explain and predict an individual's intentions to engage in an entrepreneurial career. These intentions models assist in understanding how individuals actually make decisions and take actions (Olufunso, 2010: 89), as well as revealing an individual's thought processes (Sommer, 2011: 91). This supports the notion that intentions models have the ability to predict an individual's behaviour. Krueger (1993: 5) suggests that since

intentionality is a central theme of entrepreneurship, intentions models offer a framework for pursuing a better understanding of the process of entrepreneurship.

If the presumption that action is a result of the intention to act in a certain manner, then grasping the factors that play a role in the development and enhancement of intentions becomes central to our academic approach (Kuehn, 2008: 88). If entrepreneurial intentions occur prior to entrepreneurial behaviour, then it is expected that entrepreneurship educators will find intentions-based research in entrepreneurship beneficial (Kuehn, 2008: 88).

Chapter Three focuses on the nature of intentions and the factors that influence intentions. Two models of intentions, namely the theory of planned behaviour and the entrepreneurial event model, as well as the similarities between them, will firstly be elaborated on. More specifically, attention will be given to entrepreneurial intentions and the influence of perceptions or attitude on entrepreneurial intentions. An individual's attitude towards self-employment reflects his/her perception of self-employment, and an individual's attitude towards self-employment is associated with self-employment intentions. Work values shape perceptions of preference for a career, and as such directly influence an individual's attitudes and perception concerning that career. Therefore, the nature of values and specifically work values will also be described. Lastly, a summary of the chapter will be presented.

3.2 THE NATURE OF INTENTIONS

"Intentions" can be defined as any planned behaviour, hence strategic behaviours are considered to be intentional (Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud, 2000: 413). A person's intention indicates how hard he/she is willing to try or how much effort they are willing to exert in order to perform the behaviour in question (Ariff, Bidin & Ahmad, 2010: 3). Similarly, Keuhn (2008: 87) asserts that intentions serve as an indication of the efforts that people are willing to exert in order to perform a particular behaviour. The stronger the intention to behave in a particular behaviour, the more likely it is that the behaviour will be performed (Ajzen, 1991).

Prior to engaging in any behaviour, one needs to first have the intention to engage in such behaviour. As such, intentions precede action, and should intentions be absent, it is highly unlikely that the action will take place (van Gelderen *et al.*, 2008: 541). Intentions serve as a bridge to channel people's interpretations into action, and can be seen as representatives of the commitment that one has to some specific target behaviour (Krueger, 1993: 6).

In the psychology literature (Leffel & Darling, 2009: 80), intentions have been described as the motivating factors that encourage individuals to behave in certain ways; this is especially the case when the behaviour in question is rare or difficult to observe, as well as when it occurs at unpredictable times. Leffel and Darling (2009: 80), for example, contend that intentions are a motivating factor that influences an individual's behaviour.

Given their nature, intentions can be used to predict and explain behaviour (Krueger 1993: 6). The intention to act in a particular manner is understood to be fundamental in understanding the behaviour that an individual displays (Leffel & Darling, 2009: 80). When an individual's behaviour is planned, it can be deduced that his/her intention to act in a certain manner is a continuous predictor of the actual behaviour that he/she will display. Wong (2006: 3) argues that the motivation behind using intentions as a predictor of aspiring entrepreneurs is a sensible approach because individuals with entrepreneurial intentions progress through the entrepreneurial process much more readily than their counterparts. Entrepreneurial intentions and the role they play in actually following an entrepreneurial career will be discussed in the paragraphs to follow.

3.2.1 Entrepreneurial Intentions

Given that the intention of an individual to act in a certain way predicts their actual behaviour, especially behaviour that is planned. (Keuhn, 2008: 87), intentions-based models are suited to the field of entrepreneurship because the entrepreneurial process is a planned process (Keuhn, 2008: 87). According to Henley (2005: 3), creating a new venture is an intentional and planned event, as many people who start up the ventures form their intentions a year prior to starting up. Entrepreneurial

ventures materialise over time and involve a considerable amount of planning. According to Olufunso, (2010: 89), entrepreneurship is a gradual process, and entrepreneurial intentions can thus be seen as a first step in an evolving long-term process. Thus, entrepreneurship is exactly the type of planned behaviour for which intention models are ideally suited (Krueger *et al.*, 2000: 413).

Drost (2010: 28) describes entrepreneurial intentions as individuals' intentions to engage in entrepreneurship. Krueger (1993) defines entrepreneurial intentions as one's commitment to start a new business, and Fatoki (2010: 88) refers to entrepreneurial intentions as individuals' judgements about the prospect of owning their own business. Entrepreneurial intentions are described as an individual's state of mind that guides his/her actions towards developing and implementing a business concept, that is to say, it refers to the individual's intentions of embarking on an entrepreneurial career (Drost, 2010: 28; Boyd & Vokins, 1994: 6). Katz and Gardner (Wong, 2006: 3) define entrepreneurial intentions as the search for information that will be used in the process of creating a business venture, while Fatoki (2010: 88) describes entrepreneurial intentions as an individual's judgement around the issue of one day pursuing an entrepreneurial venture. Furthermore, Wilson, Kickull and Marlino (2007: 394) describe entrepreneurial intentions as the interest that individuals have in starting up their own entrepreneurial venture. In summary, it appears that entrepreneurial intentions centre on an individual's likelihood of starting and operating an own entrepreneurial venture in the near future.

The process of identifying an individual's intentions with regards to entrepreneurship offers a significant opportunity to increase one's ability to be aware of and predict entrepreneurial activity (Krueger *et al.*, 2000: 413). However, several authors (Izquierdo & Buelens, 2008: 3; Gird & Bargaim, 2008: 720; Van Auken, Fry & Stephens, 2006: 158) contend that an individual's situational or personal factors do not display much explanatory power or predictive validity when it comes to explaining and predicting entrepreneurial activity.

3.3 MODELS OF INTENTIONS

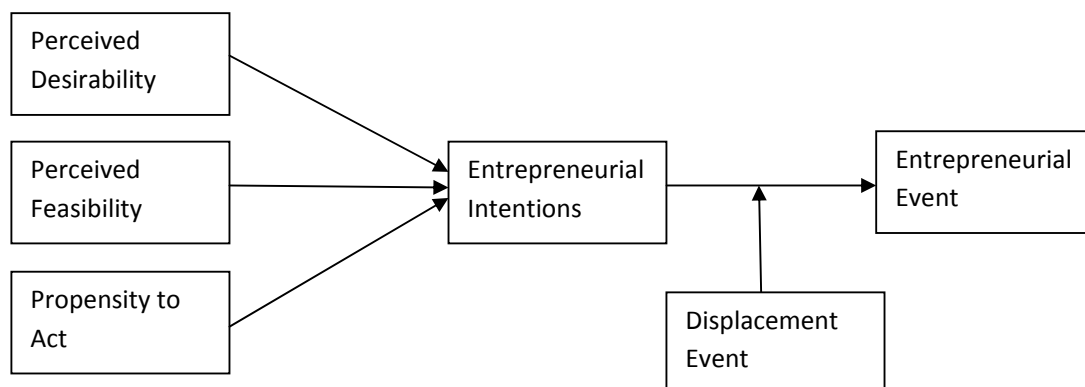
Intentions are the motivating factors that influence behaviour, and intentions to act

are thus central to understanding the behaviours in which people engage. Against this background, intentions-based models are particularly suited to entrepreneurship (Kuehn, 2008; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; Shapero & Sokol, 1982). In the entrepreneurial intentions literature two models have received the most research attention, namely Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behaviour and Shapero and Sokol's (1982) entrepreneurial event model (Leffel & Darling, 2009; Autio *et al.*, 2001; Kuehn, 2008). A brief discussion of these two models in the context of starting an own business will be presented in the paragraphs below.

3.3.1 Entrepreneurial Event Model (EEM)

Shapero and Sokol's (1982) entrepreneurial event model posits that an individual's intention to start a business is influenced by three factors, namely *perceived desirability*, *perceived feasibility* and *propensity to act*. The EEM assumes that human behaviour is guided by inertia until something happens that disturbs that inertia. Losing a job, getting married, as well as the birth of a child are all factors that can disturb a person's inertia (Krueger *et al.*, 2000: 412). Prior to engaging in a behaviour, a person needs to consider that a believable opportunity exists, and a displacing event needs to exist (Krueger, 1993: 6). An entrepreneurial event is preceded by an event that predisposes one towards action or an intent to act (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). The entrepreneurial event model aims to explain an individual's entrepreneurial behaviour (Carsrud & Brannback, 2009). Shapero and Sokol's (1982) entrepreneurial event model is depicted in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Entrepreneurial Event Model



(Source: Krueger *et al.*, 2000)

In Figure 1 above it can be seen that three factors, namely *perceived desirability*, *perceived feasibility* and *propensity to act* lead to entrepreneurial intentions (Keuhn, 2008: 90). These factors alone are not sufficient to result in action; therefore an additional condition, which is the displacement event, contributes to the formation of an entrepreneurial event. "Displacement events" are described as situations that lead to or result in an individual's decision to follow an entrepreneurial career (Keuhn, 2008: 90). The three factors influencing an individual's entrepreneurial intentions will be described in the paragraphs below.

3.3.1.1 Perceived Desirability

According to Linan (n.d.: 4), perceived desirability reflects the attraction that one has towards behaving in a particular manner. In the context of an own business, *perceived desirability* refers to the personal attractiveness that one feels about starting an own business (Krueger *et al.*, 2000: 412). Similarly, Nasurdin *et al.*, (2009: 367) assert that perceived desirability reflects the degree to which an individual sees the idea of the intended behaviour such as starting a business as compelling and attractive.

According to Keuhn (2008: 92), perceived desirability is influenced by an individual's social background, which comprises cultural influences as well as family, friends, and personal exposure to entrepreneurship. Similarly, Carsrud and Brannback (2009) assert that the positive experience that one receives from the entrepreneurial exposure will influence intentions through the concept of perceived desirability. An individual's background leads to preconceived ideas concerning a particular behaviour, including embarking on an entrepreneurial career. These preconceived ideas can be either positive or negative. Furthermore, an individual's attitude towards a certain behaviour is determined by the perceptions that he/she has concerning the behaviour in question. In order to improve one's perception of a positive outcome of that behaviour, negative perceptions of the action will need to be lowered (Krueger, 2000: 13).

3.3.1.2 Perceived feasibility

According to Linan (n.d.), “perceived feasibility” refers to the degree to which individuals perceive themselves to be personally able to carry out an intended behaviour. One’s feasibility level is influenced by the presence of role models, mentors and partners. Krueger (1993: 17), for example, suggests that the impact of prior entrepreneurial exposure is indirect and that it operates through the concept of perceived feasibility. In addition, perceived feasibility involves thinking that the required resources to engage in the desired behaviour are available, and that all the obstacles are manageable (Krueger, 2000: 13).

In an entrepreneurial context, perceived feasibility refers to the extent to which an individual feels capable of successfully starting a business venture (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994: 66). If individuals are competent, they will possibly see entrepreneurship as a feasible action, and as a result will be more able to spot opportunities (Krueger, 2000: 7). Lebusa (2011: 58) supports the notion that individuals may be more persuaded to pursue entrepreneurial careers if they believe that they have the necessary skills to function in such an environment. Believing in one’s ability to function effectively as an entrepreneur is a key component to perceiving entrepreneurship as a feasible career option. (Lebusa, 2011: 58). Shapero and Sokol (1982) are of the opinion that if the idea of starting an entrepreneurial venture is not feasible, then an individual may conclude that the idea of starting the business is also undesirable. In order to increase positive perceptions, one needs to increase perceptions of personal as well as collective efficacy.

According to Shapero and Sokol (1982), the feasibility of a new venture may pertain to the accessibility of financial and other sources, as well as accessibility to the skills needed when starting an entrepreneurial venture. The expected return on the investment versus the time and effort invested, also influences the perceived feasibility of a new venture (Shapero & Sokol, 1982).

Both perceived desirability and perceived feasibility focus on an individual’s judgment of their ability to manage the business start-up process successfully (Krueger, 1993). Brice and Nelson (2008: 32) are of the opinion that the process of

forming entrepreneurial intentions occurs as a result of the interaction between perceived desirability and perceived feasibility, in other words, the preferences for an entrepreneurial career, based on the rewards or a satisfying way of life and the perceived feasibility or profit. The reward of profit can be described as the individual's expectation that the earnings received from the entrepreneurial venture will compensate him/her for the time and capital spent in creating the venture, as well as the risks endured (Brice & Nelson, 2008: 19).

3.3.1.3 Propensity to act

"Propensity to act" refers to an individual's inclination to act on a decision, and a person's resulting behaviour will depend on their tendency to act (Krueger, 1993: 3). *Propensity to act* is similar to risk-taking propensity and tolerance for ambiguity, whereby an individual is willing to take action even though the outcome is not known (Keuhn, 2008: 91; Shane, 2003). *Propensity to act* is also similar to locus of control, where the key factor is control, which is closely linked to the performance of the behaviour (Meeks, 1998: 74).

The propensity to act on an available opportunity should depend on an individual's perceptions of control. The desire to gain control through taking action acts as a moderator in the process of entrepreneurial intentions (Krueger, 1993: 9). According to Krueger and Kickull (2006: 13), people need to have a strong propensity to act on an opportunity, provided that the opportunity is enough reason for them to engage in the intended behaviour. If the propensity to act is high, then it is assumed that taking action will be seen as desirable and feasible, and one's experiences will result in a greater impact on one's attitude. Conversely, if the propensity to act is low, then attitudes may be less predictive of intentions to act in a certain way (Krueger, 1993: 9).

3.3.2 The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

The TPB is an intentions-based model that can be used to explain an individual's intention to carry out a given behaviour (Ariff *et al.*, 2010: 2). The TPB was developed from the theory of reasoned action (TRA) and aims to predict and

understand the factors that influence an individual's behaviour. The TRA proved restrictive in explaining individual behaviour paving the way for the development of the TPB. The TPB was developed in 1967 by Fishbein and later tested by Ajzen and Fishbein (Liou, 2009: 193). This theory was created as a powerful approach to explain human behaviour, with the main theme being an individual's intention to perform a given behaviour (Fayolle & Gailly, 2004). The main difference between the two theories is that the TPB proposes that intention to perform an act is not only restricted to attitude and subjective norms, but also includes the construct of Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC) (Zeydi, Heydarnia, Niknami & Variani, 2009: 206).

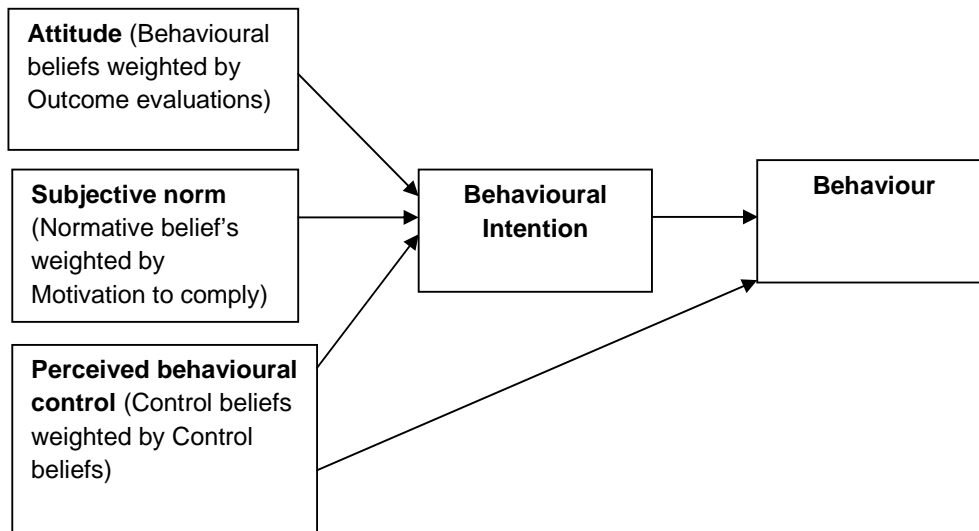
The TPB posits that decision-making starts off with certain beliefs, which influence attitudes towards the behaviour and the intentions towards that behaviour, and ultimately ends with the behaviour itself. An individual's intention to perform a certain behaviour serves as a decision point, and thereafter action is taken (Liou, 2009: 193). The TPB has proved successful in explaining intentions towards performing certain behaviour in the fields of social psychology, marketing and information systems, amongst others (Li, 2007: 451). The TPB postulates that an individual's behaviour is predictable at three levels: behaviour is predicted by intentions; intentions are predicted by attitude; and lastly attitudes and subjective norms are predicted by beliefs about the consequences of the behaviour (Liou, 2009: 193). Understanding the antecedents associated with the TPB results in an increased understanding of the intended behaviour. According to Ajzen (1991), entrepreneurial intentions are determined by an individual's *attitude towards the behaviour*, *subjective norms* and *perceived behavioural control*. These three antecedents that predict behavioural intentions are depicted in Figure 2.

According to Fayole and Gailly (2004), the TPB is a function of beliefs relevant to the behaviour, and thus human action is guided by the following considerations:

- Beliefs about the likely outcomes of the behaviour and the evaluations of these outcomes (behavioural beliefs), which are assumed to influence *attitudes toward the behaviour*,

- Beliefs about the normative expectations of others and motivation to comply with these expectations (normative beliefs), which constitute the underlying determinants of *subjective norms*;
- Beliefs about the presence of factors (control beliefs), which provide the basis for *perceptions of behavioural control*.

Figure 2: Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)



(Source: Ajzen, 2005: 135)

In summary, human behaviour is guided by different subjective probabilities, beliefs about the consequences of the behaviour, beliefs about the normative expectations of other people, and beliefs about the presence of factors which may help or hinder performance of the behaviour (Sommer, 2011: 92).

3.3.2.1 Attitude towards the behaviour

Understanding an individual's attitude towards behaviour provides insights into why that person behaves in a certain way. Attitudes are initiators of behaviour, and are at times referred to as "the hidden motivators for action" (Doe, 2001: 1). A favourable attitude towards a behaviour increases the chances that the behaviour will be carried out; attitude measures the extent to which an individual positively or negatively evaluates the behaviour (Linan, n.d.). According to Autio *et al.* (2001), *attitude*

towards the behaviour refers to the extent to which an individual has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question.

Zaidatol (2009: 340) defines “attitude towards self-employment” as an individual’s perception of working as the owner of a business, and an individual’s attitude towards self-employment is associated with self-employment intentions (Kolvereid, 1996). Nishimura and Tristan (2011: 62) argue that the extent to which an individual’s attitude is positive towards creating an entrepreneurial venture depends on whether a good opportunity exists. Furthermore, they contend that the higher the expectations are that the business will be successful, the more positive the attitude will be. Alternatively, if individuals do not think that a good opportunity exists, they will be less likely to be interested in starting up a business. To bring about a more positive attitude, one needs to raise expectations towards the behaviour by increasing the perceptions of a positive outcome for engaging in that behaviour (Krueger, 2000: 11). The TPB proposes that one’s attitude toward an entrepreneurial career or self-employment determines one’s intentions to embark on such a career path.

3.3.2.2 Subjective norms

“*Subjective norms*” refer to the social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour in question (Ajzen, 1991). This pressure originates from what important people (significant others) in an individual’s life think about the specific behaviour (Gird & Bagraim, 2008). Ravis and Sheeran, (2003: 173) describe “significant others” as individuals or groups of people whose preference about a person’s behaviour in a certain domain are important to the person. This social pressure stems from an individual’s perception of other people’s perceptions of the proposed behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB holds that subjective norms are a function of beliefs, meaning that if one’s referent group thinks or believes that the action should be performed by someone, then one is more likely to perform the behaviour in question. In this context “referents” refer to groups of people who are close to the individual, for example family, peers, spouse, close friend, teachers and anyone considered essential in the individual’s life (Arriff *et al.*, 2010: 4). Subjective norms evaluate the

social pressure imposed on the individual that result in feeling the desire to perform the behaviour in question (Conner & Norman, 2005).

Studies show that subjective norms have little influence on the intentions of carrying out a particular behaviour (Linan, n.d.; Linan & Chan, 2007: 5). However, van Gelderen *et al.*, (2008: 545) have found that subjective norms are important in determining entrepreneurial intentions. For example, Gelderen *et al.* (2008: 545) conclude that because students are still in the stage of finding out their career preferences, guidance from significant people in their lives has an influence on their intentions.

3.3.2.3 Perceived Behavioural Control

“Perceived behavioural control” refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of performing a particular behaviour in question. It is assumed that both past experience and anticipated obstacles influence perceived behavioural control (Ariff *et al.*, 2010: 4). According to Fayolle and Gailly (2004), if one feels in control of a specific situation, then one is more likely to develop an intention to perform that particular behaviour. Alternatively if one feels as that one has no control over a situation, then one is not likely to engage in the behaviour. Perceived behavioural control plays a significant role in the TPB, as undertaking certain behaviour is dependent on both the motivation (intention) and ability (behavioural control) to undertake that behaviour. This perceived behavioural control differs from the concept *“locus of control”* in that locus of control refers to the perception one has of being able to control the behaviour, while perceived behavioural control refers to the perception of control one has about how easy or difficult it is to carry out the behaviour (Fayolle & Gailly, 2004).

Subjective norm and attitude towards the behaviour are regarded as having a supporting role in the TBP. In other words, although these two antecedents are expected to influence intent, *perceived behavioural control* is seen as decisive for action (Nishimura & Tristan, 2011; Autio *et al.*, 2001). If an individual does not perceive to have control over the behaviour and its outcome, intentions are not likely

to lead to behaviour even though the other two antecedents are favourable (Nishimura & Tristan, 2011; Autio *et al.*, 2001).

The concept of perceived behavioural control is closely related to that of self-efficacy. "Self-efficacy" in an entrepreneurial context is defined as the belief that one has the ability to pursue an entrepreneurial venture (Nishimura & Tristan, 2011: 63). For example, Lebusa (2011: 58) has found that if a student believes that he or she has the necessary skills to pursue an entrepreneurial career, they are more inclined to follow such a career path. Positive self-efficacy influences the formation of business ventures (Lebusa, 2011: 58). Table 3.1 below summarises the concepts as used in the EEM and the TPB:

Table: 3.1 Comparisons of concepts as used in TPB and EEM

TPB	EEM
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attitude towards behaviour: The degree to which a person has favourable or unfavourable assessment of starting a business. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived desirability Personal attractiveness of starting a business.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subjective norm: The perceived social pressure to either engage or not engage in entrepreneurship. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived feasibility The degree to which an individual feels capable of engaging in entrepreneurship.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived behaviour control: The perceived ease or difficulty of performing entrepreneurship. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Propensity to act The personal disposition of an individual to act on his decision.

(Source: Wilbard, 2009: 27)

3.3.3 The similarities between the models of intention

As mentioned above, the theory of planned behaviour proposes that the *attitude towards the behaviour*, the social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour in question (*subjective norms*), and the *perceived behavioural control* (Ajzen, 1991), influence intentions to start an own business. Alternatively, Shapero and Sokol (1982) entrepreneurial theory propose that intention is the result of the *perceived desirability* and *perceived feasibility* of an entrepreneurial action. According to Urban, Botha and Urban (2010: 116) and Krueger and Brazeal (1994),

considerable overlap exists between Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour and Shapero's entrepreneurial events model.

Chuluunbartar, Ottavia, Luh and Kung (2011: 47) suggest that attitude towards the behaviour corresponds with Shapero's concept of perceived desirability, whereas perceived behavioural control is similar to the concept of perceived feasibility (Chuluunbartar *et al.* 2011:46). Linan (n.d.: 4) suggest that perceived desirability is the result of an individual's attitude towards the behaviour as well as subjective norms. Krueger *et al.* (2000: 419) contend that both models have elements that are associated with self-efficacy (perceived behavioural control and perceived feasibility). Perceived feasibility is similar to the concept of perceived self-efficacy, which refers to people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and over events that affect their lives (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994: 66). Milne, Labrecque and Cromer (2009: 451) define self-efficacy as individuals' beliefs in their ability to accomplish a task and or deal with changes that they encounter so that their action will have the anticipated outcome. The concept of self-efficacy represents an individual's inner thoughts on whether they have what it takes to successfully accomplish the task in question (Krueger & Kickull, 2006: 6)., These authors contend that one's actual ability is only important if one has self-confidence regarding the ability to convert one's skills into a chosen outcome (Krueger & Kickull, 2006: 6).

The concept of "perceived behaviour control" refers to the feeling of being able to perform and control an intended behaviour (McLaughlin, 2010: 2). Similarly, self-efficacy refers to whether or not one believes the endeavour in question is feasible (McLaughlin 2010: 2). Furthermore, Tavousi, Hidarnia, Montazeri, Hajizadeh, Taremain and Ghofranipour (2009: 147) assert that self-efficacy and perceived behavioural control are both control factors, suggesting that there is an overlap between these two constructs. There is no difference between the two concepts as they both refer to individuals' beliefs about their capability of performing a given behaviour. Both perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy refer to an individual's capacity with regard to a certain behaviour, as well as the ease with which the person believes they can perform the behaviour in question (Miller & Miller, 2011: 3).

3.4 ATTITUDES, PERCEPTIONS AND WORK VALUES

Attitude towards the behaviour has been recognised by several studies as having the strongest influence on entrepreneurial intentions (Gray *et al.*, 2010; Pihie, 2009; Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Lüthje & Franke, 2003). Ajzen (1985; 1991) describes *attitude towards the behaviour* as the extent to which an individual makes a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question, and additionally is a function of beliefs applicable to the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). *Attitude towards the behaviour* reflects a person's judgement about the impact of the desired behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). This attitude depends on one's expectations as well as beliefs about personal impacts of outcomes resulting from the behaviour (Krueger *et al.*, 2000: 417).

One's attitude towards self-employment refers to an individual's perception of working as the owner of a business (Zaidatol, 2009: 340), and according to the theory of planned behaviour, one's attitude towards an entrepreneurial career or self-employment determines one's intentions to embark on such a career path (Urban, Botha & Urban, 2010: 115). Douglas and Shepherd (2000) posit that when choosing a particular career path, a person must decide whether the desirability of that career option is greater than that of alternative options. The term "desirability" is a form of value (Steel & Konig, 2006), and values are considered to be important determinants of behaviour. According to Shapero and Sokol (1982), perceptions of desirability are the social and cultural factors that an individual articulates through the process of forming individual values. If one values challenge and excitement, then one is more likely to look for a congruent professional lifestyle that will offer these values.

3.5 VALUES

In the literature numerous descriptions or definitions for the concept "values" can be found, several of which are summarised in Table 3.2 below. From these various definitions it is evident that common to all is that values influence an individual's decision-making and behavioural choices.

Table 3.2: Values

Definitions:	References
Beliefs about individually or generally preferred modes of conduct on how one is supposed to act or behave. Beliefs that individuals have with regard to the manner in which people should act and/or behave and the goals that individuals should strive to achieve. Enduring beliefs that an explicit form of behavior is personally or socially preferable to an alternative mode of conduct.	Suar & Khuntia, 2010: 443. Lyons, 2003: 1. Diskienė & Gođtautas, 2010: 298.
Standards of desirability in terms of which individuals assess different parts of their world and make choices between the different options present.	Warr, 2008: 752.
Important concepts that are held by individuals and society at large; they guide and explain the reasoning behind choices that individuals make.	Wang, Hyde, Chen & Hsien, 2010: 873.
Goals that one desires and can be used to guide a person's life. Goals that one desires which differ in importance and serve as guiding beliefs in an individual's life.	Ucanok, 2009: 627. Sousa, Ruzo & Losada, 2010: 4.
Drivers that influence one's behaviour; they motivate people to take action and are main beliefs that individuals follow.	Joan, n.d.
Important elements that can be used to explain an individual's attitudes and behaviour.	Sousa, Ruzo & Losada, 2010: 1.
Prominent expressions of intentionality	Aadland, 2010: 462.

Individuals have several values in their lives, with different values having different degrees of importance. One value may be very important to one person but have no importance to the next. According to Schwartz (2006: 1), values can be characterised by the following:

- *Self-direction*. Independent thought and action; choosing, creating and exploring.
- *Stimulation*. Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.
- *Hedonism*. Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself.
- *Achievement*. Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards.
- *Power*. Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources.
- *Security*. Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self.

- *Conformity*. Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms.
- *Tradition*. Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self.
- *Benevolence*. Preserving and enhancing the welfare of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact (the 'in-group').
- *Universalism*. Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature.

Values are considered important determinants of human behaviour. They play a key role in establishing personal goals and work-related motivation, and have been correlated to organisational behaviour, academic performance and career decision-making (Busacca, Beebe & Toman, 2010: 2). Values influence one's attitude, decisions, judgement and actions, and are considered key drivers of one's personal, social and professional choices (Warr, 2008: 751). According to Warr (2008: 752), one's actions and attitude towards different situations are determined by one's values. Individuals seek to attain and achieve what they value, and actions are taken in order to attain what they desire. As such, values are important because they influence one's behaviour and allow one to determine the reasons why one acts in a certain manner (Warr, 2008: 752).

Values are stable and can be used to determine an individual's behaviour across different types of situations (Sousa, Ruzo & Losada, 2010: 2). According to Eyal, Sagristano, Trope, Liberman and Chaiken (2009: 36), when an opportunity appears and is perceived as attractive, then the relationship between values and the behaviour in question is affected in a positive manner.

Jaén, Moriano and Liñán (2010: 1) point out that the decision to follow an entrepreneurial career is a complex one and may be influenced by a person's values. In order to ascertain the values that an individual considers important in the work context, the concept of work values will be discussed in the paragraphs below.

3.5.1 Work values

As mentioned above “desirability” is a form of value (Steel & Konig, 2006), and values are important determinants of behaviour, especially values that impact work attitudes (Twenge *et al.*, 2010: 19). An individual’s work values are the components of a job that are important to one’s work satisfaction (Twenge *et al.*, 2010: 1121; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007: 359). Work values reflect an individual’s propensity to prefer certain job characteristics, outcomes or features of the work environment (Zhang, Wang & Teng, 2007: 1282). Work values also refer to the aspects of a job that an individual likes or prefers in a job (Zhang, Wang & Teng, 2007: 1282).). Furthermore, Zhang, Wang and Teng (2007: 1283) define work values as beliefs that permit the understanding of an individual’s behaviour in the workplace, and Knezevic and Ovsenic (2001: 37) describe work values as common and permanent goals that individuals seek to achieve throughout their professional career. McKay (n.d.) is of the opinion that taking one’s values into consideration when choosing a career could be vital in determining whether one is satisfied or not with that aspect of life.

Work values are important factors for both initial career choice and career choices in general. Hence, understanding an individual’s work values can provide insight into the career aspirations that one will engage in (Rousseau & Venter, 2009). Work values also have the propensity to significantly predict career choice, job satisfaction and job performance (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007: 359).

According to Cennamo and Gardner (2008: 892), work values can be divided into six basic dimensions, namely intrinsic, extrinsic, social, altruistic, prestige and freedom-related. *Intrinsic work values* relate to the aspects of a job that provide mental stimulation (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008: 892) Examples of intrinsic values include an interesting and results-orientated job that offers one the opportunity to be creative (Twenge *et al.*, 2010: 1121). These work values are related to the goals that one attains in the workplace (Zhang, Wang & Teng, 2007: 1282). *Extrinsic work values* refer to those outcomes of the job that yield material benefits (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009: 130) or tangible rewards such as job security, a good salary, and benefits (Twenge *et al.*, 2010; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007; Lyons, 2003). These work values are independent of the work content (Zhang, Wang & Teng, 2007: 1282). *Social values*

refer to an importance placed on having social interaction with other people (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007; Lyons, 2003), while *altruistic values* refer to work that benefits other people as well as society at large (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007; Lyons, 2003)., Altruistic activities related to that value help others with any problems that they may be experiencing (Knezevic & Ovsenik, 2001: 40). *Prestige values* relate to the importance placed on having a prestigious and respected occupation (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008: 892; Lyons, 2003). *Freedom-related values* refer to work that allows one freedom in the selection of tasks, as well as the manner in which the work may be done (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007; Lyons, 2003).

For the purpose of this study, the 14 work values identified by Farrington *et al.*, (2011) will serve as the factors to be investigated in establishing the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career. These work values and their supporting descriptive statements are summarised in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Work Values

Work values	Statements reflecting work values
Time	Work-life balance; time to spend with friends and family; time for interests outside of work; time for a social life; working hours that allow one to have a good social life; regularity of work hours.
Flexibility	Flexible working hours; job and career flexibility; opportunity to move between workplaces.
Financial benefit	High salary; opportunity to earn lots of money; increased personal income; initial and future earning potential; salary and benefits; financial gain; economic reward; instrumentality of wealth; acquisition of personal wealth; financial success.
Challenging	Doing challenging work/tasks; challenging career; competing demands; challenging profession.
Stimulating	Doing exciting work; doing a variety of things; change and diversity in tasks, place and people; rapidly changing; interesting and exciting; enjoyable and stimulating; fun; adventure; doing what you love; happy to go to work; not mundane and repetitive.
Imaginative	Permits creativity and originality; opportunity to be creative; build on ideas and adapt or re-invent them; develop new ideas, innovation and initiatives.

Table 3.3: Work Values (continued)

Security	Being sure of a job; being certain of keeping a job; being certain a job will last; a stable future; employment security; job security; confidence in income; personal security; provide for retirement.
Prestige	Being looked up to by others; prestige; respected position in the community; gain public recognition; status in family and in society; status of profession; recognition.
Autonomy	Freedom, independence and choice; doing my work in my own way; make my own decisions; independence of actions; sense of freedom and power; maintain personal freedom.
Interaction	Getting to know fellow workers; developing close ties with co-workers; working closely with people; people-orientated; opportunity to work with people; working as part of a team; social interaction; having pleasant friendly contacts; interaction with others.
Serving the community	Being of service to society; making the world a better place; helping others; socially responsible; contribution to the community; contribution to society; helping and caring for others; opportunity to help others; worthwhile to society.
Stress*	Feeling threatened; feeling uncomfortable; gives one a sinking feeling when thinking of it; dealing with crises and conflicts; working under pressure.
Responsibility	Management responsibility; degree of responsibility expected to assume; responsibility for other people; responsibility for getting things done; responsibility for significant business activities.
Future prospects	Opportunities for promotion and advancement; future career progression; career advancement progress; promotion prospects for the future.

* Note: Stress is not considered to be a value, but being "stress-free" is. The reverse of this factor is considered a value for the purpose of this study

(Source: Farrington *et al.*, 2011)

The 14 work values identified by Farrington *et al.* (2011) were based on several studies (Miller, 2009; What students want, 2007; Millward, Houston, Brown & Barrett, 2006; Myburgh, 2005; Burger, Mahadea & O'Neil, 2004; Moy, Luk & Wright, 2003) investigating the various aspects influencing occupational choices. This study investigates these values in the context of an entrepreneurial career.

3.6 SUMMARY

The main purpose of this chapter was to examine and gain an understanding of the nature of intentions and the factors that influence intentions. The chapter began by explaining the nature of intentions and entrepreneurial intentions. This was followed by a discussion of the different intentions models that have been identified in the literature. Intentions are the motivating factors that influence behaviour, and intentions to act are thus central to understanding the behaviours that people engage in. Intentions models have been found to be suited to entrepreneurship because the entrepreneurial process is a planned one. The importance of attitude towards behaviour as a factor influencing intentions was specifically discussed, and the influence of values on the attitude towards a behaviour was highlighted.

Values and the importance of values in influencing career decisions was briefly discussed. Attention was specifically given to the different work values. The 14 work values identified by Farrington *et al.*, (2011) will serve as the factors to be investigated in establishing the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in this study.

Chapter 4 will consider the theoretical and empirical support for the hypothesised relationships to be tested in this study. More especially, the relationship between the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career as described by the 14 work values under investigation and entrepreneurial intentions will be investigated.

CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Against the theoretical background of Chapters 2 and 3 and the primary objectives formulated in Chapter 1, Chapter 4 presents several hypotheses which are subjected to further empirical testing in this study.

Several factors influence an individual's intention to start an entrepreneurial career, most of which were identified and discussed in the preceding chapters. The specific focus of this study is on how the perception of an entrepreneurial career, in terms of several work place values, influences a person's intention to start his/her own business. In Chapter 4, a theoretical framework of the hypothesised relationships between the independent and the dependent variables is proposed and theoretical and empirical support for these relationships is elaborated on.

4.2 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Several hypotheses have been developed in order to achieve the objectives of this study, which are to establish whether the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career influence the intention of embarking on such a career, and whether demographic variables influence entrepreneurial intentions. These hypotheses are elaborated on in the paragraphs below.

4.2.1 Perceptions, work values and entrepreneurial intentions

Perceptions of desirability have been described as "the social and cultural factors that an individual expresses through the process of forming individual values" (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). For instance, if one values challenge and excitement, then one is more likely to look for a congruent professional lifestyle that satisfies this need for challenge and excitement (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). According to Twenge *et al.*, (2010: 5) work values shape an employee's preference in the workplace and also

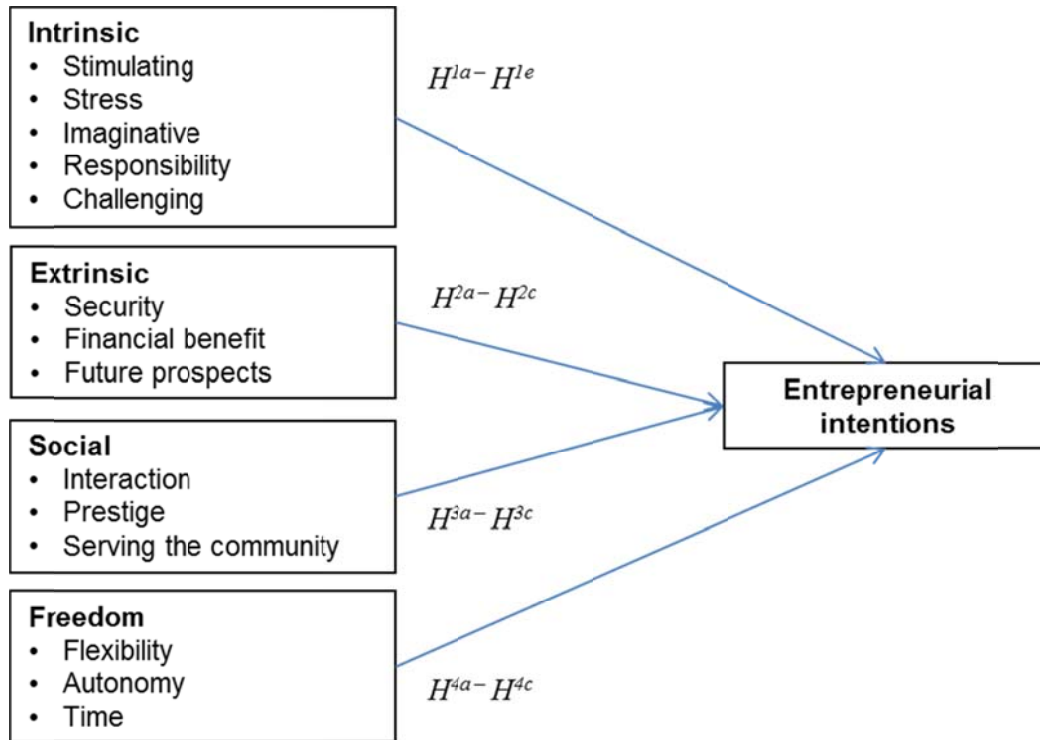
influence his/her perceptions, behaviours and judgements regarding a specific job. Therefore, work values predict career choice (Twenge *et al.*, 2010). Judge and Bretz (1991: 3) assert that work values are related to the way in which people feel about their work, to the way they behave within the job context and to their overall job satisfaction.

Whether an individual chooses self-employment or employment, the decision is influenced by the outcomes and values associated with each alternative (Brenner *et al.*, 1991:63). Ucanok (2009: 626) asserts that in order to understand an individual's work-related behaviour, it is imperative to understand the connection between values, attitude and behaviour. An individual's values represent a strong motivational force that influences behaviour (Ucanok, 2009: 627).

According to Judge and Bretz (1991: 2), work values play a significant role in influencing one's job choice. Individuals are also prone to choose jobs whose values are similar to their own value orientation. Ucanok (2009: 628) is of the opinion that work values are more specific than an individual's general life values which refer to all aspects of his/her life, while work values concentrate on a specific life area, namely the workplace. A basic assumption exists that an individual's values remain stable throughout his/her life, and that the work environment is unlikely to alter those values (Lusk & Olivier, 1974).

For the purpose of this study, the perceptions that employees have of an entrepreneurial career have been established in terms of several work values (*Time, Flexibility, Financial benefits, Challenge, Stimulation, Imagination, Security, Prestige, Autonomy, Interaction, Serving the community, Stress, Responsibility and Future prospects*). The various hypothesised relationships between these work values and the entrepreneurial intentions to be tested, are depicted in Figure 1 below.

Figure 4.1: Proposed theoretical framework: Work values influencing entrepreneurial intentions



(Source: Researcher's own construction)

- $H^{1a, 1c-1e}$: There is a positive relationship between the perception of the intrinsic-related work values (*Stimulating, Stress, Imaginative, Responsibility* and *Challenging*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{1b} : There is a negative relationship between the perception of the intrinsic-related work value, *Stress*, as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{2a-2b} : There is a positive relationship between the perception of the extrinsic-related work values (*Security, Financial benefit* and *Future prospects*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{3a-3c} : There is a positive relationship between the perceptions of the social-related work value (*Interaction, Prestige* and *Serving the community*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

H^{4a-4c}: There is a positive relationship between the perceptions of the freedom-related work value (*Flexibility, Autonomy and Time*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

Based on the paragraphs above, the extent to which an individual perceives that he/she will experience certain values within the context of a particular career, the more likely he/she is to embark on that career. The 14 work values identified in this study have been divided into four categories. How these work values are experienced in the context of an entrepreneurial career is described in the paragraphs below.

4.2.1.1 Intrinsic-related work values: Stimulating, Stress, Imaginative, Responsibility and Challenging.

Entrepreneurs have the ability to challenge existing assumptions and to be flexible and adaptable when solving problems (Rwigema & Venter, 2004: 62). Entrepreneurs tend to be more creative than others as they are able to think in unconventional ways (Rwigema & Venter, 2004: 62). Nieman *et al.* (2003: 15) define "creativity" as the process of refining current procedures within the business, identifying opportunities and coming up with credible solutions to existing problems. According to Ward (2004: 173), one of the challenges facing entrepreneurs is that of generating ideas for a venture which has the potential of being developed into an appealing goods and or services business. In order to be successful in their businesses, entrepreneurs also need to consistently come up with ideas that will appeal to the target market and then continually be able to convince the market that the product/service is of value (Ward, 2004: 174). In order to ensure a profitable enterprise, entrepreneurs must consistently come up with ways of doing things differently in the enterprise (Nieman *et al.*, 2003: 15).

Running one's own business is a demanding task as the owner is responsible for the success or failure of the business (Chay, 1993: 287). According to Rwigema and Venter (2004: 62), entrepreneurs are required to carry the burden alone should a need arise to do that. An entrepreneur has no-one to blame for the performance of the business; hence, he/she must ensure that everything is running smoothly

(Rwigema & Venter, 2004: 62). Similarly, Kuratko and Hodgetts (2007: 116) assert that entrepreneurs are personally responsible for taking the initiative and leadership in solving any problems their enterprise may come across. The entrepreneur is responsible and accountable for the performance of the business, and is responsible for the employees working there.

According to Harris, Saltstone and Frabini (1999: 447), entrepreneurs are subject to large amount of stress because of the heavy workload they carry and the role ambiguity they experience. Stress also occurs when entrepreneurs are unable to balance their work and family life (Gholipour, Bod, Zehtabi, Pirannejad & Kozekanan, 2010: 133). These findings concur with Blanchflower (2004: 18) who reports that self-employment is stressful, involves long hours at work and puts a strain on one's family life. Stress occurs when demands exceed resources, for example when entrepreneurs find events threatening or demanding, and find that their coping resources are inadequate (Chay, 1993: 299). Entrepreneurs are expected to engage in constant communication with customers, suppliers, regulators, lawyers and accountants which can be stressful. Furthermore they are required to play multiple roles such as being a salesperson, recruiter, spokesperson and negotiator, all of which contribute to the high levels of stress experienced (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2007: 127).

4.2.1.2 Extrinsic-related work values: Security, Financial benefit and Future prospects

According to Twenge *et al.* (2010: 1121), extrinsic-related work values focus on the consequences or outcomes of work. Extrinsic rewards are tangible rewards external to the individual, such as income, advancement opportunities and status. According to Bosch *et al.* (2011: 109), being self-employed comes with the prospect of financial freedom and financial rewards. Entrepreneurs can expect to be compensated for the time and capital that they have invested in the business.

However, a study conducted by Benz (2006: 532), showed that an entrepreneurial career is not particularly attractive in financial terms. Benz (2006: 5) asserts that entrepreneurs can expect to start with lower initial earnings than persons in paid

employment, and will also experience lower growth of earnings. It is expected that only the most successful entrepreneurs, specifically those in the top quartile of the income distribution, are found to have similar or higher earnings than employees. According to Benz and Frey (2007), aspects such as pay, job security and opportunities for advancement do not account for the differences in job satisfaction observed between self-employed and employed persons.

4.2.1.3 Social-related work values: Interaction, Prestige and Serving the community

Given their similarity, for the purpose of this study, social, status and altruistic-related work values have been combined into one category. This category has been named "social work values" and includes *Interaction, Prestige and Serving the community*.

Previously, an entrepreneur was thought of as an autocrat who works in isolation to achieve his/her business objectives. However, it has come to light that entrepreneurs are required to be team players, as it is the team that works together to achieve the goals of the enterprise (Career Building, 2001: 180). According to Ismail, Khalid, Othman, Rahman, Kassim and Zain (2009: 55), entrepreneurs are required to interact with a diverse range of individuals including venture capitalists, partners, employees and customers. Similarly, Kuratko and Hodgetts (2007: 127) contend that entrepreneurs are expected to interact with a variety of persons such as customers, suppliers, regulators, lawyers and accountants.

According to Bosch *et al.*, (2011: 91) individuals who start up entrepreneurial ventures are seen as achievers and are respected in their communities. Furthermore, in South Africa entrepreneurs are seen as role models and are given heroic status (Bosch *et al.*, 2011: 91). In his study Sinclair (2008: 790) found that the need for approval of friends, family and society helps to explain why some individuals choose to enter and/or start an entrepreneurial career and others do not. The respondents participating in Klyver's study (2010: 2) reported that individuals successful in starting up entrepreneurial ventures have high levels of respect and status. They also reported that the higher the status and respect, the greater the likelihood of respondents having entrepreneurial intentions (Klyver, 2010: 27).

Cassar (2007: 93) found that the decision to become an entrepreneur is influenced by the extent to which entrepreneurs achieve recognition and approval from their peers. In their study Luiz and Mariotti (2008: 3) reported that the respondents participating in their study believed that South Africa was a good country in which to start a business. However, they were neutral about whether their local communities would support them in such a career path.

According to Co, Groenewald, Mitchell, Nayager, van Zyl, Visser, Meyer, Emanuel, and Train (2007:5), being an entrepreneur provides an opportunity to make a contribution to society. Morrison (2000: 62) asserts that throughout history, entrepreneurs have been useful to society, in that they contribute towards solving dilemmas and breaking old and hierarchical traditions. When choosing a career path, entrepreneurs value being able to have an impact on the communities in which they work (Sinclair, 2008: 789). For example, in his study Brush (1992) found that female business-owners tended to balance economic goals with other kinds of goals, such as personal enjoyment and helping others.

4.2.1.4 Freedom-related work values: Flexibility, Autonomy and Time

In comparison to employed individuals, self-employed individuals usually have more flexibility in terms of working hours (Verheul *et al.*, 2009: 274). For example, Bann (2009: 69) asserts that entrepreneurs can take time off for holiday whenever they need to and have a certain degree of freedom to come and go as they please. Barrow (2011: 436) contends that entrepreneurs need to be flexible because they need to adapt quickly to changing circumstances. Furthermore, they need to see change as the norm and not as a temporary and unexpected disturbance. An entrepreneurial career is able to provide the flexibility and balance that other career choices may not (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003: 817).

According to DeMartino and Barbato (2003: 816), entrepreneurship is a flexible career and many women, especially married women, pursue such careers because of the opportunity it provides for them to meet family obligations. Because women have a greater need than their male counterparts to balance work and family responsibilities, an entrepreneurial career is able to provide the flexibility to maintain

this balance (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003: 817). For example, women see entrepreneurship as a vehicle to integrate their work life with both personal life and family obligations (Maysami & Goby, 1999). A study conducted in Australia confirmed that many women embark on entrepreneurial careers because of the flexibility and balance between work life and family relationships that such a career allows (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003: 817).

According to Bosch *et al.*, (2011: 109), having one's own business provides a feeling of being in control of one's own destiny and being able to achieve what is important. The prospect of being one's own boss is one of the most highly valued characteristics of entrepreneurship, especially for later-life entrepreneurs. One can enjoy the freedom of running one's own business in the manner one sees fit (Rogoff, 2009: 93). In his study Benz (2006:6) reports that self-employed individuals are more satisfied in their jobs because they have more autonomy, greater possibilities to use their skills and abilities, and a higher degree of work flexibility than in an alternative career. Jahanshahi (2010: 4349) asserts that entrepreneurs have a strong desire for autonomy. Kirby, (2002) contends that entrepreneurs value individualism and freedom more than do either the general public or managers, neither do they like rules, procedures or social norms. Consequently, entrepreneurs have difficulty functioning in constraining environments that stifle their creativity and can experience difficulty relating to others. Entrepreneurs like to be in control, and as a result they have been found to have a higher need for autonomy and a greater fear of external control than many other occupational groups (Kirby, 2002). According to Kennedy, Drennan, Renfrow, and Watson (2003: 2), an entrepreneurial career can provide one with a flexible lifestyle and a considerable amount of autonomy.

According to Dorman (2008), an entrepreneurial career can potentially lead to living a very busy life with the entrepreneur being fully occupied with the business, the employees and customers. Individuals who work for themselves work very hard and usually spend more than 50 hours a week at work (Chay, 1993: 287). Similarly, Hill, Lawhorne and Philpott (2011: 112) contend that entrepreneurs are compelled to work twelve to eighteen hours a day. According to Bosch *et al.*, (2011) entrepreneurs are married to their businesses. They work long hours, leaving little time for recreation or activities outside the context of the business. This is supported by

Rwigema and Venter (2004: 57) who assert that an entrepreneur's family life might suffer as a result of business ownership. Business ownership requires working long hours which lead to being absent from home. Especially in the early years, entrepreneurs have little free time to relax, and friends and family often take a back seat (Bosch *et al.*, 2011). In contrast however, Timmons (2009) claims that there is no evidence that all entrepreneurs work more than their corporate counterparts. He finds that some do and others do not, while some even report that they work less.

4.3 THE INFLUENCE OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON PERCEPTIONS AND ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS

In addition to the work values as discussed above, several demographic variables are also hypothesised as influencing the intention to follow an entrepreneurial career. Demographic factors such as age, having entrepreneurial parents as role models, gender, and population group have been proposed as having an impact on entrepreneurial intention. Anecdotal and empirical evidence supporting these relationships is presented below.

4.3.1 Age and Entrepreneurship

Empirical studies (Bönte, Falck & Heblich, 2009) based on individual data have reported an inverse U-shaped relationship between age and the decision to start a business. Evans and Leighton (1989), on the other hand, found that the rate at which individuals participate in entrepreneurial ventures increases with age and stays constant thereafter. Grilo and Thurik (2005) conclude that the likelihood of becoming an entrepreneur varies with age. Their results showed that the majority of business owners are within the age category of 25 to 45 years and nascent entrepreneurship is highest in the age category of 25 to 34 years (Grilo & Thurik, 2005). American studies (Hisrich & Peters 1998) have also reported that entrepreneurs tend to start new ventures between the ages of 22 and 45 years of age. Even though Rogoff (2009: 93) suggests that people are increasingly starting businesses at a younger age, he is of the opinion that older individuals have the key elements that encourage the spirit of entrepreneurship and support the success of the entrepreneurial venture. These elements include education and experience, financial capabilities and strong

networks. Similarly, Raijman (2001: 395) contends that individuals wishing to follow an entrepreneurial career require work experience in order to gain the skills needed to carry out such a venture. As a result of the time that passes in acquiring these necessary skills, entrepreneurial careers are postponed until later in life.

Against this background the following hypotheses are proposed for empirical testing:

- H⁰¹: There is no relationship between the demographic variable *Age* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H^{a1}: There is a relationship between the demographic variable *Age* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H⁰²: There is no relationship between the demographic variable *Age* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{a2}: There is a relationship between the demographic variable *Age* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

4.3.2 Role models and Entrepreneurship

Ajzen (1991) asserts that an individual's decision to engage in a certain type of behaviour is often influenced by the behaviour and opinions of others. Van Auken, Fry and Stephens (2006: 158) contend that role models have the propensity to enhance the desire to become an entrepreneur as well as to enhance an individual's self-efficacy. Krueger *et al.*, (2000) assert that positive role models and increased perceptions of self-efficacy in turn positively influence entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial activity. Furthermore, Bosma, Hessels, Schutjens, van Praag and Verheul (2011: 5) state that role models are consistently being identified and or acknowledged as an influential factor explaining why individuals choose a certain career path. Bosma *et al.*, (2011: 5) believe that role models provide living proof to aspiring entrepreneurs that certain goals are achievable. Hence, entrepreneurs develop the desire to become entrepreneurial by encouraging individuals to turn their entrepreneurial ambitions into reality (Mueller, 2006). By contrast, Krueger (1993: 10) asserts that entrepreneurs tend to have role models, but the presence of role models has no influence on entrepreneurial intentions.

Carr and Sequeira (2007: 1090) are of the opinion that prior family business experience can either positively and or negatively shape a person's attitude and behaviour towards engaging in an entrepreneurial career. Drennan, Kennedy and Renfrow (2005) found that individuals who had a positive view of their family's business experience, perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible.

A family member or relative with his/her own business serves as an important role model for prospective entrepreneurs (Ahmed, Nawaz, Ahmed, Shaukat, Usman, Rehman, & Ahmed 2010: 16). According to Ahmad *et al.*, (2010: 16), individuals with parents who owned their own business are more likely to have intentions of having their own entrepreneurial venture. Ariff *et al.*, (2010: 16) report that most of the students participating in their study believed that family members play a significant role in encouraging them to get involved in entrepreneurial endeavours. Similarly, Scherer, Brodzinski and Wieba (1990: 42) found evidence that individuals with successful entrepreneurial parents had a greater preference for following an entrepreneurial career than those individuals without entrepreneurial parents.

According to Mueller (2006), the presence of entrepreneurs may legitimate entrepreneurial aspirations and action. However, Bomsa *et al.*, (2011: 3) contend that a link between the presence of role models and one's decision to pursue an entrepreneurial career has not been established and that the relationship between the role model and the entrepreneur is unknown. Additionally, empirical studies have not looked at the theoretical insights concerning how role models make a contribution to the establishment of entrepreneurial ventures (Bomsa *et al.*, 2011: 3).

According to Shahhosseini, Kavousy, Shirsavar and Ardahaey (2011: 108) if an individual is exposed to an entrepreneurial environment, the chances are higher that he/she will acquire a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship. However, Kakkonen (2010) states that the existence of an entrepreneur in the family or an acquaintance has no impact or influence on entrepreneurial intentions.

Against this background the following hypotheses are proposed for empirical testing:

- H⁰¹: There is no relationship between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H^{a1}: There is a relationship between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H⁰²: There is no relationship between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{a2}: There is a relationship between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

4.3.3 Gender and Entrepreneurship

In recent times the number of women becoming entrepreneurs has increased (Kakkonen, 2010; Reynolds, Bygrave & Autio, 2004). This number is, however, still low in comparison to the number of males becoming entrepreneurs (Yordanova, 2011: 289). According to Tsygonova and Shirokova (2010: 120), the level of entrepreneurial activity among males is higher than among females even though entrepreneurship has been recognised as an important source of employment for women across different countries.

According to Adoram (2011: 14) several reasons exist for this difference in numbers, namely, that women have smaller start-up capital than their male counterparts, women are more risk-averse than males, and women have less financial management knowledge. Maslow and Patton (2005: 717) contend that women who pursue self-employment are at a disadvantage because of their gender.

According to Gupta, Turban, Wasti and Sikdar (2009: 397), entrepreneurs are perceived to have predominantly masculine characteristics. Van Deusen (2006) contends that masculine culture is more inclined to value success, money, independent decision-making, recognition and advancement. By contrast, feminine society is more inclined to value caring for others, quality of life, a friendly atmosphere, employment security and group decision-making (Van Deusen, 2006). Therefore, entrepreneurship is considered a male domain, and as a result men are more likely to have and/or to develop entrepreneurial intentions than are women.

Research shows that women and men pursue different goals when they make career choices, and that they have different motives for engaging in an entrepreneurial career. Studies show that women look for balance in terms of financial and individual goals (Geissler, John, Loebel & Zanger 2011: 8) whereas men are motivated by the earnings potential that could be generated from pursuing an entrepreneurial career (Gurley-Calvez, Harper & Biehl, 2009). Men also perceive an entrepreneurial career to be more controllable, and it is easier for men to identify an entrepreneurial opportunity than women (Geissler, *et al.*, 2011: 8).

Against this background the following hypotheses are proposed for empirical testing:

- H⁰¹: There is no relationship between the demographic variable *Gender* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H^{a1}: There is a relationship between the demographic variable *Gender* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H⁰²: There is no relationship between the demographic variable *Gender* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{a2}: There is a relationship between the demographic variable *Gender* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

4.3.4 Population group and Entrepreneurship

According to Urban (2006: 172), South Africa is a culturally heterogeneous society and different cultural values are speculated to influence the inclination towards entrepreneurship among major population groups. Furthermore, Urban (2006) is of the opinion that a noteworthy difference exists among the various population groups in terms of entrepreneurial intentions. Race and population group have been used on several occasions to predict entrepreneurial activity (Kiggundu, 2002:241).

Several studies (such as Fairlie, 2004 and Bates, 2000) have looked at the relationship between racial differences and self-employment. For example, Köllinger and Minniti (2006:59) report that Black and Hispanic Americans reveal lower rates of self-employment than other population groups. Although Köllinger and Minniti (2006: 63) reported that Blacks were almost twice as likely to start a business as Whites,

Blacks were significantly less likely than Whites to own an established business that survived beyond the initial start-up. On the other hand, Farlie (2005: 10) found that Blacks, Latinos, and Native Americans are less likely to start businesses than are White Americans.

According to Herrington *et al.* (2010:71), in South Africa, White South Africans are more likely to start entrepreneurial ventures than are Coloured and Black South Africans. However, Luiz and Mariotti (2008:4) found that African students perceive themselves as more likely to start their own business, followed by Coloured, White and Asian students. Follow-up interviews revealed that Africans aspire towards an entrepreneurial career because of the role model billionaires who have emerged through Black Economic Empowerment.

Against this background the following hypotheses are proposed for empirical testing:

- H⁰¹: There is no relationship between demographic variable *Population group* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H^{a1}: There is a relationship between demographic variable *Population group* and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- H⁰²: There is no relationship between demographic variable *Population group* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{a2}: There is a relationship between demographic variable *Population group* and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

4.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter a theoretical framework of hypothesised relationships between the independent variables (work values) and the dependent variable (*Entrepreneurial intentions*) was proposed. For the purpose of this study the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career are established in terms of several work values. These work values have been categorised into four groups, namely intrinsic-, extrinsic-, social- and freedom-related work values and serve as the independent variables in this study. In addition, support has been provided for these hypothesised relationships, and an entrepreneurial career described in terms of each of these work values.

In addition, several demographic variables were also hypothesised as influencing the intention to follow, and the perception of, an entrepreneurial career. Demographic factors such as age, having entrepreneurial parents (role models), gender and population group were considered. Anecdotal and empirical evidence supporting these relationships was elaborated on.

In Chapter 5, the research design and methodology adopted to achieve the objectives of this study will be discussed. More specifically, the population, sampling technique, and the development of the measuring instrument will be described. Furthermore, the data collection and reliability and validity assessments will be elaborated on. Finally, the statistical techniques adopted to analyse the data will be presented.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Research is a formal, systematic and precise process undertaken in order to gain solutions to problems and/or to discover and interpret new facts and relationships (Waltz & Bausell, 1981). Payton (1979) describes the process of research as the steps taken in looking for a specific answer to a specific question in an organised, objective and reliable manner. More relevant to the current research is the description of Kerlinger (1973:1), who asserts that the features and purpose of research entail critically investigating hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations amid natural phenomena. According to Cooper and Schindler (2006: 71), research design is the “blueprint for fulfilling objectives and answering questions”. It is a plan of how one intends to conduct the research (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 74) or a strategy that the researcher follows in order to solve a research problem (Leedy & Ormrod, 2003: 85). In addition, Collins and Hussey (2003: 13) assert that the research design is the science and art of planning procedures for conducting studies in order to maintain the most valid findings.

In Chapter 1 the primary objective of this study was presented, namely to establish the perceptions that employees have of self-employment, running their own business or following an entrepreneurial career and to establish the influence of these perceptions on their entrepreneurial intentions. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology that was employed to address this primary objective. In this chapter the research paradigm adopted is explained and justified. Furthermore, an introduction to the population studied, as well as a description of the sampling method used will be given. Thereafter, the independent and dependent variables will be operationalised and an explanation provided of how the measuring instrument was developed and administered. The statistical techniques used to assess the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument will be given, and lastly the statistical techniques adopted to analyse the data collected during the empirical investigation will be described.

5.2 QUANTITATIVE TESTING AND ANALYSES

5.2.1 Research paradigm

The principles of a good research design include the following: one's design must match the research questions of the study; the construct definitions must match the operationalisations; the models must be carefully specified; the study must make use of measures with established validity; and the samples used must be appropriate to the research questions (Bono & McNamara, 2011: 559).

As previously mentioned, a research design is the "blueprint that acts as a guide in the process of collecting and analysing data". A researcher has the choice of using either an exploratory, descriptive or causal research design. In the aforementioned research designs, the researcher usually employs both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms (Taneja, Taneja & Gupta, 2011: 374). Kim (2003: 9) asserts that when researchers are on a journey to knowledge, they employ various research paradigms to guide them through the knowledge-seeking stage.

A post-positivism researcher uses qualitative methods to describe and explore a phenomenon in depth (Lawal, 2009: 55). A qualitative research method is concerned with using data in the form of text, images, sounds drawn from observations, interviews and documentary evidence, and analyses the data using qualitative methods (Taneja, Taneja & Gupta, 2011: 374; Hair, Money, Samuel & Page 2007: 151). The researcher also uses phenomenological interviews or ethnography induction, and an analysis method based on themes and concepts (Lawal, 2009: 55). According to Krauss (2005: 759), most qualitative researchers function under different epistemological assumptions from quantitative researchers, as they believe that the best way to understand any phenomenon is to view it in its context. The best way for many qualitative researchers to understand what is going on, is to become immersed in the study, to move into the culture or organisation being studied, and to experience what it is like to be a part of it. Rather than constructing a fixed instrument or set of questions, qualitative researchers choose to allow the questions to surface and change as one becomes acquainted with the study content (Krauss, 2005: 760).

The positivistic, also known as the quantitative approach, is adopted when the researcher studies phenomena of interest and looks at standardised subjects and statistical analysis as well as scientific explanations of cause and effect (Lawal, 2009: 55). Quantitative research methods entail collecting numerical data (that is data in the form of numbers) and analysing the data using statistical methods (Taneja *et al.*, 2011: 374). Hair, Money, Samuel and Page (2007: 151) contend that in quantitative research data, numbers are used to represent the characteristics of something, and they are presented in a form that lends itself to statistical analysis. In this approach, scientific knowledge is built through objective, systematic observations and control (Lawal, 2009: 55). Quantitative research is based on the assumption that there are universal laws that govern social events, and these laws enable researchers to describe, predict and control social phenomena (Kim, 2003: 9). Quantitative research can take the form of experimental designs, where the researcher seeks to determine if a specific type of treatment influences a certain type of outcome. A non-experimental design is another form of quantitative research, an example of which is a survey.

Quantitative research involves the use of structured questions, where the response options have been predestined and where a number of respondents are involved in the study (Struwig & Stead 2001: 7). The style of writing utilised in this research is formal, and the data is collected in such a manner that it will be possible to yield statistical data. According to Cavana, Delahaye and Sekeran (2001: 12), quantitative methods depend on the ability of the researcher to measure the phenomena under investigation and to use the statistics to analyse the raw data. Leedy (1997: 32) contends that the decision on whether the research method is to be quantitative or qualitative depends on the nature of the data to be collected and the problem for research.

The main differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods are tabled below.

Table 5.1: Differences between qualitative and quantitative research

Quantitative approach	Qualitative approach
Collect quantitative data	Collect qualitative data
More useful for testing	More useful for discovering
Provides summary information on many characteristics	Provides in-depth information on few characteristics
Useful in tracking trends	Discovers hidden motivations and values.
More structured data collection techniques and objective ratings.	More unstructured data collection techniques requiring subjective interpretation
Higher concern for representatives.	Less concern for representatives
Emphasis on achieving reliability and validity of measures used.	Emphasis on the trustworthiness of respondents
Relatively short interviews	Relatively long interviews
Large samples (over 50)	Small samples (1-50)
Results relatively objective	Results relatively subjective
Research conducted in a controlled Setting	Research conducted in the natural setting of the respondent
Focused on the outcome of the research	Focused on the process of the research
The respondents' perspective is not Valued	The respondents' perspective is highly Valued
Primary aim is to formulate statistical data that explains and predicts actions and events	Primary aim is to formulate comprehensive descriptions and understanding of actions and events
Results are generalised to a theoretical population	Results are context specific
Deductive approach – explanation of hypotheses and theories	Inductive approach – generation of new hypotheses and theories
Researcher is not directly involved in the process of data collection	Researcher is directly involved in the process of data collection
Objective in nature	Subjective in nature

(Source: Hair, Money, Samuel & Page, 2007: 152; Neuman, 2006:54-59; Yin, 2003: 42-48)

From Table 5.1 it can be seen that quantitative research provides summary information on many characteristics or respondents, whereas qualitative research provides in-depth information on a few characteristics of the respondents. One of the most important differences between the two types of research is their primary focus. Qualitative research focuses on providing detailed reports with comprehensive descriptions, while quantitative research focuses on formulating statistical data. It is easier to remain objective when using a quantitative method to collect data. In

qualitative research, the researcher is directly involved in the process of data collection. This makes it difficult for the researcher to remain objective. Quantitative researchers place the emphasis on attaining reliability and validity of measures used, whereas qualitative researchers place the emphasis on the trustworthiness of respondents.

The research approach adopted for this study falls within the positivistic paradigm and is therefore quantitative in nature. The aim of the present study is to collect statistical data that explains and predicts actions and events. Given the aim and the nature of the information being researched, a quantitative research approach is considered most suitable.

5.2.2 Population studied

The population, also known as the “universe”, refers to the entire set of people, things, events or groups that are of interest to the researcher (McIntyre, 2005: 300). In this study, however, the population or entire set of employees that work for small businesses in South Africa is not available. The first step in defining a research sample is to define the population. For the purposes of this study, the population includes all employees working for small businesses within the Eastern Cape.

5.2.3 Sampling method

It is generally impossible for a researcher to study a whole population. As a result, it becomes essential for the researcher to select a sample that represents the population under investigation, therefore, making it possible to make generalisations about the population as a whole (Leedy & Ormrod, 2003: 198). The term “representative” is usually used by statisticians to indicate the similarity of a sample to a larger population. Once a sample is not representative, it becomes difficult to state that the characteristics of the sample are indicative of the characteristics of the larger target population (Wolverton, 2009: 374).

Two types of sampling techniques exist, namely “probability” and “non-probability” techniques. Probability sampling occurs when every member of the population has a

known, non-zero chance of being selected (Zikmund, 2003: 379). Furthermore, probability sampling refers to a sample design where the units are selected by some probability mechanism, allowing no scope for the influence of subjectivity (Greenfield, 2002: 186).

The problem that the majority of researchers experience with non-probability sampling is that there is no guarantee that the sample is representative. Hence, researchers turn to probability sampling methods as they are able to provide precise statistical descriptions of the population at large (Babbie, 2010: 196). Ary, Jacobs, Razavien and Sorensen (2009: 150) describe probability sampling methods as methods in which every element of the population has the same chance of being selected. The main purpose of probability sampling is to provide the researcher with useful descriptions of the total population (Babbie, 2010: 198). This method is useful as it enables the researcher to make generalisations as it seeks representatives of the population (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007: 110). Examples of the most frequently used probability sampling methods include simple random sampling, cluster sampling, stratified sampling, and systematic sampling (Ary *et al.*, 2009: 150).

When using *Simple random sampling*, the members of the population have an equal and independent chance of being selected in the random sample. This method has three steps, namely defining the population, listing all the members of the population, and selecting the sample by using a procedure where pure chance determines which individuals will form part of the sample (Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 111).

Cluster sampling can be used when the population under study is very large. Instead of sampling individuals from the entire population, the researcher samples clusters and/or naturally occurring groups that exist within the population (Myers & Hansen, 2011: 121). Myers and Hansen (2011: 121) state that the main advantage of using this method is that the researcher can sample the data from a few locations. However, the challenge is that the members within a cluster may possibly resemble one another.

In *stratified sampling*, the population is divided into homogeneous groups, with each group having subjects with similar characteristics (Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 112). This

method is used when the population is known to contain distinct subgroups. The advantage of stratified sampling is that the subgroups are represented in the sample total (Myers & Hansen, 2011: 120). There are two stages in using this method. The first step involves identifying those characteristics that appear in the wider population, that also need to be present in the sample. The second stage entails randomly sampling within the selected groups. The size of the sample will be determined by the judgement of the researcher (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2011: 112).

Systematic sampling involves selecting subjects from the population list in a systematic fashion, instead of in a random manner (Cohen *et al.*, 2007: 111). The method makes use of the “K” ratio, which is obtained by dividing the population size by the desired sample size (Frankfort- Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2011: 203).

Sometimes social research is conducted under circumstances that do not permit the kinds of probability samples used in large-scale social surveys. Many such situations call for the use of non-probability sampling (Babbie, 2010: 192). In non-probability sampling, the probability that an item will be selected is unknown (Wolverton, 2009: 374). Information acquired from the sample data may not be relevant to the larger population because there is no guarantee that the sample data are representative of the population as a whole (Wolverton, 2009: 374). Different types of non-probability sampling methods exist, with the main methods being convenience sampling, judgemental sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling (McMurray, 2004: 84).

Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which the sample is selected on the basis of personal judgement or convenience (Trochim, 2006; Zikmund, 2007: 380). This method is selected because of ease of access to respondents, and relies on the availability of respondents (Babbie, 2010: 192). Convenience sampling is useful when the population is unknown to the researcher and when the researcher is exploring a new research setting (David & Sutton, 2004: 151).

Purposeful or judgemental sampling is used for the purposes of surveying specific individuals who are judged to be representative of a particular population (McMurray,

2004: 84). A researcher engages in purposeful or judgemental sampling when he/she selects a sample on the basis of knowledge of a population and its elements, as well as the purpose of the study (Babbie, 2010: 193). As such, the sample is selected based on the researcher's judgement that the sample will be representative (McMurray, 2004: 84).

Quota sampling is a non-probability sampling method in which units are selected on the basis of pre-specified characteristics. This is done to ensure that the total sample has the same distribution of characteristics assumed to be present in the population under study (Babbie, 2010: 194). Bajpai (2010: 267) describes a "quota" as the proportion of sub-classes within the population. The objective of quota sampling is to overcome the flaw of availability, in other words the norm that a sample will just consist of whoever or whatever is available, whether or not it is representative of the population (Chamblis, & Schuff, 2009: 122). Quota sampling is useful when cost and time constraints exist, but obtaining representative samples is problematic because selection depends largely on the researcher's convenience (Bajpai, 2010: 267).

Snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling method that is useful when a population is hidden and difficult to identify (David & Sutton, 2004: 152). Snowball sampling occurs when a researcher identifies an appropriate "case" from the population who in turn is able to connect the researcher with other similar cases. In other words, the researcher selects an initial group of respondents at random or convenience, and then asks them to identify other respondents in a target population (McMurray, 2004: 84). Bajpai (2010: 267) explains that "a snowball collects ice particles when it rolls on ice", and similarly in snowball sampling, respondents are selected on the basis of referrals from other respondents.

Convenience and snowball sampling was employed in this study. This method was used as it is easy, inexpensive and quick to obtain a large number of completed questionnaires in a short space of time (Zikmund 2003: 380). In order to initiate the sampling procedure, owners of small businesses were contacted and asked to encourage and distribute the questionnaires among their employees. Where the owners were not available, the employees were approached directly and asked to participate in the study. In addition, family and friends across the Eastern Cape were

asked to identify any small business owners and/or employees, and once identified, the owners were asked to kindly distribute the questionnaires among their employees.

5.2.4 Sample size

A sample size is defined as the number of people who are subjects in a research study (Aaron, Aaron & Coups, 2008: 216). Determining the sample size is not always an easy process, the basic notion being that the sample findings will also be found in the general population (David & Sutton, 2004: 154). In quantitative research, the standard used for determining a sample size is power (Houser, 2009: 226). Houser (2009: 226) defines the concept “power” as “an analysis that indicates how large a sample is needed to adequately detect a difference in the outcome variable”. The process of selecting a sample size also depends on the researcher knowing the difference between the true population value and the sample value that he/she is willing to accept (David & Hutton, 2004: 135). Another method of determining the sample size is to use the rough rule-of-thumb that states that the sample size should not be less than 30 individual respondents (David & Sutton, 2004: 135).

The sample size of this study was 400, from which 200 completed questionnaires were returned. Because several of the questionnaires were incorrectly completed, only 184 of them were usable for the statistical analyses. A “response rate” is the percentage of people who respond to a survey, and can be calculated by taking the number of complete questionnaires and dividing this by the number of participants contacted. The higher the response rate, the more likely it is that the results are representative of the population (Response rates & surveying techniques, 2009). A 50% response rate was achieved in this study (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Response Rate

	Number of respondents
Number of questionnaires mailed	400
Total number of questionnaires returned	200
Usable questionnaires returned	184
Response rate	50%

5.2.5 Method of data collection

Surveys are the oldest and most frequently used research technique in social sciences (Babbie, 2010: 254), and may be used for descriptive, explanatory and exploratory purposes. Surveys are used when a researcher is interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly, and for measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population (Babbie, 2010: 254). Surveys provide descriptions of trends, attitudes and or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population group. The sample results enable the researcher to make inferences about the population as whole (Creswell, 2009: 145).

According to Collis and Hussey (2003: 66), two main types of surveys exist, descriptive and analytical survey. Descriptive surveys are concerned with identifying and counting the frequency of a specific population for comparison, whereas analytical surveys are concerned with determining whether relationships exist between different variables investigated in a study. An analytical survey technique was used in this study to gather original data on the perceptions of certain work values describing an entrepreneurial career, and to establish the influence of these perceptions on the entrepreneurial intentions of employees of small businesses in the Eastern Cape. As such, relationships between perceptions and intentions were investigated.

A survey includes the use of a questionnaire, a measuring instrument specifically designed to gather information that will be used for analysis purposes (Babbie, 2010: 256). In this study a structured, self-administered questionnaire was used to gather

the necessary data. The questionnaire was made available to respondents by means of postal mail, email and personal delivery.

5.2.5.1 Measuring instrument development

The measuring instrument employed in this study consisted of a cover letter and two sections (See Annexure A). The cover letter included a detailed description of the purpose of the study as well as the type of information requested from the respondents taking part in this study. The cover letter also included a promise of confidentiality, and instructions on how to complete and return the questionnaire. The survey was administered under the name of a registered research centre at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (Unit of Applied Management Sciences).

Section 1 consisted of 77 randomised statements (items) describing what it could be like to run (own and manage) one's own business, and several relating to entrepreneurial intentions. A 7-point Likert-type interval scale was used, and respondents were requested to indicate the extent of their agreement with each statement. The 7-point Likert-type interval scale was understood as 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

Section 2 requested demographic information relating to the respondents both as individuals and in the context of the business. The information requested concerning the respondent as individual included gender, age, entrepreneurial parents and population group, whereas the information concerning the respondent in the context of the business included the nature of the business in which he/she was employed, the number of employees working in that business, the tenure of his/her employment and the position held in the business.

5.2.5.2 Qualifying questions

Section 2 of the questionnaire also included a question that required the respondents to verify that the business in which they worked was indeed a small business. For the purpose of this study, a "small business" was defined as a business that is

independently owned and managed, and employs less than 50 people. As a result of the above-mentioned qualifying question, it was possible to minimise response error.

5.2.5.3 Scale development and operationalisation

An “operational definition” refers to defining a variable in a manner that makes it clear what the research is intended to observe, and how it will be measured (McIntyre, 2005: 59). Babbie (2007: 75) defines “operationalisation” as a process involved with the development of operational definitions or specifying the operations that will be involved in measuring a variable. Operationalisation of the construct then involves selecting suitable items for the measurement scale, as well as the type of measurement scale.

A 10-item scale (see below) was developed to measure the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. One item was sourced from the study by Farrington (2009), six items from the scale of Fatoki (2010), one item from the scale of Kakkonen (2010) and two from the scale of Gupta (2009). With slight adjustments to the wording, these 10 items were adopted for this study.

Table 5.3: Operationalisation of the dependent variable

Entrepreneurial Intentions	Items
Running my own business will require creativity, innovation and original thinking in performing activities.	10
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I intend to start and run my own business in the future. 2. My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur. 3. I would prefer to be an entrepreneur than an employee in someone else’s business. 4. I have a strong intention to start my own business someday. 5. I am determined to create a business in the future. 6. I want to be my own boss. 7. I will start my own business in the next five years. 8. I would become an entrepreneur if a suitable opportunity arises. 9. I am highly likely to pursue a career as a self-employed person. 10. If I were to choose between running my own business and being employed, I would choose to run my own business. 	

For the purpose of this study, the measuring scale developed by Farrington, Gray and Sharp (2011: 7) was utilised to measure independent variables (work values). The wording was, however, adapted to make the items more suitable for the present study. The different operational definitions of the dependent and independent

variables used in this study as well as the relevant items are presented in Tables 5.4 to Table 5.7 below.

Table 5.4: Operationalisation of the intrinsic-related independent variable

Intrinsic-related work value: Challenging	Items
Requires performing activities that are demanding, not easy, challenging and prioritise competing demands.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will require that I engage in challenging activities. 2. Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are not easy. 3. Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are highly demanding. 4. Running my own business will require that I prioritise competing demands. 5. Running my own business will require that I engage in challenging activities. 	
Intrinsic-related work value: Stimulating	Items
Running my own business will allow me to follow my passion and perform a variety of interesting, exciting and adventurous activities on a daily basis.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will require that I perform a variety of tasks in my daily routine. 2. Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are exciting. 3. Running my own business will allow me to follow my passion. 4. Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are adventurous and fun. 5. Running my own business will require that I perform a number of interesting tasks on a daily basis. 	
Intrinsic-related work value: Stress	Items
Running my own business will be stressful and a source of constant worry, pressure and tension.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will be stressful. 2. Running my own business will be a source of constant worry. 3. Running my own business will require that I work under constant pressure. 4. Running my own business will be a source of constant tension. 5. Running my own business one day would make me feel uneasy. 	
Intrinsic-related work value: Imaginative	Items
Running my own business will require creativity, innovation and original thinking in performing activities.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will require that I am creative in the activities that I need to perform. 2. Running my own business will require that I continually develop new concepts and ideas. 3. Running my own business will require that I am innovative. 4. Running my own business will require that I continually experiment with new ideas in my business. 5. Running my own business will require of me to be an original thinker. 	

Table: 5.4 Operationalisation of the intrinsic-related independent variable - continued

Intrinsic-related work value: Responsibility	Items
Ensuring sufficient work comes into the business, accept managerial responsibility and ensure business activities run smoothly.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will require that I take responsibility for the performance of the business. 2. Running my own business will require that I accept full managerial responsibility. 3. Running my own business will require that I ensure that business activities run smoothly. 4. Running my own business will place a big responsibility on my shoulders. 5. Running my own business will require that I ensure sufficient work comes into the business to keep it operational. 	

Table 5.5: Operationalisation of the extrinsic-related independent variable

Extrinsic-related work value: Security	Items
Ensures there is enough money to retire one day, provides regular income and provides a stable secure future for family members.	4
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will ensure that I have a regular income. 2. Running my own business will ensure that I always have employment. 3. Running my own business will ensure that I have enough money to retire one day. 4. Running my own business will provide my family with a stable and secure future. 	
Extrinsic-related work value: Financial benefit	Items
Allows for a greater earning potential, provides a chance to earn a lot of money and increase personal wealth.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will provide me with the chance to earn a lot of money. 2. Running my own business will allow me a greater earning potential than an alternative career. 3. Running my own business will allow me to increase my personal wealth. 4. Running my own business will allow me to provide for a possible early retirement. 5. Running my own business will provide me with an income level that is very rewarding. 	
Extrinsic-related work value: Future prospects	Items
Provides opportunity to reach full potential, grow professionally and personally in order to advance in my field of expertise.	4
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will allow me to grow personally. 2. Running my own business will provide me with the opportunity to reach my full potential. 3. Running my own business will allow me to grow professionally. 4. Running my own business will provide me with opportunities for advancement in my field of expertise. 	

Table 5.6: Operationalisation of the social-related independent variable

Social-related work value: Interaction	Items
Requires being people orientated, teamwork, work closely with others and network with stakeholders groups.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will require that I work closely with my employees. 2. Running my own business will require that I work closely with my customers. 3. Running my own business will require me to be people-orientated. 4. Running my own business will require me to network extensively with stakeholders groups. 5. Running my own business will require that my employees and I work together as a team. 	
Social-related work value: Prestige	Items
Allow one to be a role model for aspiring entrepreneurs, earn the respect of the community, friends and family.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will give me status in the community. 2. Running my own business will allow me to be a role model for aspiring entrepreneurs. 3. Running my own business will give me the approval of my friends and family. 4. Running my own business will be a prestigious achievement. 5. Running my own business will earn me the respect of the community. 	
Social-related work value: Serving the community	Items
Provides opportunity to help others, make the world a better place and be of service to the community.	4
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will enable me to be of service to my community. 2. Running my own business will give me the opportunity to help others. 3. Running my own business will enable me to make a contribution to society in general. 4. Running my own business will give me the opportunity of making the world a better place. 	

Table: 5.7 Operationalisation of the freedom-related independent variable

Freedom-related work value: Flexibility	Items
Provides freedom to move between workplaces, adapt to changing circumstances, vary activities and create flexible work schedules.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will provide me with the freedom to move between workplaces. 2. Running my own business will give me the freedom to vary the activities that I perform on a daily basis. 3. Running my own business will allow me to create a flexible work schedule. 4. Running my own business will allow me to regulate my own working hours. 5. Running my own business will allow me to adapt to changing circumstances. 	

Table: 5.7 Operationalisation of the freedom-related independent variable - continued

Freedom-related work value: Autonomy	Items
Allow one to work and make decisions independently as well as operate my business in the manner I see fit.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will allow me to make business decisions on my own. 2. Running my own business will allow me to operate my business in the manner I see fit. 3. Running my own business will allow me to work independently. 4. Running my own business will allow me to determine how business activities should be performed. 5. Running my own business will allow me to be my own boss. 	
Freedom-related work value: Time	Items
Allows me to maintain a balance between work and leisure time; that is time for family and friends, interests outside of work and work at home after-hours.	5
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Running my own business will allow me to maintain a balance between work and leisure time. 2. Running my own business will require that I work long hours. 3. Running my own business will allow me time for interests outside of work. 4. Running my own business will allow me to have time for my family and friends. 5. Running my own business will require that I work at home after-hours. 	

5.2.6 Administration of the measuring instrument

As previously mentioned, potential respondents were identified by means of convenience and snowball sampling. Potential respondents were contacted during the months of April and August 2011, and asked to participate in this study. Respondents who agreed to participate were given the option of receiving their questionnaire either in person, via postal mail, or by email. In total 400 questionnaires were distributed, with the majority electing to have the questionnaires personally delivered and collected. The initial batch of questionnaires was administered at the end of July 2011, followed by several smaller batches. Follow-up phone calls were made to the respondents to encourage them to complete the questionnaire.

5.2.7 Missing Data

Upon their receipt, the completed questionnaires were examined for missing data. Several questionnaires had missing information. In the case of demographic data, respondents were contacted to obtain the missing information. However, in the case of missing responses to statements, if less than 3 values were missing, the mean-

substitution approach was used. According to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006: 61), the mean-substitution approach replaces the values that are missing for a variable with the mean value that is calculated from all of the valid responses for that variable. This mean-substitution approach is a popular method, and is best suited to situations where the levels of missing values are relatively low (Hair *et al.*, 2006: 63).

5.2.8 Method of data analysis

The process of data analysis is concerned with reducing the data to simpler elements; it entails reducing the amount of data that has been collected in order for statements pertaining to the data to be made (Hardy & Bryman, 2009: 4). In order to analyse the data, the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument was first assessed. Thereafter, descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation and frequency distributions, were calculated to summarise the sample data distribution. Pearson's product moment correlations were calculated to establish the correlations between the factors under investigation, and a multiple regression analysis was undertaken to investigate whether relationships existed between the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career and entrepreneurial intentions. STATISTICA version 10 was used to undertake the statistical techniques referred to above, each of which will be elaborated on in the paragraphs that follow.

5.2.8.1 Validity of the measuring instrument

According to Miller (n.d.), the two fundamental characteristics of any measurement procedure are the validity and the reliability of the measuring instrument. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 31) are of the opinion that the validity and reliability of the measurement instruments used in a study influence the extent to which one can learn something about the phenomenon being investigated, as well as the extent to which one can draw meaningful conclusions from the data.

The validity of a measure is concerned with whether a test measures what it is supposed to measure (De Vaus, 2002: 53), and is concerned with the soundness and effectiveness of that test (Leedy, 1997: 32). According to Miller (n.d.), "construct

validity” refers to the extent to which an instrument measures the trait or theoretical construct that it is supposed to measure. Wolverton (2009) adds that construct validity is concerned with how well actual attributes, characteristics and features are being measured. Construct validity is determined when a measure confirms various related hypotheses which are generated from the theory founded on the concepts (Zikmund, 2003: 303). In this study, the construct validity of the measuring instrument was assessed.

In order for a measuring instrument to be considered to demonstrate construct validity, the scale has to have both convergent and discriminant validity (Venter, 2003: 248). Convergent and discriminant validity are both considered subcategories and subtypes of construct validity. Trochim (2006) explains that convergent validity entails proving that measures that should be related are in reality related (Trochim, 2006). Discriminant validity is determined by showing that measures that should not be related are in reality not related (Trochim, 2006).

In order to assess the validity of the independent variables in this study, an exploratory factor analysis was undertaken on each of the categories of independent variables. Di Iorio (2005: 238) defines a factor analysis as a technique that is used to minimise a set of observed items into smaller variables that reflect the interrelationships in the midst of the observed variables. Hence the new variables/items are renamed, and called factors. An exploratory factor analysis is used when the researcher has a set of tests and is interested to find out how many factors are needed to account for their intercorrelations, as well as when he/she wants to determine what these factors are measuring (Cudeck & MacCallum, 2007: 58). Di Iorio (2005: 238) states that a factor analysis is called by this name when it is used early in the development of a scale, with the purpose of identifying the number of factors as well as the quality of the items. According to DeCoster (1998), an exploratory factor analysis is used to:

- Identify the nature of the constructs underlying responses in a specific content area.
- Determine what sets of items “hang together” in a questionnaire.

- Demonstrate the dimensionality of a measurement scale.
- Determine what features are most important when classifying a group of items.
- Generate “factor scores” representing values of the underlying constructs for use in other analyses.

In order to assess the validity of the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*, a confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken. A confirmatory factor analysis is used in order to test the hypothesis that a relationship between the observed variables and their underlying latent construct(s) exists (Suhr, 2003). According to DeCoster (1998), a confirmatory factor analysis can be used under the following circumstances, to:

- Establish the validity of a single factor model.
- Compare the ability of two different models to account for the same set of data.
- Test the significance of a specific factor loading.
- Test the relationship between two or more factor loadings.
- Test whether a set of factors are correlated or uncorrelated.
- Assess the convergent and discriminant validity of a set of measures.

Confirmatory factor analysis is common when scales from previous research are used to measure certain constructs (Reinard, 2006: 428), as is the case in this study.

A factor analysis, both exploratory and confirmatory, generates a number of values. These values form the correlations between the items, and are known as “factor loadings” (Babbie, 2007: 146). According to Comrey (1973), factor loadings above 0.45 are considered fair, those greater than 0.55 good, greater than 0.63 very good, and above 0.71 excellent. Factor loadings of greater than 0.5 (Mustakallio, Autio & Zahra, 2002: 212) were considered significant in this study, and judged the scale as providing evidence of validity.

5.2.8.2 Reliability of the measuring instrument

Reliability deals with the accuracy of research. According to Leedy and Omrod (2001), reliability is the extent to which, on repeated measures, the indicators yield similar results. Zikmund (2003: 300) explains that “reliability” refers to the extent to which measures studied in a research are error-free and produce consistent results. The sole purpose of reliability is to ascertain the extent to which a measure is free of random and/or unstable errors. Reliability is understood to be the extent to which a measure is stable and/or consistent, and produces similar results when administered repeatedly Miller (n.d.).

The reliability of the measuring instrument employed in the present study was measured using Cronbach-alpha coefficients. According to Cooper and Schindler (2007: 322), Cronbach’s alpha is a type of reliability estimate that is concerned with internal consistency. Therefore, Cronbach-alpha coefficients were used to determine which items would be integrated as measures of the specific constructs. According to Nunnally (1978), Cronbach-alpha coefficients of greater than 0.70 are considered significant, and deem a scale to be reliable. However, Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006: 137) are of the opinion that this lower limit may be reduced to 0.60 in certain cases.

5.2.8.3 Analysis of the empirical results

The data collected in this study was summarised by using descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation and frequency distributions. Gravetter and Wallnau (2011: 6) describe descriptive statistics as statistical procedures that are used by a researcher to summarise and organise raw data in a form that is more meaningful.

Pearson’s product moment correlation is regarded as the most commonly used method of computing a correlation coefficient between variables that are linearly related (Jackson, 2011: 159). A correlation coefficient usually referred to as r (r is the statistical notation used to report the correlation coefficient) is used to determine whether any two variables are related to each other (Jackson, 2011: 159). Pearson’s

product-moment correlation is a measure of correlation that quantifies the strength as well as direction of a relationship between two variables (Pearson product-moment correlation, 2011).

A correlation is a number that ranges between -1 and +1 and measures the degree of association between two variables, hence the strength of a linear relationship between two variables (Simon, 2005). The closer the correlation is to +/-1, the closer it is to a perfect linear relationship. The Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) is used to find whether a relationship exists between at least two continuous variables (Pearson's Correlation Coefficient, 2007). The value for r can be expected to fall between 0 (no correlation) and 1 (a perfect correlation). A positive value for r implies a positive association, while a negative value implies a negative or inverse association (SPSS Tutorial, 2011).

According to Simon (2005), a correlation can be interpreted in the following ways:

- -1.0 to -0.7 reflects a strong negative association;
- -0.7 to -0.3 reflects a weak negative association;
- -0.3 to +0.3 reflects a little or no association;
- +0.3 to +0.7 reflects a weak positive association); and
- +0.7 to +1.0 reflects a strong positive association.

Correlations are similar to regressions, but regressions explore the relationship between independent and dependent variables, whereas correlations look at the relationship between two dependent variables (Vanpool & Leonard, 2011: 48).

In this study, a multiple regression analysis was undertaken to investigate whether relationships existed between the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career and entrepreneurial intentions. The various work values served as the independent variables and the entrepreneurial intentions of respondents served as the dependent variable. According to Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (2004: 1), a multiple regression analysis is a general and very flexible data analytic system used in circumstances where the dependent variable needs to be studied as a function of, or

in relationship to, the independent variable. Babbie (2010: 475) describes a multiple regression analysis as a means of statistical analysis that looks for an equation that represents the impact of two or more independent variables on a single dependent variable. A multiple regression analysis is used to analyse relationships between variables, and enables a researcher to isolate the quantitative impact of specific factors separate from many other contributing factors (Bradbury, 2011: 180).

In a multiple regression analysis, the multiple correlation coefficient (r) indicates the extent to which the predictor (independent) variables as a group, predict the outcome (dependent) variable (Stangor, 2011: 378). In addition, a multiple regression calculates a statistic for each variable in the study, called beta (β), and the larger the β the more influence a variable has in explaining the variation in the dependent variable when the other variables are controlled (Rubin & Babbie, 2010: 232). A multiple regression analysis is also used to test the statistical significance of each recorded beta weight, and this makes it possible to identify which particular predictor variables are significantly related to the dependent variable (Rubin & Babbie, 2010: 559).

Although the focus of this study was on measuring the perceptions and the influence of these perceptions on entrepreneurial intentions that employees have of self-employment in terms of several work values, the influence of various demographic variables were also measured. This was done by means of an analysis of variance. In each case, the influence of the demographic variables, as independent variables, was measured on the dependent variables. The work values under investigation and entrepreneurial intentions served as the dependent variables in this analysis.

According to Bewick, Cheek and Ball (2004), an analysis of variance is a technique for analysing the manner in which the mean of a variable is affected by different types and combinations of factors; it gives a single overall test of whether there are differences between groups. Gravetter and Wallnau (2011: 366) explain that an analysis of variance is defined as a hypothesis-testing procedure that is used to evaluate the differences between means of different populations. It offers the researcher more flexibility in designing experiments and interpreting results, as it can compare two or more populations.

In addition, the post-hoc Bonferroni test was done to identify significant differences between the means scores of the various categories within each demographic variable. The practical significance of these differences was assessed by means of calculating Cohen's d. Cohen's d values of greater than 0.2 but less than 0.5 reflect difference of small practical significance, values of greater than 0.5, but less than 0.8 reflect differences of moderate practical significance, whereas values of greater than 0.8 reflect differences of large practical significance (Becker, 2000).

5.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research design and methodology adopted for the study were described. The research paradigm was elaborated on, specifically looking at the differences between the qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Thereafter, the population, sampling method and sampling size were discussed. The factors under investigation were operationalised by means of clear definitions, and the development of the scales measuring these various factors was explained. Thereafter, the process of administering the questionnaires was described, as well as the statistical analysis undertaken to verify the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument. Furthermore, the statistical techniques used to analyse the empirical data were discussed. Chapter 6 will present the empirical findings of this study.

CHAPTER 6

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 5 the research design and methodology adopted for this study was elaborated on. In Chapter 6 the empirical results are presented, beginning with a summary of the demographic information collected from respondents participating in the study. Demographic information collected related to both the respondents as individuals as well as to the respondent in the context of the business. In order to assess the validity of measuring instrument, a factor analysis was undertaken. The reliability of the measuring instrument was assessed by means of calculating Cronbach-alpha coefficients. As a result of the validity and reliability assessment, the theoretical framework was revised and the hypotheses reformulated. Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarise the sample data and Pearson's product moment correlation to assess the relationships between the various factors under investigation. The influence of the various work-values on the entrepreneurial intentions of employees was established by means of a multiple regression analysis. Finally, an analysis of variance was undertaken to establish whether relationships exist between selected demographic variables on the one hand and the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of various work values, as well as the entrepreneurial intentions of respondents, on the other.

6.2 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

In Section 2 of the questionnaire, information related to the respondent, and to the respondent in the context of the business is discussed. Tables 6.1 and 6.2 summarise the demographic data collected, and are discussed in the paragraphs that follow. From Table 6.1 it can be seen that the majority of the respondents (71.74%) were female, while male respondents accounted for 28.26% of the sample. Most of the respondents

were between the ages 21 and 30 years (46.20%), or between the ages of 31 and 40 years (27.17%).

Table 6.1: Demographic information pertaining to the respondents as individuals

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	52	28.26%
Female	132	71.74%
Total	184	100.00%
Age	Frequency	Percentage
0-20	19	10.33%
21-30	85	46.20%
31-40	50	27.17%
41-50	15	8.15%
51-60	11	5.98%
>60	4	2.17%
Total	184	100.00%
Population group	Frequency	Percentage
White	64	34.78%
Black	83	45.11%
Coloured/Asian	37	20.11%
Total	184	100.00%
Entrepreneurial parents	Frequency	Percentage
None	124	67.39%
Father/Male guardian	23	12.50%
Mother/Female guardian	17	9.24%
Both parents/Guardians	20	10.87%
Total	184	100.00%

Most of the respondents were Black (45.11%), followed by White (34.78%) and Coloured/Asian (20.11%). While the majority (67.39%) of the respondents indicated that their parents did not own their own businesses, 12.50% reported that their father and/or

male guardian owned his own business, and 9.24% reported their mother and/or female guardian or both parents (10.87%) as owing their own business.

Table 6.2 shows that most respondents worked in retail (34.80%), services (30.98%) or hospitality and tourism industries (21.74%). Retail businesses included furniture stores, bead shops, hardware shops and grocery stores while service businesses included DVD stores, hairdresser, computer services, and shoe repairs. Examples of hospitality and tourism businesses were tour guides and various bed and breakfast establishments. The remaining respondents worked in a variety of other businesses.

Table 6.2: Demographic information pertaining to the respondent in the context of the business

Nature of the business	Frequency	Percentage
Service	57	30.98%
Retail	64	34.78%
Hospitality and tourism	40	21.74%
Other/none given	23	12.50%
Total	184	100.00%
Number of employees	Frequency	Percentage
1 - 4	78	42.39%
5 – 10	65	35.33%
11 – 25	23	12.50%
26 – 50	18	9.78%
Total	184	100.00%
Tenure of employment	Frequency	Percentage
1-5 years	159	86.41%
6-10 years	19	10.33%
11-15 years	3	1.63%
16-20 years	1	0.54%
21-25 years	2	1.09%
Total	184	100.00%

Table 6.2: Demographic information pertaining to the respondent in the context of the business (continued)

Position of respondent	Frequency	Percentage
Supervisor/manager	53	28.80%
General staff	81	44.02%
Cashier	22	11.96%
Sales person	17	9.24%
Bookkeeper	2	1.09%
Administrator	9	4.89%
Total	184	100.00%

Most (42.39%) of the businesses in which the respondents worked employed between 1 and 4 persons. The majority of respondents (86.41%) had been working in these businesses for 5 years or less. Among the different positions held by respondents participating in the study, the majority (44.02%) were general staff members.

6.3 RESULTS OF THE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

A factor analysis was undertaken to assess the validity of the measuring instrument used in this study. "Validity" refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument adequately measures what it is intended to measure (Babbie, 2007: 146). In this study, an exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to determine the validity of the measuring instrument. Items that loaded onto one factor only and reported factor loadings of greater than 0.5 (Mustakallio, Autio & Zahra, 2002: 212) were considered significant. Only factors with more than 2 items measuring that factor were considered for further statistical analysis.

Cronbach-alpha coefficients were calculated to assess the reliability of the measuring instrument used in this study. When a questionnaire, test or any measuring instrument produces the same results on a repeated basis, it is considered reliable (Miller, 2009). According to Nunnally (1978), Cronbach-alpha coefficients of greater than 0.70 are considered significant and deem a scale to be reliable. However, Hair, Black, Babin,

Anderson and Tatham (2006: 137) assert that this lower limit may be reduced to 0.60 in certain cases.

6.3.1 Dependent variable

In order to assess the validity of the scale measuring the dependent variable of *Entrepreneurial intentions*, a confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken. A confirmatory factor analysis is a powerful theory-testing model that is used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables (Stapleton, 1997). This analysis is common when scales from previous studies are used to measure certain constructs, as is the case in this study (Reinard, 2006: 428).

6.3.1.1 Entrepreneurial intentions

As mentioned above a confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken to assess the validity of the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. Seven of the ten factors that were intended to measure *Entrepreneurial intentions* loaded together (INTENT9, INTENT2, INTENT1, INTENT7, INTENT8, INTENT10 and INTENT3). *Entrepreneurial intentions* explain 4.01% of the variance in the data. From Table 6.3 it can be observed that factor loadings of between 0.878 and 0.512 were returned for this factor. Sufficient evidence of validity for this construct is thus provided. *Entrepreneurial intentions* returned a Cronbach-alpha coefficient of 0.848 which is greater than the lower limit of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus provided. For the purposes of this study *Entrepreneurial intentions* refers to the intention to be self-employed in the future and/or the intention to follow an entrepreneurial career.

Table 6.3: Validity and Reliability of Entrepreneurial intentions

% of Variance: 4.01		Cronbach-alpha : 0. 848		
Item		Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
INTENT9	I am highly likely to pursue a career as a self-employed person	0.878	0.818	0.796
INTENT2	My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur	0.797	0.749	0.805
INTENT1	I intend to start and run my own business in the future	0.782	0.708	0.812
INTENT7	I will start my own business in the next five years	0.722	0.584	0.832
INTENT8	I would become an entrepreneur if a suitable opportunity arises	0.603	0.412	0.853
INTENT1	If I were to choose between running my own business and being employed, I would prefer to run my own business	0.513	0.708	0.812
INTENT3	I would prefer to be an entrepreneur rather than to be an employee in someone else's business	0.512	0.472	0.850

6.3.2 Independent variables

In order to assess the validity of the independent variables, an exploratory factor analysis was undertaken on each of the categories of independent variables, namely intrinsic-, extrinsic-, social- and freedom-related work values. The results are elaborated on in the paragraphs below. Exploratory factor analysis is considered to be one of the theory-generating procedures as opposed to being a theory-testing procedure. It answers the question posed by construct validity of whether the scores of the test measure what the test is supposed to be measuring (Stapleton, 1997).

6.3.2.1 Independent variables: Intrinsic-related work values

The resulting factor structure for the intrinsic independent variable can be found in Table 6.4. Three factors were extracted from this analysis, namely *Challenging*, *Stress* and *Stimulating*. These three factors explain 7.9% of the variance in the data.

Table 6.4: Factor Structure – Intrinsic-related variables

Items	Challenging	Stress	Stimulating
RESPO5	0.761	0.044	0.031
CHALL4	0.754	0.029	-0.036
CHALL1	0.599	0.173	0.280
IMAGI3	0.559	-0.173	0.312
STRESS2	0.073	0.792	0.056
STRESS1	0.156	0.671	0.277
STRESS4	-0.229	0.620	-0.018
STRESS3	0.126	0.600	-0.147
STRESS5	0.000	0.511	0.151
STIMU4	0.082	0.021	0.758
STIMU2	-0.085	-0.002	0.709
CHALL2	0.169	0.352	0.596
Expl.Var	2.823	2.884	2.193
Prp.Totl	0.118	0.120	0.091

(i) Challenging

The items expected to measure the independent variable *Challenging*, were assessed for validity by means of an exploratory factor analysis. Two of the original five items loaded together (CHALL4 and CHALL1). In addition, the items RESPOS5 and IMAGI3 also loaded into this construct. Despite these two additional items, the name *Challenging* was retained for this factor. The factor loadings for this construct ranged between 0.761 and 0.559. *Challenging* explains 2.823% of the variance in the data. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient for *Challenging* is 0.727, suggesting that the scale measuring this factor is reliable.

As a result of the factor analysis, the operationalisation of *Challenging* was reformulated. For the purpose of this study *Challenging* refers to prioritising and performing activities that are challenging and innovative.

Table 6.5: Validity and Reliability of Challenging

% of Variance: 2.823		Cronbach-alpha : 0.727		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
RESPO5	will require that I ensure sufficient work comes into the business to keep it operational	0.761	0.549	0.646
CHALL4	will require that I prioritise competing demands	0.754	0.527	0.659
CHALL1	will require that I engage in challenging activities	0.599	0.501	0.682
IMAGI3	will require that I am innovative	0.559	0.507	0.676

(ii) Stress

All five items originally developed to measure the independent variable *Stress* loaded together as expected. From Table 6.6 it can be seen that factor loadings of between 0.792 and 0.511 were returned for this factor.

Table 6.6: Validity and Reliability of Stress

% of Variance: 2.884		Cronbach-alpha : 0.698		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
STRESS1	will be stressful	0.671	0.501	0.628
STRESS2	will be a source of constant worry	0.792	0.623	0.569
STRESS3	will require that I work under constant pressure	0.600	0.405	0.668
STRESS4	will be a source of constant tension	0.620	0.378	0.678
STRESS5	one day would make me feel uneasy	0.511	0.379	0.685

Stress explains 2.884% of the variance in data. Sufficient evidence of discriminate validity for this construct is thus provided. *Stress* returned a Cronbach-alpha coefficient

of 0.698, which is less than the lower limit of 0.70 as prescribed by Nunnally (1978). However, Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006: 137) assert that this lower limit may be reduced to 0.60 in certain cases. Satisfactory evidence of reliability for this factor is thus reported. For the purpose of this study *Stress* refers to an entrepreneurial career being a source of worry, tension and constant pressure.

(iii) Stimulating

The original five items developed to measure the construct *Stimulating* did not load together onto one construct. Only two of these items loaded together, namely STIMU4 and STIMU2. CHALL2 which was initially supposed to measure *Challenging* also loaded into this construct. Factor loadings of between 0.758 and 0.596 were returned for this construct. *Stimulating* explains 2.193% of the variance in the data. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient returned for *Stimulating* is 0.608, which is less than the lower limit of 0.7 but greater than 0.60 (Hair *et al.*, 2006). The name *Stimulating* was retained for this factor, which for the purpose of this study refers to performing activities that are adventurous, exciting and difficult.

Table 6.7: Validity and Reliability of Stimulating

% of Variance: 2.193		Cronbach-alpha : 0.608		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
STIMU4	will require that I perform activities that are adventurous and fun	0.758	0.497	0.379
STIMU2	will require that I perform activities that are exciting	0.709	0.395	0.542
CHALL2	will require that I perform activities that are not easy	0.596	0.370	0.574

6.3.2.2 Independent variables: Extrinsic-related work values

Three factors were extracted from the exploratory factor analysis done on the extrinsic work values. The resulting factor structure can be found in Table 6.8. The three factors

were named *Financial benefit and security*, *Future prospects* and *Stability and advancement*. Together these three factors explain 7.7% of the variance in the data.

Table 6.8: Factor Structure – Extrinsic-related variables

Items	Financial benefit and security	Future prospects	Stability and advancement
FINBEN1	0.7334	0.0950	0.1241
FINBEN3	0.7332	0.1337	0.0070
FINBEN5	0.6530	0.1655	0.3649
SECUR3	0.6430	0.1347	0.3573
FINBEN2	0.6318	0.2873	0.0338
SECUR2	0.5459	-0.0367	0.3922
FUTURE5	0.1012	0.8501	-0.0736
FUTURE3	0.2693	0.7276	0.1580
FUTURE1	-0.0829	0.6377	0.3838
FUTURE2	0.1016	0.5680	0.4654
FUTURE4	-0.0243	0.2427	0.7114
SECUR4	0.4474	0.0970	0.7094
SECUR1	0.4696	-0.1231	0.5492
Expl.Var	3.3684	2.2214	2.1547
Prp.Totl	0.2406	0.1587	0.1539

(i) Financial benefit and security

Four of the original five items intended to measure *Financial benefit* loaded together as expected. The constructs (SECUR3 and SECUR2) which were originally intended to measure *Security* also loaded onto this factor. As a result the factor was renamed *Financial benefit and security*. Factor loadings of between 0.7334 and 0.5459 are reported for this factor. *Financial benefit and security* explains 3.368% of the variance in the data and sufficient evidence of discriminate validity for this construct is thus provided. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient for *Financial benefit and security* is 0.812, suggesting that the scale measuring this factor is reliable. In this study *Financial benefit*

and security refers to a rewarding income level that allows one to increase personal wealth, and provide for retirement income and ensured employment.

Table 6.9: Validity and Reliability of Financial benefit and security

% of Variance: 3.368		Cronbach-alpha : 0.812		
Item	Running my own business will.....	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
FINBEN1	will provide me with the chance to earn a lot of money	0.7334	0.625	0.771
FINBEN3	will allow me to increase my personal wealth	0.7332	0.587	0.780
FINBEN5	will provide me with an income level that is very rewarding	0.6530	0.636	0.769
SECUR3	will ensure that I have enough money to retire one day	0.6430	0.586	0.780
FINBEN2	will allow me a greater earning potential than an alternative career	0.6318	0.507	0.797
SECUR2	will ensure that I always have employment	0.5459	0.506	0.798

(ii) Future Prospects

Of the five items developed to measure *Future prospects*, only four items loaded together namely FUTURE5, FUTURE3, FUTURE1 and FUTURE2. Factor loadings of between 0.8501 and 0.5680 were returned for these items. *Future prospects* explains 2.221% of the variance in the data. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient for *Future Prospects* is 0.742, suggesting that the scale measuring this factor is reliable. *Future Prospects* refers to the ability of an entrepreneurial career to provide one with the opportunity to grow personally and professionally.

Table 6.10: Validity and Reliability of Future Prospects

% of Variance: 2.221		Cronbach-alpha : 0.742		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
FUTURE5	will allow me to follow my dream	0.8501	0.556	0.672
FUTURE3	will allow me to grow professionally	0.7276	0.601	0.647
FUTURE1	will allow me to grow personally	0.6377	0.484	0.711
FUTURE2	will provide me with the opportunity to reach my full potential	0.5680	0.504	0.701

(iii) Stability and advancement

Two out of the five items originally intended to measure the factor *Stability*, namely SECUR4 and SECUR1, loaded together. In addition FUTURE4 which was initially intended to measure *Future prospects*, also loaded together with the aforementioned items (see Table 6.11). Due to the nature of the items that loaded together the factor was renamed *Stability and advancement*. Factor loadings for this construct range between 0.7114 and 0.5492. *Stability and advancement* explains 2.155% of the variance in the data.

Table 6.11: Validity and Reliability of Stability and advancement

% of Variance: 2.155		Cronbach-alpha : 0.630		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
FUTURE4	will provide me with opportunities for advancement in my field of expertise	0.7114	0.322	0.681
SECUR4	will provide my family with a stable and secure future	0.7094	0.598	0.284
SECUR1	will ensure that I have a regular income	0.5492	0.462	0.528

The Cronbach-alpha coefficient for *Stability and advancement* is 0.630, which is regarded as acceptable (Hair *et al.*, 2006), suggesting that that the scale measuring this

factor is reliable. In this study, *Stability and advancement* refers to an entrepreneurial career providing a regular income and stable future, as well as opportunities for advancement in a chosen field.

6.3.2.3 Independent variables: Freedom-related work values

The exploratory factor analysis results in three factors being extracted. These factors, explaining 6.4% of the variance in the data, were named *Freedom and time*, *Autonomy* and *Flexibility*. The resulting factor structure of these freedom variables is depicted in Table 6.12 below.

Table 6.12: Factor Structure – Freedom-related variables

Items	Freedom and time	Autonomy	Flexibility
TIME1	0.6917	0.1084	0.0529
FLEX2	0.6674	0.0659	0.0660
FLEX4	0.6571	0.1227	0.0070
FLEX3	0.6508	0.2315	0.1729
FLEX1	0.6506	0.1872	0.1026
TIME4	0.5739	-0.0367	0.3334
TIME3	0.5101	0.1977	0.2811
AUTO1	0.2086	0.8388	0.0788
AUTO4	-0.0764	0.6226	0.2358
AUTO3	0.2724	0.5361	-0.0823
AUTO2	0.0720	0.1644	0.7973
FLEX5	0.2165	-0.2453	0.5599
AUTO5	0.1971	0.3954	0.5455
Expl.Var	3.0066	1.7997	1.5744
Prp.Totl	0.2004	0.1200	0.1050

(i) Freedom and time

Seven of the five items intended to measure the factor *Flexibility* loaded together namely FLEX2, FLEX4, FLEX3 and FLEX1. In addition the items TIME1, TIME4 and TIME3, which were initially intended to measure the factor *Time* also loaded together onto this factor (see Table 6.13). As a result, the factor was renamed *Freedom and time*. Factor loadings of between 0.6917 and 0.5101 were returned for these items. *Freedom and time* explains 3.01% of the variance in the data and sufficient evidence of discriminate validity for this construct is provided. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient for *Freedom and time* is 0.783, suggesting that the scale measuring this factor is reliable. For the purposes of this study *Freedom and time* refers to having the freedom to vary activities and to regulate one's working hours, as well having time for friends, family and outside interests.

Table 6.13: Validity and Reliability of Freedom and time

% of Variance: 3.01		Cronbach-alpha : 0. 783		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
TIME1	will allow me to maintain a balance between work and leisure time	0.6917	0.518	0.753
FLEX2	will give me the freedom to vary the activities that I perform on a daily basis	0.6674	0.524	0.753
FLEX4	will allow me to regulate my own working hours	0.6571	0.484	0.760
FLEX3	will allow me to create a flexible work schedule	0.6508	0.582	0.743
FLEX1	will provide me with the freedom to move between workplaces	0.6506	0.547	0.747
TIME4	will allow me to have time for my family and friends	0.5739	0.461	0.764
TIME3	will allow me time for interests outside of work	0.5101	0.459	0.767

(ii) Autonomy

Three of the five items intended to measure the factor *Autonomy* loaded together as

expected (AUTO1, AUTO4 and AUTO3). Factor loadings returned for *Autonomy* range between 0.8388 and 0.5361. *Autonomy* explains 1.574% of the variance in the data. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient determined for *Autonomy* was 0.5774, suggesting that the scale measuring this factor shows poor evidence of reliability. It was however decided to retain this factor for further analysis because of the close proximity of the Cronbach-alpha to 0.6. In this study the construct *Autonomy* refers to being able to work independently and make all the operational decisions for the business.

Table 6.14: Validity and Reliability of Autonomy

% of Variance: 1.574		Cronbach-alpha : 0.5774		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
AUTO1	will allow me to make business decisions on my own	0.8388	0.518	0.259
AUTO4	will allow me to determine how business activities should be performed	0.6226	0.298	0.598
AUTO3	will allow me to work independently	0.5361	0.381	0.510

(iii) Flexibility

Three of the five items that were intended to measure the factor *Flexibility* loaded together (AUTO2, FLEX5 and AUTO5). From Table 6.15 it can be seen that factor loadings of between 0.797 and 0.546 were returned for this factor. *Flexibility* explains 1.80% of the variance in the data and sufficient evidence of discriminate validity for this construct is provided. A Cronbach-alpha coefficient of 0.500 for *Flexibility* is returned, providing poor evidence of reliability. As in the case of *Autonomy* it was however decided to retain this factor for further statistical analysis. In this study *Flexibility* refers to allowing oneself to be one's own boss, operating a business in a manner that one see fit, and adapting to changing circumstances.

Table 6.15: Validity and Reliability of Flexibility

% of Variance: 1.80		Cronbach-alpha : 0.500		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
AUTO2	will allow me to operate my business in the manner I see fit	0.7973	0.340	0.353
FLEX5	will allow me to adapt to changing circumstances	0.5599	0.266	0.478
AUTO5	will allow me to be my own boss	0.5455	0.342	0.357

6.3.2.4 Independent variables: Social-related work values

Table 6.16 below portrays the results of the social variables, *Serving the community* and *Interaction and approval* investigated in this study. These factors explain 4.7% of the variance in the data.

Table 6.16: Factor Structure – Social-related variables

Items	Serving the community	Interaction and approval
SERVE2	0.7874	0.0807
SERVE1	0.7836	0.2068
SERVE4	0.7448	0.0837
PREST2	0.1498	0.7286
INTER1	0.1340	0.6768
SERVE3	0.1732	0.6457
INTER2	0.2088	0.5636
PREST4	0.0428	0.5564
Expl.Var	2.1853	2.5432
Prp.Totl	0.1561	0.1817

(i) Serving the community

Three of the five original factors intended to measure *Serving the community* loaded together (SERVE2, SERVE1 and SERVE4). Factor loadings of between 0.7874 and 0.7448 were returned for this factor. *Serving the community* explains 2.185 of the variance in the data. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient for *Serving the community* 0.7130 suggesting that the scale measuring this factor is reliable. The name of this construct remained unchanged and refers to an entrepreneurial career's ability to provide one with the opportunity to make the world a better place, to help others and to be of service to the community.

Table 6.17: Validity and Reliability of Serving the community

% of Variance: 2.185		Cronbach-alpha : 0.7130		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
SERVE2	will give me the opportunity to help others	0.7874	0.584	0.610
SERVE1	will enable me to be of service to my community	0.7836	0.539	0.618
SERVE4	will give me the opportunity of making the world a better place	0.7448	0.524	0.649

(ii) Interaction and approval

Five items were used to measure the construct *Interaction* but only INTER1 and INTER2 loaded together as expected. In addition, PREST2 and PREST4 which were initially intended to measure *Prestige*, as well as SERVE3 which was initially intended to measure the construct *Serving the community* loaded together onto the construct *Interaction* (See Table 6.18). Factor loadings of between 0.729 and 0.556 were returned for this factor. *Interaction and approval* explains 2.5432% of the variance in the data. The Cronbach-alpha coefficient for *Interaction and approval* is 0.689, suggesting that the scale measuring this factor is reliable. The name of this construct changed to

Interaction and approval which according to the purposes of this study refers to being people-orientated, working closely with others and gaining their approval.

Table 6.18: Validity and Reliability of Interaction and approval

% of Variance: 2.5432		Cronbach-alpha : 0.698		
Item	Running my own business	Factor loading	Item-total correl.	Cronbach-alpha after deletion
PREST2	will give me the approval of my friends and family	0.7286	0.530	0.617
INTER1	will require that I work closely with my employees	0.6768	0.514	0.630
SERVE3	will enable me to make a contribution to society in general	0.6457	0.473	0.640
INTER2	will require that I work closely with my customers	0.5636	0.373	0.687
PREST4	will be a prestigious achievement	0.5564	0.405	0.669

6.4 REVISED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the factor analysis, the operationalisation of the various constructs was reformulated, the theoretical framework was revised (see Figure 6.1) and the hypotheses reformulated. The reformulated operational definitions are summarised in Table 6.19 and the reformulated hypotheses depicted in Figure 6.1 below.

Table 6.19: Reformulated operational definitions

Factor	Operationalisation
Entrepreneurial intentions	refers to intending to be self-employed in the future and/or intending to follow an entrepreneurial career.
Challenging	refers to prioritising and performing activities that are challenging and innovative.
Stress	refers to an entrepreneurial career being a source of worry, tension and constant pressure.
Stimulating	refers to performing activities that are adventurous, exciting and difficult.

Table 6.19: Reformulated operational definitions (continued)

Financial benefit and security	refers to a rewarding income level that allows one to increase personal wealth and provide for retirement income and ensured employment.
Future prospects	refers to the ability of an entrepreneurial career to provide one with the opportunity to grow personally and professionally.
Stability and advancement	refers to an entrepreneurial career providing a regular income and stable future, and opportunities for advancement in a chosen field.
Freedom and time	refers to having the freedom to vary activities and to regulate one's working hours, as well having time for friends, family and outside interests.
Autonomy	refers to being able to work independently and make all the operational decisions for the business.
Flexibility	refers to allowing oneself to be one's own boss, to operating a business in a manner that one see fit, and adapting to changing circumstances.
Serving the community	refers to an entrepreneurial career's ability to provide one with the opportunity to help others and to be of service to the community which can result in making the world a better place.
Interaction and approval	refers to being people-orientated, working closely with others and gaining their approval.

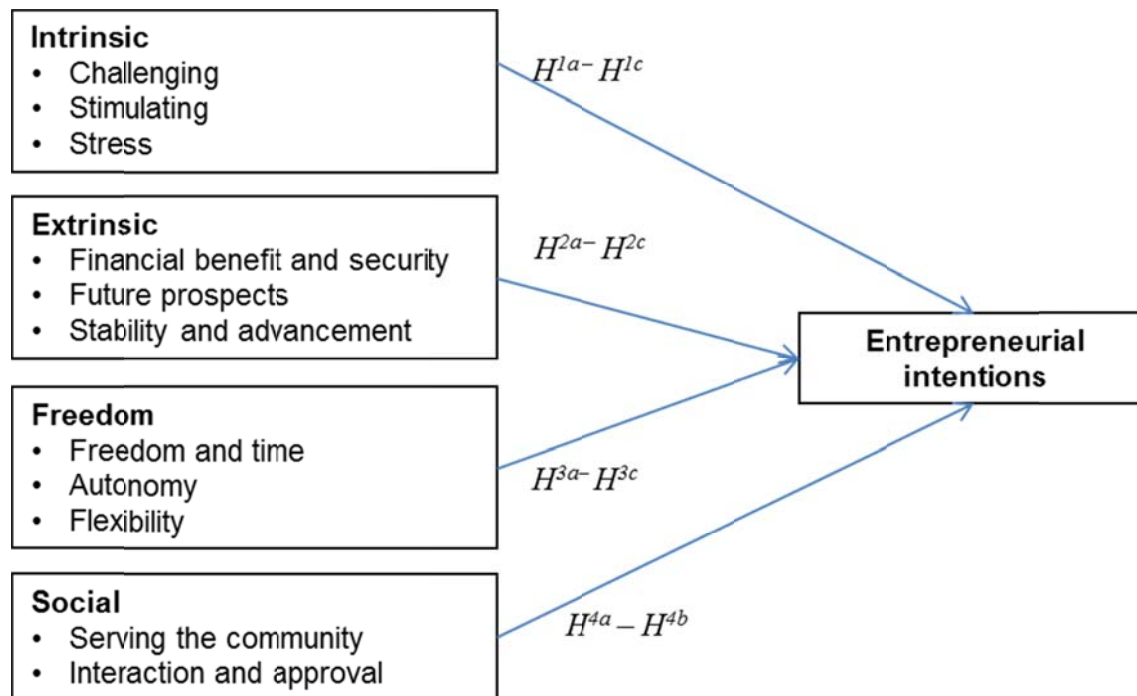
As can be seen in Figure 6.1 several independent variables were eliminated from the theoretical framework and in some cases the factors were renamed and consequently the hypotheses reformulated. The dependent variable however remains unchanged. The reformulated hypotheses are as follows:

- H^{1a-1b}: There is a positive relationship between the perception of the intrinsic-related work values (*Challenging* and *Stimulating*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career, and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{1c}: There is a negative relationship between the perception of the intrinsic-related work value *Stress*, as applicable to an entrepreneurial career, and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.
- H^{2a-2c}: There is a positive relationship between the perception of the extrinsic-related work values (*Financial benefit and security*, *Future prospects* and *Stability and advancement*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career, and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

H^{3a-3c}: There is a positive relationship between the perceptions of freedom-related work values (*Freedom and time, Autonomy and Flexibility*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career, and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

H^{4a-4b}: There is a positive relationship between the perceptions of social-related work values (*Serving the community and Interaction and approval*) as applicable to an entrepreneurial career, and the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

Figure 6.1: Proposed theoretical framework: Factors influencing entrepreneurial intentions.



(Researcher's own construction)

6.5 EMPIRICAL RESULTS

In Section 6.5 the results of the statistical analyses will be presented, these being the results of the descriptive analyses, the Pearson's product moment correlations, the multiple regression analysis and the analysis of variance.

6.5.1 Descriptive statistics

In order to describe the sample data, descriptive statistics were calculated. These included the mean, standard deviation and frequency distributions. For the purpose of brevity the frequency distribution response categories “strongly disagree, somewhat disagree and disagree” were categorised together as “disagree” in Table 6.20 below. Similarly, the response categories “strongly agree, agree and somewhat agree” were categorised together as “agree”.

The intrinsic-related work values *Challenging* and *Stimulating* reported mean scores of 4.750 and 5.342. The majority of respondents (50.54%) agreed that running their own business would require performing activities that are challenging and innovative. Of this majority, 36.41% "somewhat agreed". The vast majority 73.91% of respondents agreed that an entrepreneurial career would involve performing activities that are adventurous, exciting and difficult. The independent variable *Stress* reported a mean score of 6.065, with the vast majority (92.40%) agreeing that running their own business would be a source of worry, tension and constant pressure.

The extrinsic-related work value *Future Prospects* reported a mean score of 6.189, with the vast majority (90.76%) of respondents agreeing that an entrepreneurial career would give them the opportunity to grow personally and professionally. *Stability and advancement* returned a mean score of 5.607, while *Financial benefit and security* reported a mean score of 5.248. Most of the respondents (52%) agreed that an entrepreneurial career would provide them with a regular income and stable future, as well as opportunities for advancement in their field, and 66.85% agreed that running their own business would provide them with a rewarding income allowing them to increase personal wealth, provide for retirement income, and ensure employment.

With regard to social-related work values, *Interaction and approval* reported a mean score of 6.170, and *Serving the community* a mean score of 5.725. The majority of the respondents (94%) agreed that an entrepreneurial career requires one to be people-orientated, work closely with others and gain their approval. Most of the respondents

(79%) also agreed that an entrepreneurial career could provide the opportunity to help others and be of service to the community.

Table 6.20: Descriptive statistics (N=184)

Factor	Mean	Std. Dev	Disagree%	Neutral%	Agree%
Challenging	4.750	1.170	22.826	26.630	50.543
Stress	6.065	0.823	1.630	5.978	92.391
Stimulating	5.342	1.139	12.500	13.587	73.913
Financial benefit and security	5.284	1.107	10.326	22.826	66.848
Future Prospects	6.189	0.882	4.348	4.891	90.761
Stability and advancement	5.607	1.069	22.826	25.000	52.174
Serving the community	5.725	1.036	3.804	16.848	79.348
Interaction and approval	6.170	0.754	1.630	4.348	94.022
Freedom and time	5.176	1.070	13.043	22.826	64.130
Autonomy	5.611	1.178	7.065	15.217	77.717
Flexibility	5.884	0.874	2.717	7.609	89.674
Entrepreneurial intentions	5.634	1.120	9.239	16.30	74.457

For the freedom-related work values of *Freedom and time*, *Autonomy* and *Flexibility*, mean scores of 5.176, 5.611 and 5.884 were reported respectively. Of the respondents, 64.13% agreed that an entrepreneurial career allows one the freedom to vary activities and to regulate working hours, while 77.71% agreed that being an entrepreneur gives an individual the ability to work independently and make all the operational decisions for business. In addition, to these findings, the vast majority of the respondents (89.67%) agreed that an entrepreneurial career allows one to be one's own boss, to operate a business in a manner that one see fit, and adapt to changing circumstances.

The dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions* returned a mean score of 5.634, with the majority of the respondents (74.46%) agreeing that they intended to become self-employed in the future and/or to follow an entrepreneurial career.

6.5.2 Pearson's product moment correlations

The correlations between the various variables investigated in this study are presented in Table 6.21 below. The Pearson's product moment correlations were established for this purpose. Significant positive ($p < 0.05$) correlations are reported between *Challenging* and the following work values, namely *Stress* ($r = 0.165$), *Stimulating* ($r = 0.236$), *Autonomy* ($r = 0.175$) and *Flexibility* ($r = 0.157$). Although these correlations are significant, the r -values are less than +0.3 reflecting little or no association (Simon, 2005). The factor *Stress* reported significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlations with all the work values investigated this study. The factors *Challenging* ($r = 0.165$), *Stimulating* ($r = 0.270$), *Serving the community* ($r = 0.243$) and *Financial benefit and security* ($r = 0.363$) all report little or no association. *Future prospects* ($r = 0.304$), *Stability and advancement* ($r = 0.325$), *Freedom and time* ($r = 0.332$), *Autonomy* ($r = 0.311$), *Flexibility* ($r = 0.438$), *Interaction and approval* ($r = 0.423$), and *Entrepreneurial intentions* ($r = 0.395$) all reflect a weak positive association (Simon, 2005).

Table 6.21: Pearson's correlations coefficients

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Challenging	1.000	0.165	0.236	0.084	-0.069	0.001
2 Stress	0.165	1.000	0.270	0.363	0.304	0.325
3 Stimulating	0.236	0.270	1.000	0.278	0.240	0.093
4 Financial benefit and security	0.084	0.363	0.278	1.000	0.355	0.630
5 Future Prospects	-0.069	0.304	0.240	0.355	1.000	0.360
6 Stability and advancement	0.001	0.325	0.093	0.630	0.360	1.000
7 Serving the community	-0.095	0.243	0.275	0.553	0.308	0.443
8 Interaction and approval	-0.048	0.423	0.290	0.386	0.574	0.353
9 Freedom and time	0.036	0.332	0.207	0.719	0.301	0.615
10 Autonomy	0.175	0.311	0.099	0.314	0.445	0.465
11 Flexibility	0.157	0.438	0.299	0.452	0.218	0.342
12 Entrepreneurial intentions	-0.098	0.395	0.173	0.433	0.464	0.408

($p < 0.05$)

Table 6.21: Pearson's correlations coefficients (continued)

Factor	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Challenging	-0.095	-0.048	0.036	0.175	0.157	-0.098
2 Stress	0.243	0.423	0.332	0.311	0.438	0.395
3 Stimulating	0.275	0.290	0.207	0.099	0.299	0.173
4 Financial benefit and security	0.553	0.386	0.719	0.314	0.452	0.433
5 Future Prospects	0.308	0.574	0.301	0.445	0.218	0.464
6 Stability and advancement	0.443	0.353	0.615	0.465	0.342	0.408
7 Serving the community	1.000	0.385	0.473	0.129	0.313	0.416
8 Interaction and approval	0.385	1.000	0.342	0.321	0.276	0.402
9 Freedom and time	0.473	0.342	1.000	0.388	0.420	0.441
10 Autonomy	0.129	0.321	0.388	1.000	0.302	0.170
11 Flexibility	0.313	0.276	0.420	0.302	1.000	0.183
12 Entrepreneurial intentions	0.416	0.402	0.441	0.170	0.183	1.000

(p<0.05)

From Table 6.21 it can be seen that the factor *Stimulating*, reported significant ($p<0.05$) positive correlations with all the variables in the study, except for the factors of; *Stability and advancement* ($r = 0.093$) and *Autonomy* ($r = 0.099$). Although significant positive relationships are established between *Stimulating* and the factors *Challenging* ($r = 0.236$), *Stress* ($r = 0.270$), *Financial benefit and security* ($r = 0.278$), *Future Prospects* ($r = 0.240$), *Serving the community* ($r = 0.275$), *Interaction and approval* ($r = 0.290$), *Freedom and time* ($r = 0.207$), *Flexibility* ($r = 0.299$) and *Entrepreneurial intentions* ($r = 0.173$), the r - values are all less than +0.3, implying little or no association between these variables (Simon, 2005).

Financial benefit and security reported significant ($p<0.05$) positive correlations with all the variables investigated in this study, except for the factor *Challenging* ($r = 0.084$). The correlation coefficient reported for *Stimulating* was only 0.278, implying little or no association between *Financial benefit and security* and *Stimulating*. The highest correlation coefficient ($r = 0.719$) was reported between *Financial benefit and security* and *Freedom and time* reflecting a strong positive association (Simon, 2005).

There is no significant ($p < 0.05$) relationship between the factor *Challenging* and the variable *Future Prospects*. Apart from the factor *Challenging*, significant positive ($p < 0.05$) correlations are reported between *Future Prospects* and all the other variables listed in Table 6.21. The factors, *Interaction and approval* ($r = 0.574$), *Freedom and time* ($r = 0.445$) and *Entrepreneurial intentions* ($r = 0.464$) reported the highest correlations with *Future Prospects*. According to Simon (2005), the, r -values however, reflect a weak positive correlation.

From Table 6.21 it can be seen that significant ($p < 0.05$) positive relationships exist between *Stability and advancement* and all the other variables except for *Challenging* and *Stimulating*. The variables which reported the highest correlation coefficients include *Financial benefit and security* ($r = 0.630$), *Serving the community* ($r = 0.443$) and *Interaction and approval* ($r = 0.615$). These reported r -values, however, reflect a weak positive association between these factors (Simon, 2005).

Significant positive ($p < 0.05$) correlations were reported between *Serving the community* and all the other work values, except *Challenging* and *Autonomy*. The factors *Financial benefit and security* ($r = 0.553$), *Freedom and time* ($r = 0.473$), *Stability and advancement* ($r = 0.443$) and *Entrepreneurial intentions* ($r = 0.416$) reported the highest r -values but still reflect weak positive associations (Simon, 2005).

Significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlations were reported between *Interaction and approval* and all the other variables, except for *Challenging*. The variable that reported the highest r -value was *Future prospects* ($r = 0.574$) which according to Simon (2005) reflects a weak positive association.

A significant ($p < 0.05$) positive relationship is reported between *Freedom and time* and the variable *Financial benefit and security* ($r = 0.719$). *Financial benefit and security* reported the highest r -value when compared to the other variables, with an r -value reflecting a strong positive correlation (Simon, 2005). No relationship was reported was

reported for the factor *Freedom and time* and *Challenging*. The variable *Stimulating* ($r = 0.207$) reported the lowest r -value, reflecting little or no association (Simon, 2005).

The factor *Autonomy* reported significant ($p < 0.05$) correlations with all the variables except *Stimulating* ($r = 0.099$) and *Serving the community* ($r = 0.129$). The variable *Stability and advancement* ($r = 0.465$) reported the highest correlation coefficient, which according to Simon (2005) reflects a weak positive association.

Flexibility reported significant ($p < 0.05$) positive correlations with all the other variables investigated in this study. *Challenging* ($r = 0.157$) reported the lowest r -value which according to Simon (2005) reflects little or no association between *Flexibility* and *Challenging*. *Stress* ($r = 0.438$) reported the highest correlation which reflects a weak positive association (Simon, 2005).

From Table 6.21, it can be seen that the factor *Entrepreneurial intentions* reported significant ($p < 0.05$) positive relationship with all the work values investigated in this study. *Future prospects* ($r = 0.464$) reported the highest correlation with *Entrepreneurial intentions*, but according to Simon (2005) coefficients of less than 7 reflect weak positive associations.

6.5.3 Multiple regression analysis

A multiple regression analysis was undertaken to assess whether the independent (intrinsic-, extrinsic-, social- and freedom-related work values) variables exert a significant influence on the dependent variable, *Entrepreneurial intentions*. The results of the multiple regression analysis show that these independent variables explain 42% of the variance in *Entrepreneurial intentions*.

From Table 6.22 it can be seen that a positive linear relationship (3.665; $p < 0.001$) is reported between *Stimulating* and *Entrepreneurial intentions*. As this relationship is positive, it suggests that the more stimulating an entrepreneurial career is perceived to

be, the more likely an individual would be to pursue such a career. Significant positive linear relationships are also reported between *Stability and advancement* (4.068; $p < 0.01$) and *Autonomy* (2.445; $p < 0.05$). In other words, the more it is perceived that an entrepreneurial career will offer one a regular income, a stable future, and opportunities for advancement in one's field, the more likely one is to follow an entrepreneurial career. In addition, Fakoti (2010: 91) supports the notion that security is an important benefit expected from an entrepreneurial career.

Similarly, the more it is perceived that an entrepreneurial career will allow one to work independently and make all the operational decisions for the business, the more likely one is to consider such a career in the future. This finding is supported Fatoki (2010: 89) who asserts that the thought of being one's boss, being in control of one's destiny, and having ultimate responsibility for the success of the venture, motivates individuals to pursue an entrepreneurial career. Similarly, Choo and Wong (2006: 55) found that people pursue an entrepreneurial career were hoping to be their own boss, have an interesting job, determining their own hours, work at a location of their choice, take advantage of a market opportunity, and create their own job. The work value *Autonomy*, however, reported poor evidence of reliability and the results relating to this construct should therefore be treated with caution.

A significant ($p < 0.05$) negative relationship was reported between *Flexibility* (-2.308; $p < 0.05$) and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. In other words, the more an entrepreneurial career is perceived as allowing one to be one's boss, to operate a business in a manner that one see fit and adapt to changing circumstances, the less likely are the intentions of following such a career . In contrast Volery, Doss, Mazzarol and Thein (1997), found that aspirant entrepreneurs were motivated to pursue an entrepreneurial career because of the motivation of being their own boss, being more in control of their destiny and having ultimate responsibility for the success of their business. As with *Autonomy*, *Flexibility* also reported poor evidence of reliability. The results relating to this construct should thus also be treated with caution.

This study found no relationship between the independent variables *Challenging*, *Stress*, *Financial benefit and security*, *Future prospects*, *Serving the community*, *Interaction and approval*, and *Freedom and time*, and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. In other words, whether or not these work values are perceived to exist when following an entrepreneurial career, has no influence on the intentions of respondents to follow such a career.

Against this background, support is found for the hypothesised relationships between the work values *Stimulating* (H^{1b}), *Stability and advancement* (H^{2c}) and *Autonomy* (H^{3b}), and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*, but not for the work values *Flexibility* (H^{3c}), *Challenging* (H^{1a}), *Stress* (H^{1c}), *Financial benefit and security* (H^{2a}), *Future prospects* (H^{2b}), *Serving the community* (H^{4a}), *Interaction and approval* (H^{4b}) and *Freedom and time* (H^{3a}).

Table 6.22: Influence of the independent variables on Entrepreneurial intentions

Dependent variable: Entrepreneurial intentions		R-Square = 0.4229	
Independent variables	Beta	t-value	Sig.(p)
Challenging	0.189493	0.26335	0.792597
Stress	-0.061121	-0.99828	0.319544
Stimulating	0.351992	3.66527	0.000329***
Financial benefit and security	-0.011049	-0.16851	0.866379
Future Prospects	0.038480	0.39315	0.694695
Stability and advancement	0.398862	4.06779	0.000072***
Serving the community	0.115779	1.30399	0.193979
Interaction and approval	0.144215	1.77749	0.077254
Freedom and time	0.035298	0.30641	0.759662
Autonomy	0.229864	2.44528	0.015482*
Flexibility	-0.163738	-2.30825	0.022175*

(*p<0.05; **p<0.01; *** p<0.001)

6.5.4 The influence of demographic variables on intentions and perceptions

In order to establish whether relationships exist between selected demographic variables and the dependent and independent variables investigated in this study, an analysis of variance was undertaken. In addition, the post-hoc Bonferroni test was done to identify significance differences between the means scores of the various categories within each demographic variable. The practical significance of these differences was assessed by means of calculating Cohen's d. Cohen's d values of greater than 0.2 but less than 0.5 reflect difference of small, practical, significant values of greater than 0.5. Values of less than 0.8 reflect difference of moderate practical significance, whereas values of greater than 0.8 reflect difference of large practical significance (Becker, 2000).

6.5.4.1 Demographic variables and Entrepreneurial intentions

The results of the analysis of variance reported a significant positive ($p < 0.01$) relationship between the demographic variable *Population group* and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. Similarly, studies conducted in Africa (Urban, van Vuurman & Owen, 2008: 3) reveal that race and ethnicity are important predictors of entrepreneurial activity. The post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed that Black respondents ($\bar{x} = 5.967$) scored significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) mean scores than White respondents ($\bar{x} = 5.268$) for *Entrepreneurial intentions*. However, a Cohen's d value of 0.656 shows that the differences between these mean scores is of small practical significance. No significant difference is, however, reported between Black and Coloured/Asian respondents or between White and Coloured/Asian respondents. These findings are consistent with those of Fairlie (2004: 203) who asserts that there are more Black self-employed individuals than Whites. On the contrary however, Herrington, Kew and Kew (2010: 4) contend that in South Africa, White South Africans are more likely to start new business ventures than other ethnic groups.

No significant relationships were reported between the demographic variables *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents* and *Gender*, and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. Contrary to the findings of this study Boyd (1990) found a positive correlation between the age of an individual and his/her entrepreneurial intentions. Similarly, Bates (1995) found that entrepreneurial intentions escalate with age, with intention increasing as people approach the age of 40 but levelling out thereafter. The findings of this study suggest that whether one has entrepreneurial parents or not has no influence on one's entrepreneurial intentions. Krueger (1993) and Bagheri, Zaidatol and Pihie (2010: 434) assert however that having entrepreneurial parents results in individuals being more likely to express entrepreneurial intentions. As with the case of *Entrepreneurial parents*, the findings of this study suggest that a person's gender has no influence on their entrepreneurial intentions. The findings of this study contradict those of Reynolds, Carter, Gartner, Greene, and Cox (2002) who found that in the United States adult men are twice as likely as women to be in the process of starting a new business. In South Africa it is also reported that women tend to have lower entrepreneurial career aspirations than men (Farrington, *et al.*, 2011; Herrington *et al.*, 2010; Urban, 2010).

Table 6.23: Demographic variables and Entrepreneurial Intentions

Dependent variable: Entrepreneurial intentions		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	0.0968	0.756118
Entrepreneurial parents	0.8220	0.483344
Gender	0.8697	0.352336
Population group	7.1362	0.001052**

(*p<0.05; **p<0.01; *** p<0.001)

Against this background, the null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between demographic variables and *Entrepreneurial Intentions* is accepted for the *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parent* and *Gender*, but not for the variable *Population group*.

6.5.4.2 Demographic variables and intrinsic-related work values

As seen in Table 6.24, the results of analysis of variance reveal a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) between the demographic variable *Population group* and the intrinsic work value *Challenging*. The post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed that White respondents (5.050) scored significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) mean scores than Black respondents (4.576) for this factor. However, a Cohen's d value of 0.400 shows that the differences between these mean scores is of small practical significance. No significant difference was reported between White and Coloured/Asian respondents or between Black and Coloured/Asian respondents. No significant relationships were reported between the other demographic variables and *Challenging*, or between the demographic variables *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents*, *Gender* and *Population group* and the intrinsic work value *Stress*.

The results of the analysis of variance reveal a significant relationship between the demographic variables *Entrepreneurial parent* ($p < 0.05$) and *Population group* ($p < 0.01$), and the intrinsic work value *Stimulating*. The Bonferroni test however, did not report a significant difference between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parent* and *Stimulating*. The Bonferroni test did reveal that a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) exists between the mean scores reported by White (5.688) and Black ($\bar{x} = 5.024$) respondents for *Stimulating*. Cohen's d ($\bar{x} = 0.603$) reveals this difference to be of moderate practical significance. No significant differences were reported for *Stimulating* between White and Coloured/Asian respondents or between Black and Coloured/Asian respondents.

The null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables and *Challenging* is accepted for *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parent* and *Gender* but not for *Population group*. The null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables investigated and *Stress*, is accepted for *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parent*, *Gender* and *Population group*.

The null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables investigated and *Stimulating* is accepted for both *Age* and *Gender*, but not for *Entrepreneurial parent* or *Population group*.

Table 6.24: Demographic variables and Intrinsic-related work values

Dependent variable: Challenging		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	1.0748	0.301304
Entrepreneurial parents	1.0423	0.375265
Gender	0.0639	0.800704
Population group	4.0468	0.019160*
Dependent variable: Stress		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	0.9563	0.329487
Entrepreneurial parents	0.6733	0.569489
Gender	2.5174	0.114419
Population group	0.5203	0.595254
Dependent variable: Stimulating		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	3.8148	0.052414
Entrepreneurial parent	3.0093	0.031701*
Gender	0.5432	0.462104
Population group	9.0162	0.000188**

(*p<0.05; **p<0.01; *** p<0.001)

6.5.4.3 Demographic variables and extrinsic-related work values

In Table 6.25 the results of the analysis of variance between the demographic variables (*Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents*, *Gender* and *Population group*) and the dependent variable *Financial benefit and security* are presented. No significant relationships are reported between *Entrepreneurial parents* and *Gender*, and the work value *Financial benefit and security*. By contrast, a significant relationship is reported between *Age* and

Financial benefit and security ($p < 0.01$) as well as between *Population group* and *Financial benefit and security* ($p < 0.01$).

The post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed that a significant difference ($p < 0.01$) exists between the mean scores reported by White (4.810) and Black (5.528) respondents for the work value *Financial benefit and security*. The Cohen's d value (0.652) indicated that this difference is of moderate practical significance. Furthermore, the post-hoc Bonferroni test also revealed a significant difference ($p < 0.01$) for this work value between the mean scores reported by White (5.598) and Asian/Coloured (6.235) respondents. The Cohen's d value (0.683) indicated this difference to be of moderate practical significance. The post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed no significant difference between the age of the respondent (*Age*) and the perception of *Financial benefit and security* applicable to an entrepreneurial career.

No significant relationship is reported between the demographic variables, *Age*, *Gender* and *Population group*, and the work value *Future prospects* (see Table 6.25). However, a significant relationship did emerge between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and the extrinsic work value *Future prospects* ($p < 0.05$). The post-hoc Bonferroni test did not, however, support this finding.

It can be seen that from Table 6.25 below that no significant relationships are reported between the independent variables *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents* and *Gender*, and the work value *Stability and advancement*. A significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) is however reported between the demographic variable *Population group* and the extrinsic work value *Stability and advancement* ($p < 0.01$). This result is supported by the post-hoc Bonferroni test which revealed a significant difference ($p < 0.01$) between the mean score reported by White respondents (5.302) and those reported by Asian/Coloured (5.991) respondents. A Cohen's d value of 0.667 indicates this difference to be of moderate practical significance. No significant difference is however reported between White and Black respondents or between Black and Coloured/Asian respondents.

Table 6.25: Demographic variables and Extrinsic-related work values

Dependent variable: Financial benefit and security		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	11.9237	0.000697**
Entrepreneurial parents	0.6200	0.602941
Gender	0.0772	0.781519
Population group	9.9103	0.000084**
Dependent variable: Future prospects		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	0.1006	0.751487
Entrepreneurial parents	3.4441	0.018027*
Gender	0.0756	0.783624
Population group	0.9739	0.379672
Dependent variable: Stability and advancement		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	2.6722	0.103931
Entrepreneurial parents	0.8561	0.465139
Gender	0.0057	0.939796
Population group	5.0449	0.007422**

(*p<0.05; **p<0.01; *** p<0.001)

The null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables investigated and *Financial benefit and security* is accepted for *Entrepreneurial parent* and *Gender*, but not for *Age* and *Population group*. Support is found for the null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables *Age*, *Gender* and *Population group*, and the work value *Future prospects* but support was not found for no relationship existing between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parent* and *Future prospects*.

Furthermore, the null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables investigated and *Stability and advancement* is accepted for *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parent* and *Gender*, but not for *Population group*.

6.5.4.4 Demographic variables and freedom-related work values

The results of the analysis of variance (see Table 6.26) show that no significant relationship exists between the demographic variables *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents*, *Gender* and *Population group* and the freedom-related work values.

Table: 6.26: Demographic variables and Freedom-related work values

Dependent variable: Freedom and time		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	10.3464	0.001549
Entrepreneurial parents	2.1202	0.099431
Gender	0.9905	0.398634
Population group	0.0035	0.952801
Dependent variable: Autonomy		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	3.4626	0.064469
Entrepreneurial parent	0.8306	0.478716
Gender	0.3236	0.808306
Population group	0.0272	0.869244
Dependent variable: Flexibility		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	3.5236	0.062185
Entrepreneurial parents	0.1230	0.946445
Gender	0.7911	0.500399
Population group	0.0074	0.931665

(*p<0.05; **p<0.01; *** p<0.001)

The null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables investigated and freedom-related work values *Freedom and time*, *Autonomy* and *Flexibility* is thus accepted for all the demographic variables investigated in this study (*Age*, *Entrepreneurial parent*, *Gender* and *Population group*).

6.5.4.5 Demographic variables and social-related work values

The analysis of variance reveals no significant relationships between the demographic variables *Age* and *Gender* and the social-related work values *Serving the community* and *Interaction and approval*. However, a significant relationship ($p < 0.05$) is reported between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and the work value *Serving the community*. The post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed no significant difference between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* of the respondent and the perception of *Serving the community* as applicable to an entrepreneurial career.

A significant relationship ($p < 0.01$) is reported between the demographic variable *Population group* and the dependent variable *Serving the community*. The post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed a significant difference ($p < 0.01$) between the mean scores of White respondents ($\bar{x} = 5.307$) in comparison to Black respondents ($\bar{x} = 5.896$). However, a Cohen's d value of 0.575 shows that the difference between these means scores is of small practical significance. In addition, the post-hoc Bonferroni test also revealed a significant difference ($p < 0.01$) between the means scored by White respondents (5.604) in comparison to Asian/Coloured respondents (6.338) with Cohen's d (0.713) indicating this difference to be of moderate practical significance.

Based on the analysis of variance, no significant relationships are reported between the demographic variables *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents*, *Gender* and *Population group* (see Table 6.27), and the social work value *Interaction and approval*.

The null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables investigated and *Serving the community* is accepted for *Age* and *Gender* but

not for *Entrepreneurial parent* and *Population group*. Furthermore, the null-hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the demographic variables investigated and *Interaction and approval* is accepted for all the demographic variables investigated, namely *Age, Entrepreneurial parents, Gender* and *Population group*.

Table: 6.27: Demographic variables and Social-related work values

Dependent variable: Serving the community		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	1.2775	0.259925
Entrepreneurial parents	2.6991	0.047347*
Gender	0.3015	0.583661
Population group	8.3582	0.000343**
Dependent variable: Interaction and approval		
Independent variables	F-value	Sig.(p)
Age	0.292	0.589893
Entrepreneurial parents	1.748	0.159057
Gender	1.325	0.267952
Population group	1.594	0.208413

(*p<0.05; **p<0.01; *** p<0.001)

6.6 SUMMARY

The empirical results of the study were presented in this chapter. The chapter started by providing a summary of the demographic information collected from respondents. This information was presented in two tables: demographic information pertaining to the respondents as individuals, and demographic information pertaining to the respondents in the context of the business.

Thereafter the results of the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument were given. Based on these results, eleven factors or work values were identified as possibly influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of respondents. These factors were named

Challenging, Stimulating, Stress, Financial benefit and security, Future prospects, Stability and advancement, Freedom and time, Autonomy, Flexibility, Serving the community and Interaction and approval. The proposed theoretical framework was revised, and the operationalisation of factors and hypotheses were reformulated. The next section examined the results of the statistical analyses. These were the results of the descriptive analyses, the Pearson's product moment correlations and the multiple regression analysis. The proposed theoretical framework of the factors influencing *Entrepreneurial Intentions* was empirically tested using multiple regression analysis. Finally, the question of whether relationships exist between the demographic variables and perceptions (measured in terms of the various work values) of an entrepreneurial career, as well as between demographic variables and entrepreneurial intentions, was assessed by mean of an analysis of variance.

In Chapter 7 (the next and final chapter of this study), a summary of the entire study is presented. Thereafter, the empirical results presented in Chapter 6 are interpreted and recommendations made. The contributions of the study are then highlighted and finally the limitations of the study are discussed and recommendations for future research are presented.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 6, the empirical results were presented. The purpose of Chapter 7, the final chapter of this study, is to provide an overview of the various chapters, to summarise and interpret the key findings, and to propose several recommendations. In addition, the contribution and limitations of the study will be highlighted. Lastly several recommendations for future research will be suggested.

7.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

In addition to providing a background for the topic under investigation, Chapter 1 presented the problem statement, the purpose of the study, and the research objectives. The purpose of the study was to investigate the perceptions that employees have regarding an entrepreneurial career. By investigating these perceptions, explanations have been sought as to why many individuals remain in the employment of others, rather than embarking on an entrepreneurial career. Consequently, the primary objective of this study were to establish the perceptions that employees have regarding self-employment, running their own business or following an entrepreneurial career, and to establish the influence of these perceptions on their entrepreneurial intentions. These perceptions were established in terms of several workplace values. In order to achieve the primary objective of this study, the following secondary objectives were put forward:

- (i) To investigate which research paradigm, research methodology and data collection methods would be most suitable to address the research problem.
- (ii) To undertake an in-depth analysis of secondary sources dealing with various factors influencing an individual's career choice, intentions and work values applicable to an entrepreneurial career.

- (iii) To source primary data from a sample of employees working for small businesses so as to establish their perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of several workplace values.
- (iv) To empirically test whether relationships exist between employees' perceptions of an entrepreneurial career and their intentions of embarking on such a career.
- (v) To empirically test whether relationships exist between selected demographic variables and employee perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.
- (vi) To empirically test whether relationships exist between selected demographic variables and employee entrepreneurial intentions.
- (vii) To report on the findings and make recommendations for improving people's perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.

In Chapters 2, 3 and 4, an in-depth analysis of secondary sources dealing with various factors influencing an individual's career choice, intentions and work values applicable to an entrepreneurial career was presented. In doing so, the second secondary objective was achieved.

In Chapter 2, career choice and the factors influencing career choices were discussed. A career was defined as an integration of one's personality with the job activities that one performs, and specific reference was made to the various individual, environmental and situational factors that influence career choice.

In addition, entrepreneurship as a career choice was described. More specifically, the nature of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurial character was described, and the importance of entrepreneurship elaborated on. Various definitions of entrepreneurship were presented. In general, entrepreneurship was described as a behaviour that manifests in taking initiatives, turning resources and situations into practical solutions, and accepting the risks associated with starting entrepreneurial ventures. The various attributes (characteristics, personality traits and skills) associated with entrepreneurial characters were also identified. Although an abundance of literature exists attempting to define the attributes of entrepreneurs, the most commonly cited are the *need to achieve*, the ability to *take risks*, *tolerance*

for *ambiguity, locus of control, creativity and innovation*. The important role played by entrepreneurship in developing the economy, creating employment and alleviating poverty was highlighted.

An entrepreneurial career was described as managing one's own business and requiring one to make personal sacrifices, and to be innovative and creative in terms of doing something new for the benefit of the society. In addition, the differences between an entrepreneurial career path and a traditional career path were identified. Several push- and pull-factors influencing people to become entrepreneurs were described. Lastly, the status of entrepreneurship in South Africa was discussed. The second secondary objective was achieved in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 focused on the nature of intentions and the factors that influence intentions. "Intentions" were defined as any planned behaviour, and indicate how much effort a person is willing to exert in order to perform the given behaviour. Two models of intentions, namely the theory of planned behaviour and the entrepreneurial event model, were described in detail to identify the factors that influence intentions. *Attitude towards the behaviour* emerged as having the strongest influence on entrepreneurial intentions, and thus formed the focus of this study. A person's attitude towards self-employment reflects his/her perception of self-employment, and this perception is associated with self-employment intentions. Work values shape preferences for a career, and as such directly influence an individual's attitudes and perceptions concerning that career. The 14 work values identified by Farrington *et al.* (2011) served as the factors to be investigated in establishing the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in this study, namely *Time, Flexibility, Financial benefit, Challenging, Stimulating, Imaginative, Security, Prestige, Autonomy, Interaction, Serving the community, Stress, Responsibility and Future prospects*.

In Chapter 4, a theoretical framework of hypothesised relationships between the independent variables (work values) and the dependent variable (*Entrepreneurial intentions*) was proposed. The perceptions of an entrepreneurial career were established in terms of the work values identified in Chapter 3. These work values were categorised as intrinsic-, extrinsic-, social- and freedom-related work values,

and served as the independent variables in this study. In addition, theoretical and anecdotal support was provided for the relationships hypothesised. An entrepreneurial career was described in terms of each of these work values.

Several demographic variables were also hypothesised as influencing the intention to follow an entrepreneurial career, and respondents' perceptions thereof. Demographic factors such as age, entrepreneurial parents (role models), gender, and population group were considered. Anecdotal and empirical evidence supporting these relationships was elaborated on.

In Chapter 5, the research methodology applied in this study was identified and discussed, thus achieving the first secondary objective. Firstly, the research paradigm and method adopted for this study were described. In quantitative research, the researcher studies phenomena of interest and looks at standardised subjects, providing statistical analysis as well as scientific explanations of cause and effect. Hence, the use of a quantitative research approach was considered the most appropriate option for this study. Thereafter, samples and the sampling technique were described. Convenience snowball sampling was adopted, and the sample consisted of 400 employees working in small businesses in the Eastern Cape. In total 184 usable questionnaires were returned, on which to undertake the statistical analyses. The method of data collection, design of the measuring instrument and the administration of the questionnaires were described. Lastly, the techniques adopted to assess the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument was discussed, and the statistical techniques to analyse the data briefly elaborated on. These techniques included descriptive statistics (the mean, standard deviation and frequency distributions), Pearson's product moment correlations, multiple regression analysis and an analysis of variance, the results of which were presented in Chapter 6.

In Chapter 6 the empirical results were presented, and as such the third secondary objective achieved. Firstly, the demographic information collected from respondents participating in the study was summarised. The majority of the respondents were female and between the ages of 31 and 40 years. Most were Black, followed by White and Coloured/Asian. The majority of the respondents indicated that their

parents did not own their own business. Respondents were mostly found to be employed in the retail, services, hospitality and tourism industries.

In order to assess the validity of the measuring instrument, a confirmatory factor analysis was done on the dependent variable, and an exploratory factor analysis was done on the independent variables. Items that loaded onto one factor only and reported factor loadings of greater than 0.5 were considered significant. Only factors with more than 2 items measuring a factor were considered for further statistical analysis. Sufficient evidence of validity was found for the dependent variable. However, the items measuring the independent variables did not load as expected. As a result, several new factors emerged on which to undertake the statistical analysis. The names of some factors were retained while others were renamed. Based on the factor analysis, in some cases the operationalisation of constructs was reformulated.

The reliability of the measuring instrument was assessed by means of calculating Cronbach-alpha coefficients. Anderson and Tatham (2006: 137) assert that Cronbach-alpha coefficients of 0.6 are deemed acceptable. Cronbach-alpha coefficients of greater than 0.60 were reported for all the factors in the study except for the factors *Autonomy* and *Flexibility*. This suggests that the measuring scales used in the study were reliable, but the measuring scales used to measure *Autonomy* and *Flexibility* showed poor evidence of reliability. Given the close proximity of these Cronbach-alpha coefficients to 0.6, it was decided to retain *Autonomy* and *Flexibility* in the statistical analysis. As a result of the validity and reliability assessment, the theoretical framework was revised and the hypotheses reformulated.

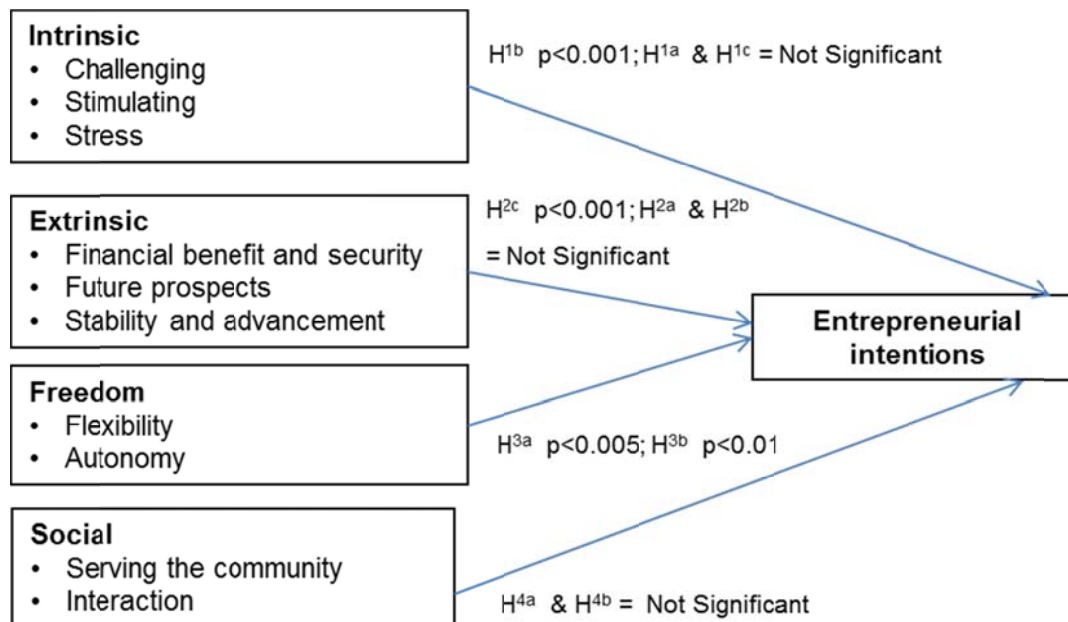
Descriptive statistics were calculated to summarise the sample data, namely the mean, standard deviation and frequency distributions. These results contributed to the achievement of the third secondary objective. The dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions* returned a mean score of 5.634, with the majority of respondents agreeing that they intended to become self-employed in the future and/or follow an entrepreneurial career. Mean scores of between 6.189 and 4.750 were reported for the independent variables, with more than 50% of respondents

agreeing that the work values investigated in this study would be realised in the context of an entrepreneurial career. The factor *Future prospects* showed the highest mean, with the majority of respondent agreeing that an entrepreneurial career would provide them the opportunity to grow personally and professionally. *Challenging* produced the lowest mean score. The perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of the work values investigated in this study were thus identified, achieving the primary objective of the study.

Pearson's product moment correlation was conducted in order to assess the relationships between the various factors under investigation. Significant positive correlations were reported between all the work values investigated and *Entrepreneurial intentions* except for the *Challenging* and *Autonomy*.

The influence of the various work values investigated on the *Entrepreneurial intentions* of employees working in small businesses was established by means of a multiple regression analysis. The fourth secondary objective was thus achieved. The significant relationships identified are summarised in Figure 7.1. The interpretations of these findings will be elaborated on in Section 7.3

Figure 7.1: Summary of significant relationships



Finally, an analysis of variance was undertaken to establish whether relationships existed between selected demographic variables on the one hand and the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of various work values, as well as the entrepreneurial intentions of respondents, on the other. The fifth and sixth secondary objectives were thus achieved. Further to the ANOVA, the Bonferroni post-hoc test was conducted to identify significant differences between the means scores of the various categories within each demographic variable. Cohen's *d* was calculated to assess the practical significance of these differences.

The results of the analysis of variance showed a significant positive relationship between the demographic variable *Population group* and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. But no significant relationships were reported between the demographic variables *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents* and *Gender*, and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. The results of the analysis of variance showed a significant positive relationship between the demographic variable *Population group* and the intrinsic work values *Challenging and Stimulating*, the extrinsic-related work values *Financial benefit and security* and *Stability and advancement*, and the social-related work value *Serving the community*. A significant positive relationship was also reported between the demographic variable *Entrepreneurial parents* and the intrinsic-related work value *Stimulating*, the extrinsic-related work value *Future prospects* and the social-related work value *Serving the community*. The demographic variable *Age* showed a significant positive relationship with the extrinsic-related work value *Financial benefit and security*. The interpretations of these findings will be elaborated on in Section 7.3.5.

7.3 INTERPRETATIONS OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In Chapter 6, the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career in terms of several work values were reported as having a significant positive influence on entrepreneurial intentions of employees working in small businesses. These relationships were summarised in Figure 7.1. In the sections to follow, the significant relationships identified will be interpreted, and recommendations will be made. As such, the primary objective and the last secondary objective of this study were achieved.

Small business owners play an important role in creating among their employees positive perceptions of an entrepreneurial career. Therefore, several of the recommendations suggested are directed at them in particular.

7.3.1 Stimulating

The results of this study show a significant positive relationship between *Stimulating* and *Entrepreneurial intentions*. In other words, the more an entrepreneurial career is perceived as involving activities that are adventurous, exciting and difficult, the more likely is the intention to follow an entrepreneurial career. The following recommendations are put forward in this regard.

- Before embarking on an entrepreneurial career, a potential entrepreneur should carefully investigate whether the field chosen in which to operate his/her business will in fact provide the anticipated adventure and excitement. In this way disappointment and disillusionment can be avoided.
- Career counsellors should advise people about what they can expect when embarking on an entrepreneurial career, so that they can be fully aware of what the job entails before engaging in such a career path.
- Employees could be given an opportunity to suggest ideas about what could be done in a business in order to create a fun and exciting environment for themselves as well as all the parties involved in the business.

7.3.2 Stability and advancement

The findings of this study show that *Stability and advancement* have a significant positive influence on *Entrepreneurial intentions*. This means that the more an entrepreneurial career is perceived to provide one with a regular income and a stable future, as well as opportunities for advancement in one's field, the more likely the intention to follow an entrepreneurial career. The following recommendations are suggested:

- Small business owners should provide employees with contracts, like any other business, so that security in terms of payment and employment is provided.

- Regular reports should be given to employees relating to the financial position of the business. This will give a more realistic picture of the profits (or losses) that are generated by the business.
- Should opportunities for advancement and development in a particular field arise, small business owners should allow employees to take up those opportunities.

7.3.3 Autonomy and Flexibility

The findings of this study show that *Autonomy* has a significant positive influence on *Entrepreneurial intentions*. The more an entrepreneurial career is perceived to involve being able to work independently and make operational decisions for the business, the more likely will be the intention to follow an entrepreneurial career. The empirical results of this study also show a significant relationship between *Flexibility* and *Entrepreneurial intentions*. This finding implies that the more an entrepreneurial career is perceived to allow one to be one's own boss, to operate a business in a manner that one sees fit and adapt to changing circumstances, the more likely the intention will be to follow an entrepreneurial career. The following recommendations are put forward regarding these perceptions:

- Employees should be included in the process of making business decisions. This will enable them to get an idea of what it is like to be the owner of a small business, the amount of independence one will have, and the amount of work that goes into making business decisions.
- Employees in senior positions could be given the opportunity to manage the business when the owner is away or unavailable. In doing this they can get a feel of what it actually entails to be the person responsible for a small business. As such a realistic picture of what can be expected from owning an own business is provided.

7.3.4 Demographic variables

An analysis of variance was performed in order to assess whether relationships exist between selected demographic variables and the dependent and independent

variables investigated in this study.

7.3.4.1 Demographic variables and Entrepreneurial intentions

The analysis of variance reported a significant positive relationship between the demographic variable *Population group* and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. Black respondents reported significantly higher mean scores than White respondents for *Entrepreneurial intentions*. No significant difference in mean scores was reported between Black and Coloured/Asian respondents or between White and Coloured/Asian respondents. This result implies that Black employees working in small businesses are more likely to follow an entrepreneurial career than White employees are.

Despite the findings of this study that Black small business employees report higher entrepreneurial intentions than their White counterparts, other research shows that Black individuals are less likely than White individuals to actually start entrepreneurial ventures (Farrington *et al.*, 2011). It is recommended that research be conducted into establishing why the intentions of Black individuals do not materialise into actual behaviour.

No significant relationships were reported between the demographic variables *Age*, *Entrepreneurial parents* and *Gender*, and the dependent variable *Entrepreneurial intentions*. Whether respondents are young or old, or male or female, has no influence on their intentions to follow an entrepreneurial career. Similarly, whether or not small business employees have parents who own their own business, has no influence on their entrepreneurial intentions. This finding contradicts the findings of several studies (Farrington *et al.*, 201; Olufunso, 2010: 89 and Orford, Herrington & Wood, 2004: 3). Future studies could seek possible explanations for this result.

7.3.4.2 Demographic variables and intrinsic-related work values

The results of the analysis of variance revealed a significant relationship between the demographic variable *Population group* and the intrinsic-related work value *Challenging*. White respondents perceived an entrepreneurial career as one of

having to prioritise and perform activities that are challenging and innovative, more so than Black respondents did.

Furthermore, a significant relationship was also found between the demographic variables *Entrepreneurial parent* and the intrinsic-related variable *Stimulating*, as well as between the demographic variable *Population group* and *Stimulating*. Respondents with entrepreneurial parents perceived an entrepreneurial career as being able to perform activities that are adventurous, exciting and difficult, more so than respondents without entrepreneurial parents. The role of parents thus becomes imperative in encouraging entrepreneurship. Although no relationship was reported between *Entrepreneurial parents* and *Entrepreneurial intentions*, having entrepreneurial parents does provide children with a view of what having an own business is like. If parents portray having an own business in a positive light (adventurous and exciting), the chances of children perceiving the experience to be positive is enhanced. The role of parents in stimulating entrepreneurship is thus highlighted, and future studies could provide greater clarity in this regard.

Similarly, White respondents perceived an entrepreneurial career as being able to perform activities that are adventurous, exciting and difficult, more so than Black respondents did. Despite White respondents being more positive regarding achieving the work values *Challenging* and *Stimulating* in the context of an entrepreneurial career, Black respondents were more likely to show entrepreneurial intentions. If an individual perceives a certain activity to be challenging and stimulating, one would expect that individual to be interested in engaging in that activity, but the contrary was found in this study. Future research should seek an explanation for this finding.

7.3.4.3 Demographic variables and extrinsic-related work values

The results of the analysis of variance revealed a significant relationship between the demographic variables *Age* and *Population group* and the extrinsic-related work value *Financial benefit and security*. The post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed no significant difference between the *Age* of the respondent and the perception of *Financial benefit and security* applicable to an entrepreneurial career. However, a

significant difference was observed between the mean scores reported by Black and White respondents for the extrinsic-related work value *Financial benefit and security*. Black respondents perceived that an entrepreneurial career would offer a rewarding income level that allowed them to increase personal wealth and provide for retirement income, as well as provide for ensured employment, more so than the White respondents did. This finding providing a possible explanation why Black respondents reported higher levels of *Entrepreneurial intentions* than White respondents did.

7.3.4.4 Demographic variables and freedom-related work values

The results of the analysis of variance reported no significant relationship between the demographic variables investigated in the study (*Age, Entrepreneurial parents, Gender and Population group*) and the freedom-related work values.

7.3.4.5 Demographic variables and social-related work values

The analysis of variance revealed a significant relationship to exist between the demographic variables *Entrepreneurial parents* and *Population group* and the work value *Serving the community*. White respondents perceived that an entrepreneurial career would give them the opportunity to help others and be of service to the community, more so than the Black respondents did. These results are contrary to those reported by Farrington *et al.* (2011) who found that in terms of the work value *Serving the community*, Black students perceived that an entrepreneurial career would give them the opportunity to help others and be of service to the community more than White students perceived that it would.

7.4 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud (2000: 411) ask the following question: “Why are intentions interesting to those who care about new venture formation?” Entrepreneurship is a way of thinking, a way of thinking that emphasises opportunities rather than threats. The opportunity identification process is clearly an intentional process, and therefore, entrepreneurial intentions merit our attention.

Equally important, intentions offer a means to better explain and predict entrepreneurship. Hence, intentions models have been used in this study with the hope that they will help ascertain employee entrepreneurial intentions.

Gree and Thurnik (2003) assert that entrepreneurship has been recognised as one of the tools that boost the economy of a country. Furthermore, Turker and Selcuk (2009) are of the opinion that entrepreneurial activities are not only the incubator of technological improvement, but they also provide employment opportunities. Because of the high unemployment rates in South Africa, it is important to find out why people are not becoming entrepreneurs. This study provides a greater understanding of the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career, because perceptions have an influence on intentions, which in turn are the best predictors of actual behaviour.

This study has contributed to the field of entrepreneurship research by focusing on employee perceptions of entrepreneurship, and the influence of these perceptions on their intentions to become entrepreneurs. As far as can be established, no other study has adopted this perspective for understanding entrepreneurial behaviour in South Africa or abroad. Furthermore, no study has specifically focused on investigating entrepreneurial intentions among employees of small businesses.

The study has also made a contribution by refining a measuring instrument suitable for assessing the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career.

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As with all research, there are a number of limitations to this study that should be highlighted. These limitations should be taken into account when interpreting the findings of this study. The following limitations and opportunities for future research are highlighted.

The generalisability of the results of this study is limited to the small business employees in the Eastern Cape only. The sampling technique (convenient snowball

sampling) is a limitation as the results of this study cannot be generalised to the population as a whole. The disadvantage of convenience sampling is that it is not representative of the general population that is of interest to the researcher, and this lessens the external validity of the study (McBrice, 2010: 124). Snowball sampling only concentrates on people who are within a certain social network, and bypasses people who are isolated from such social networks (Monette, Sulliva & DeJong, 2011: 155). The disadvantage of snowball sampling is similar to that of convenience sampling in that it is not representative. Because the participants of snowball sampling are people who have interrelationships, the individuals are likely to share similar interests. The challenge is that they may not be similar to the general population (Van der Stoep & Johnston, 2009: 28). Future research should strive to identify and use a comprehensive database from which probability samples can be drawn.

The data collected for this study made use of a survey. Surveys are prone to various errors, such as coverage and non-response error. Future studies are encouraged to develop and employ other methods for examining entrepreneurial intentions, such as interviews. The measuring scale adopted in this study should also be revisited, as the factors *Flexibility* and *Autonomy* reported poor evidence of reliability. There is therefore a need to look again at the scales measuring these factors.

As previously mentioned, entrepreneurship plays a vital role in the South African economy. Hence, it is advisable for this study to be replicated throughout South Africa so as to gauge the entrepreneurial perceptions of employees among the general population.

The results of this study show that Black respondents had more intention to pursue an entrepreneurial career than their White counterparts. However, other studies such as Herrington *et al.* (2010: 4) show that more Whites than Blacks actually embark on an entrepreneurial career. This leads one to pose the question whether the perceptions of an entrepreneurial career do in fact influence entrepreneurial intentions. Future studies should investigate the other determinants of entrepreneurial intentions, namely perceived behavioural control and subjective norms, as suggested by the theory of planned behaviour.

A study conducted by Sikiti (n.d) reports that South African youth aspire to be entrepreneurs, but would rather choose the option of working for a large corporation. A possible reason behind this is that young people are looking for immediate gratification, with the result that starting a business is perceived as less attractive than the security and instant income they can expect from working for a large corporation. This reason could also be a potential explanation for Blacks not starting entrepreneurial ventures. Herrington *et al.* (2010: 25) also suggest that possible reasons why Black South Africans are not entrepreneurial is owing to the lack of business skills and poor role models (mentors) in previously disadvantaged communities, insufficient business networks, low levels of entrepreneurial experience, and financial constraints. Another reason could be the influence of the South African government's Black Economic Empowerment policies, where a sense of entitlement exists among Black South Africans that the government must create employment for them, instead of them creating jobs for themselves. Future research should investigate these findings for other possible explanations.

The results of this study make a significant contribution to the existing body of research on entrepreneurial perceptions and intentions of employees, even though various limitations were encountered. Many opportunities exist for future research into entrepreneurial perceptions and intentions.

7.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Entrepreneurial intentions and the factors influencing these intentions are of growing interest in the field of entrepreneurship. In the effort to understand why some people become entrepreneurs and others do not, this study has specifically focused on the perceptions and attitudes surrounding entrepreneurship as a possible explanation. Entrepreneurship is regarded by many as the solution to South Africa's employment and economic problems. As such, an understanding of the reason why some people become entrepreneurs and others do not could provide solutions on how to stimulate entrepreneurship among all South Africans, and ultimately increase the levels of entrepreneurship in the country.

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ANNEXURE A

QUESTIONNAIRE

• PO Box 77000 • Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
 • Port Elizabeth • 6031 • South Africa
 • <http://www.nmmu.ac.za/busman>

Unit for Applied Business Management
 Summerstrand South Campus
 DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT
 Tel. +27 (0)41 5042203/04 Fax. +27 (0)41 5832644

April – August 2011

Dear Respondent

RESEARCH PROJECT: EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF SELF EMPLOYMENT

Thank you for your willingness to assist us in this research project. Enclosed please find a questionnaire to be completed.

This research regarding employee perceptions of self-employment is currently being conducted by the Unit for Applied Business Management (UABM). The UABM is a research unit functioning under the auspices of the Department of Business Management at NMMU in Port Elizabeth.

Entrepreneurship plays a vital role in the South African economy. However, despite efforts to encourage individuals to start their own businesses, entrepreneurial activity remains low relative to many other countries. An individual's decision to follow a particular career path is influenced by their beliefs or perceptions of whether that experience would be positive or not should they choose a particular career.

The **purpose** of this study is thus to gain a greater understanding of the perceptions that employees in small businesses have with regards to what it would be like were they to own their own business; and to assess whether these perceptions influence their decision to embark on such a career or not.

Please complete the attached questionnaire independently and **without** consultation with your employer (owner-manager) and fellow employees.

The first set of questions comprises a number of statements relating to your perspective. Please indicate the **extent of your agreement** with these statements by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate column. There are no right or wrong answers, and only the **perceptions** you hold are important. The next set of questions solicits basic demographic data concerning you and the business in which you are employed.

The questionnaire should take about twenty minutes to complete.

Please return the completed questionnaire **as soon as possible**, but not later than **30 June 2011** to Dr Shelley Farrington:

By mail: In the **reply paid envelope** addressed to:

Unit for Applied Business Management
 Department of Business Management
 Summerstrand South Campus
 PO Box 77000
 Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
 PORT ELIZABETH, 6031

By email: Shelley.farrington@nmmu.ac.za

By Fax: 041-5832644

Even though no confidential information is required, your responses will be treated with the strictest confidentiality.

Should you **be interested** in the results of this study, a copy of the findings would be made available to you. If this is the case, please ensure that your contact details are given in the space provided on the questionnaire.

Thank you once again for your willingness to contribute to the success of this important research project.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'V. Gongxeka', written in a cursive style.

Ms VUYOKAZI GONGXEKA (MASTERS CANDIDATE)

(Tel: 079-4227805)

Dr SHELLEY FARRINGTON (SUPERVISOR)

(Tel: 041-5042203/2875)

1. Statements relating to your perceptions of what it could be like to run (own and manage) your own business

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with these statements by placing a cross (X) in the appropriate column. The columns are graded from 1 to 7. One (1) denotes strong disagreement with a statement, and at the other end of the scale, seven (7) denotes strong agreement with the statement.

<u>Statements relating to your perceptions of what it could be like to run (own and manage) your own business</u>		Extent of agreement						
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral or no opinion	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.1	Running my own business will require that I take responsibility for the performance of the business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.2	Running my own business will require that I am creative in the activities that I need to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.3	Running my own business will allow me to follow my dream.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.4	Running my own business will be a source of constant tension.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.5	I want to be my own boss.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.6	Running my own business will be a prestigious achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.7	Running my own business will allow me to grow professionally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.8	Running my own business will require of me to be an original thinker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.9	Running my own business will allow me to follow my passion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.10	Running my own business will allow me to determine how business activities should be performed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.11	Running my own business will allow me to grow personally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.12	Running my own business will allow me time for interests outside of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.13	I have a strong intention to start my own business someday.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.14	Running my own business will allow me to make business decisions on my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.15	Running my own business will require that I work closely with my customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.16	I am determined to create a business in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.17	Running my own business will allow me to maintain a balance between work and leisure time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.18	Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are highly demanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.19	Running my own business will require that I continually develop new concepts and ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.20	Running my own business will require me to be people-orientated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.21	Running my own business will require that I work under constant pressure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.22	Running my own business will allow me to be my own boss.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.23	Running my own business will allow me to be a role model for aspiring entrepreneurs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.24	Running my own business will enable me to make a contribution to society in general.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.25	Running my own business will earn me the respect of the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>Statements relating to your perceptions of what it could be like to run (own and manage) your own business</u>		Extent of agreement						
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral or no opinion	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.26	Running my own business will require that I perform a variety of tasks in my daily routine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.27	Running my own business will provide me with the opportunity to reach my full potential.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.28	Running my own business will provide me with opportunities for advancement in my field of expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.29	Running my own business will require that I prioritise competing demands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.30	I will start my own business in the next five years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.31	Running my own business will require that I perform a number of interesting tasks on a daily basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.32	Running my own business will allow me to regulate my own working hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.33	Running my own business will provide me with the freedom to move between workplaces.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.34	Running my own business will place a big responsibility on my shoulders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.35	Running my own business will allow me to work independently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.36	Running my own business will provide me with an income level that is very rewarding.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.37	Running my own business will give me the opportunity of making the world a better place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.38	Running my own business will require that I work closely with my employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.39	Running my own business will ensure that I have enough money to retire one day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.40	I intend to start and run my own business in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.41	If I were to choose between running my own business and being employed, I would choose to run my own business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.42	Running my own business will require that I am innovative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.43	Running my own business will provide my family with a stable and secure future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.44	My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.45	Running my own business will allow me to create a flexible work schedule.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.46	Running my own business one day would make me feel uneasy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.47	Running my own business will require that I work at home after-hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.48	Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are adventurous and fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.49	Running my own business will require that I ensure that business activities run smoothly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.50	Running my own business will require that I engage in challenging activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.51	I would become an entrepreneur if a suitable opportunity arises.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.52	Running my own business will require that I accept full managerial responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.53	Running my own business will ensure that I always have employment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>Statements relating to your perceptions of what it could be like to run (own and manage) your own business</u>		Extent of agreement						
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral or no opinion	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.54	Running my own business will require that I ensure sufficient work comes into the business to keep it operational.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.55	Running my own business will allow me a greater earning potential than an alternative career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.56	Running my own business will give me the opportunity to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.57	Running my own business will require me to network extensively with stakeholders groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.58	Running my own business will give me the freedom to vary the activities that I perform on a daily basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.59	I am highly likely to pursue a career as a self-employed person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.60	Running my own business will allow me to provide for a possible early retirement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.61	Running my own business will require that I work long hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.62	Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.63	Running my own business will be stressful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.64	Running my own business will require that I continually experiment with new ideas in my business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.65	Running my own business will ensure that I have a regular income.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.66	Running my own business will allow me to operate my business in the manner I see fit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.67	Running my own business will give me status in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.68	Running my own business will allow me to have time for my family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.69	Running my own business will give me the approval of my friends and family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.70	Running my own business will allow me to increase my personal wealth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.71	Running my own business will require that I perform activities that are not easy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.72	Running my own business will allow me to adapt to changing circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.73	I would prefer to be an entrepreneur than an employee in someone else's business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.74	Running my own business will require that my employees and I work together as a team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.75	Running my own business will be a source of constant worry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.76	Running my own business will provide me with the chance to earn a lot of money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.77	Running my own business will enable me to be of service to my community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Demographic Information

The following questions solicit basic demographic data concerning you and the small business in which you are employed. Please indicate your response by making a cross (X) in the appropriate numbered block as requested.

A small business is a business that is independently owned and managed and employs less than 50 people.

2.1 Based on the description above, is this business in which you are employed a small business?

Yes	1
No	2

2.2 Please indicate how long you have been employed by this business: _____ years.

2.3 Please indicate the position (job title) that you hold in this business: _____

2.4 Please indicate what the **specific activities** are of the small business in which you are employed (e.g. building contractors, grocery store, hairdresser, fruit-farming, printing, restaurant, etc.):

2.5 Please indicate (estimate) how many people are employed by the small business in which you work:

1 - 4	1
5 - 10	2
11 - 25	3
26 - 50	4

2.6 Which of your parents (guardians) are or were self-employed?

None	1
Father / Male guardian	2
Mother / Female guardian	3
Both parents / Guardians	4

2.7 Please indicate your **gender**:

Male	1
Female	2

2.8 Please indicate to which population group you belong:

White	1
Black	2
Asian	3
Coloured	4
Other	5

2.9 Please indicate your **current age**: _____ I am _____ years old.

3. Comments and/or Suggestions

3.1 Please make **any comments or suggestions** relating to this project. _____

4. Other Employees Working in Small Businesses

4 If you know of **any other** employees working in a small business, who could possibly help us with this research, can you please give us their names and contact details?

4.1 Name and Surname: _____

4.2 Telephone number: _____ 4.3 Email address: _____

5. Research Findings

5 If you would like the final research **findings** to be made available to you, please provide your details below.

5.1 Name and Surname: _____

5.2 Telephone number: _____ 5.3 Email address: _____

5.4 Postal address: _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND COOPERATION