

**ENTREPRENEURIAL TENDENCIES OF STUDENTS STUDYING
ENTREPRENEURSHIP:
THE CASE OF CAPRICORN TVET COLLEGE, LIMPOPO PROVINCE**

By

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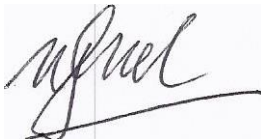
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DECLARATION

I declare that “Entrepreneurial Tendencies of Students Studying Entrepreneurship: The case of Capricorn TVET College, Limpopo Province” is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I further declare that this research report was never submitted before for any degree in any other university.

Moji Dorothy Mathosa

██████████

Date

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship has become an important issue both locally and internationally in recent years due to its contribution to job creation and economic development. The decision to be entrepreneurial is determined by certain factors, as well as individual traits, and it is a planned behaviour that is not engaged in accidentally. Thus, underlying factors that enhance students' intention towards entrepreneurship as a career option are vital. However, it is not known if the students have the knowledge of the various support measures available to assist them in starting their own businesses and to support existing ventures. This study wanted to find out if students studying entrepreneurship have any intention of starting their own business ventures and whether they have any knowledge of the support programmes at their disposal.

Students studying entrepreneurship as one of their modules at the National Certificate Vocational (NCV) level at Capricorn College for TVET constituted the targeted population for the study. Self-administered questionnaires were given to a total of 170 participants and all of them responded. The results mainly indicated that the students do have the intention of starting their own businesses after completion of their course and that their knowledge of the different entrepreneurship support incentives is not adequate.

The study recommends that a more concerted effort be made to make students more aware of engaging in entrepreneurial ventures as a career option and making them aware of the support options that are available to them should they need to start their own businesses. In addition, these support initiatives should publicise their services more, especially to the rural communities.

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Unemployment is one of the greatest challenges facing South Africa (Yu, 2013) and entrepreneurship is one of the strategies that can be used to alleviate the problem (Fatoki, 2014). The problem with most youth is that they need to get employed by someone else after completing their college studies, lacking the initiative, or for some other reasons, not capable of starting their own businesses (Powell, 2012).

According to the Labour force survey (Statistics South Africa, 2016) the level of unemployment in South Africa was 26.7 per cent nationally in the first quarter of 2016, an increase of about 2.2 per cent compared to the last quarter of 2015. With regard to youth unemployment, the national figure is that 73 per cent of the unemployed people are youth. The rate of youth unemployment in South Africa is far more than the unemployment rate of the whole population.

In Limpopo, where the current study will be undertaken, the expanded unemployment rate, according to Statistics South Africa (Statistics South Africa, StatsSA), 2016 report, was at 38.4 per cent in the first quarter of 2016, of which 20.2 per cent were discouraged job seekers. It is the fourth lowest compared to the other provinces. The adult unemployment rate is at 11 per cent, with youth unemployment at 30.4 per cent, showing that there are more unemployed youth than their adult counterparts.

Based on the above figures, it is imperative to encourage and support the youth to venture into entrepreneurship to sustain them. This study will be

conducted to assess if college students, who are studying entrepreneurship, are prepared and/or have the interest to start their own businesses after completion of their studies. Depending on the outcome of the findings, the different factors which promote entrepreneurial intentions will be taken into cognisance by relevant stakeholders.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to the Department of Higher Education and Training Draft Strategic Plan 2015/16 for Technical Vocational Education and Training Colleges, hereto referred as TVET colleges, one of the strategic objectives of TVET colleges is stated as the development and maintenance of good stakeholder relations to increase the number of TVET students who are adequately and well prepared to enter the labour market. It is within this framework that entrepreneurship students of Capricorn College need to be studied to assess whether they are prepared to put the skills they learnt into practice after completion of their studies. The same view is supported by Smith (2011) that TVET Colleges should position themselves as entrepreneurial hubs that create conducive environment for entrepreneurship development.

Having highlighted the problem of unemployment among the youth in the country, efforts have been made to uplift the youth in terms of entrepreneurial support. The government has put in place a number of support programmes, as well as support from various non-governmental organisations (NGOs), all supplementing the entrepreneurial skills learnt at colleges. Despite all these efforts, the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) reported in its Youth Enterprise Development Strategy (2013 – 2023) that only six per cent of the total youth population is involved in entrepreneurial activity. The major concern is whether these efforts are enough to assist the youth or will they still join the pool of job seekers at the end of their studies. This notion is supported by Herrington and Kew (2014) that the country's total early-stage entrepreneurial activity rates (TEA) and entrepreneurial intention and activity remain low despite all these efforts by the government.

Whether these efforts are enough or not, the other fundamental issue to be considered is whether the youth are aware of those various support programmes

intended for them. If not, in which ways can the information be made known and accessible to them?

A study focused on Capricorn College will help the institution to recognise the contribution of entrepreneurship in the curriculum and to increase the number of students in the discipline. It will also provide the institution with information in recognising the areas that might need strengthening in order to improve the programme and skills which students might need going forward.

1.3 MOTIVATION OF THE STUDY

It is the aim of the government and all relevant stakeholders to assist the youth to participate actively in the economy of the country through creation of youth enterprises. It is also in the broader mandate of the Department of Trade and Industry to empower youth to be self-employed and establish their own businesses. TVET colleges are mandated to expand on these objectives and to ensure that students are better skilled to participate in the economy of the country.

The number of TVET colleges has been increased drastically in the past ten years. This increase means that more students are enrolled for entrepreneurship and other business studies disciplines. It is with this increase in the number of students in this field in mind that this study would like to determine as to whether students intend to venture into their own entrepreneurial inventions or not.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

TVET colleges are expected to produce students who are capable of starting their own businesses after completion of their studies. To achieve this goal, colleges need to determine the entrepreneurial potential of the students early so that they can participate in the Total Early Stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) index. According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) of 2015/2016 report (Kelley, Singer and Herrington, 2015), South Africa's TEA index contributes 9.2 per cent of the total global TEA index. This contribution needs to be increased by increasing the number of youth participation to realise more contribution in the economy.

By assessing the entrepreneurial tendency of students, colleges can provide programmes that will realise their goal of producing students who will be able to start their own businesses. Policy makers in the Department of Higher Education will also be able to assess if their policies are in line with the underlying objectives and amend or formulate policies accordingly.

Other supporting organisations such as Swiss South African Co-operation Initiative (SACCI) which facilitate work based experiential learning (WBE) of students and Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) that are involved will identify if there are any loopholes and offer their support to the students.

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.5.1 Aim of the study

The main aim of this study is to assess the entrepreneurial tendencies of the students who are currently studying entrepreneurship at the Capricorn TVET College in Limpopo.

1.5.2 Objectives of the study

Objectives of the study are as follows:

- To assess the entrepreneurial interest of students who are studying entrepreneurship as one of their modules;
- Investigate if these students have intentions to start their own entrepreneurial ventures when they complete their studies
- Find out if these students are aware of South Africa's programmes that are there for the development and support of youth-owned Small Medium and Micro Enterprises (SMMEs).

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study is guided by the following questions:

- Do entrepreneurship students of Capricorn TVET College show entrepreneurial interest to start their own businesses?
- Do these students have intentions to start their own businesses after completion of their studies?
- Are they aware of youth SMME support programmes that are available in the country (i.e. South Africa)?

1.7 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The study is presented in five chapters.

Chapter one gives an introduction to the study, problem statement, motivation and the significance of the study. Furthermore it describes the aim and objectives of the study. Chapter two presents the literature review while chapter three presents methods followed to collect data for the study as well as methods employed in the analysis of the data. Chapter four focuses on the presentation of the findings of the study. Chapter five presents the results of empirical analyses, summary, conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is presented in three-fold. Firstly, it presents the nature of entrepreneurship potential, entrepreneurial intention, and attributes of entrepreneurs and a brief presentation of the models related to entrepreneurial potential and entrepreneurial intentions. Secondly, it portrays entrepreneurship education and the entrepreneurship education in TVET Colleges, and lastly an overview of Small, Medium and Micro Enterprise and government programmes aimed at supporting small businesses finalised with the summary of the chapter.

2.2 NATURE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

In the general literature of entrepreneurship, the term 'entrepreneurship' means different things to different people. The definitions are so vast that there is no single distinct definition of the term and different academics and researchers came up with different definitions over the years. According to Casson and Casson (2014), the term entrepreneur, which most people recognise as referring to a person who organises and bears the risk of a business in return for profits, was introduced by Richard Cantillon in the 1700s. Cantillon defined an entrepreneur as a person who purchases raw material at a known price for the purpose of selling it at an unknown price with a view of making a profit.

Say (1815) in Drucker (2014), defined entrepreneurship from an economic perspective and by specifying an element of innovation in entrepreneurship. Say describes an entrepreneur as someone who is capable of doing new things and also able to do more things with limited resources.

The concept of entrepreneurship was further refined by Knight in Casson and Casson (2014) who stated that an entrepreneur has a two-fold function. The one of exercising responsible control by directing the work of others, and the other function

of securing the owners of productive services against uncertainty and fluctuations in their incomes

Furthermore, to elaborate more on the concept of entrepreneurship, Casson and Casson (2014) distinguishes between risk and uncertainty by referring to risk as recurring events with relative frequency known from past experience, while uncertainty refers to unique events with the probability that can only be subjectively estimated. Changes that mostly affect the marketing of consumer products generally fall in the uncertainty category. Individual tastes and preferences are mostly affected by group culture and are essentially unique. Knight observes that while the entrepreneur can find a way of “laying off” the risks, he is left to bear the uncertainties himself. The entrepreneur contents to bear these uncertainties because the profit he earns compensates him for the psychological cost involved.

Bennet (2006) describes an entrepreneur as someone who initiates and manages new business ventures by bringing together the scarce factors of production. Allen (2006), defines entrepreneurship as a mindset that is opportunity – focused, innovative and growth oriented.

According to Jayeoba (2015), the most classic definition of entrepreneurship is that by Schumpeter (1934), an economist, who views an entrepreneur as someone who carries out new combinations by introduction of new products or processes, identifying new markets or sources of supply or by creating new types of organisations.

From the above different definitions and interpretations of what entrepreneurship is, it is very difficult to come up with one solid interpretation. Nevertheless, there are common attributes which can be identified from the different definitions which are that:

- Entrepreneurship is a process of creating something new of value by devoting time, effort and resources
- It is the behaviour of entrepreneurs who display certain abilities on their own or in teams to perceive and create new economic activities, and

- The third dimension relates to entrepreneurial outcomes in the form of new products, methods, organisational schemes as well as new product-market combinations.

Although an overly-prescriptive formulation of describing entrepreneurship is avoided, this paper will be based on the definition by Hirsh, Peters and Shepherd (2008) which views entrepreneurship as the process of creating something new with value by devoting the necessary time and effort; assuming the accompanying financial and social risks; and receiving the resulting results of monetary and personal satisfaction together with independence. This definition is adopted because it incorporates all the important aspects of entrepreneurship.

2.3 ATTRIBUTES OF ENTREPRENEURS

The question of whether entrepreneurs are born or made has long been debated with little agreement. Entrepreneurs are not necessarily born with entrepreneurial attributes but these attributes can be learnt and acquired through life experiences and also through the entrepreneurial process itself. Dabic, Daim, Bayraktoroğlu, Novak and Basic (2012), and Beeka and Rimmington (2011) support the proposition that entrepreneurs are a type of people who possess particular attributes. Even though Hornaday (1982) identified as many as 42 different attributes of entrepreneurs, the most commonly cited ones are, the need to achieve, tolerance for ambiguity, the ability to take risks, good locus of control and innovation (Chen and Lai, 2010; Venter and Boshoff, 2007; Deakins and Freel, 2009). Nieman and Niewenhuizen (2014) summarise the characteristics of entrepreneurs as follows:

a) Locus of control and entrepreneurial intent

People like to be in control of their own lives and one way of achieving this is by being in control of one's own venture. Entrepreneurs are typically in control and have good delegating skills. They display a high degree of autonomy and do not like to be told what to do by someone else (Nieman and Niewenhuizen, 2014)

According to Jayeoba (2015), locus of control is a psychological phenomenon that is related to the ability of individuals to control the events in life. Individuals with

internal locus of control believe that they are in charge and are able to control life's events, while those with external locus of control believe that life's events result from external factors such as chance, luck or fate (Hay, Kash and Carpenter, 1990; Milliet, 2005). Individuals with high locus of control are likely to be self-employed (Bonte and Jarosch, 2011) and are highly motivated to improve the efficiency of work (Li, Wei and Di, 2015). They have the ability to control their environment through their actions and they are not afraid to take risks (Muller and Thomas, 2000). Khan, Breiteneker and Schwartz (2014), and Gurol and Atson (2006) found that students with internal locus of control have a good attitude towards entrepreneurial intention.

b) Need for achievement and entrepreneurial intent

Sagie and Elizur (1999) highlighted McClelland's need for achievement theory that states that need for achievement is one of the strongest influential psychological factors impacting on entrepreneurial intent. McClelland (1961) suggest that individuals with a strong need for achievement are more likely to find it easy to solve problems by themselves, set challenging goals and strive to achieve them by their own efforts. According to Zaman (2013), individuals with high need for achievement will contribute more in entrepreneurial activity. The result from the study suggests that need for achievement is the strongest predictor of entrepreneurial intent. These individuals perform better in tackling challenging tasks and discover innovative ways of enhancing their performance (Littunen, 2000).

c) Risk taking and entrepreneurial intent

There is a strong relationship between attitude towards risk taking and entrepreneurial intent. A person with positive attitude towards risk holds stronger intentions to become an entrepreneur (Zhao, Hills and Seibert, 2007; Douglas, 2013). Similarly, Barbosa, Gerhardt and Kickul (2007) found that higher risk preference is associated with high levels of entrepreneurial intentions and opportunity-seeking self-efficacy.

Risk taking is broad and involves more than the financial resources that will be lost when the business fails. It can also involve social and personal risks (Nieman and Niewenhuizen, 2014). Entrepreneurs are faced with personal risks because they

might lose valuable time with their families. They are faced with extended working hours especially when their businesses are still in the start-up phase (Alstete, 2008)

Entrepreneurs are faced with the effect of business failure risk just like their employees. Liquidation can result in disastrous financial ruin and also the resultant social stigma associated with failure. These go along with personal distress of letting employees down, their families and also their clients or customers.

d) Innovation and entrepreneurial intent

Innovation involves turning of ideas and knowledge into new value through creative thinking. It is an important element of entrepreneurship. Innovativeness relates to the ability of entrepreneurial leaders to think creatively and recognise opportunities in producing novel and practical ideas, create new markets, and introduce new products and services (Chen, 2007; Gupta, MacMillan and Surie, 2004). Research findings have provided evidence that innovation is a primary motive in starting a new venture and also that it has a significant impact on venture performance (Hisrich, Peters and Shepherd, 2008). Most authors also argue that entrepreneurs have significantly higher levels of innovative characteristics than their non- entrepreneurial counterparts (Gurol and Atsan, 2006)

Ozaralli and Rivenburgh (2016) surveyed the entrepreneurial intentions of 589 students at one Turkish and one American university to investigate the antecedents to entrepreneurial behaviour, with particular reference to social, societal and personality factors. Their findings indicate that although the students have a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship, both U.S. and Turkish students display a low level of entrepreneurial intention. Confirming prior work, their findings also indicate that there is a significant relationship among personality attributes of innovativeness, optimism, risk-taking propensity and entrepreneurial intention (Ozaralli and Rivenburgh, 2016)

e) Tolerance for ambiguity and entrepreneurial intent

Ambiguity refers to situations that are doubtful or uncertain. The concept of ambiguity tolerance represents a continuum with tolerance on one end and intolerance on the other end. Budner (1962) defined intolerance of ambiguity as the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as threatening while tolerance of

ambiguity as tendency to perceive such situations as desirable. A person perceives ambiguity as undesirable when that person is intolerant of such ambiguity. That person will most likely react to a situation before all adequate information is made available in order to remove anxiety that is induced by such ambiguity (Wee, Lim and Lee, 1994). However, a person who is more tolerant of ambiguity views ambiguity as a challenge with the element of uncertainty serving as a challenge and a motivational catalyst. Wee (1994) further states that one has a reason to believe that entrepreneurs have a higher level of ambiguity than the general population as they are associated with risk-taking. Entrepreneurs exist in a highly volatile environment with less job security and their role is often associated with an ambiguity-bearing role (Schere, 1982). An entrepreneur may view uncertainty as an exciting stimulus rather than a severe threat. In a comparative study between entrepreneurs and managers, Schere found entrepreneurs to be significantly more tolerant than managers (Schere, 1982). Similar conclusions were obtained by Sexton and Bowman (1984) in their comparative study of potential entrepreneurs and potential managers. It was established that the former are significantly more tolerant of ambiguity.

Alstete (2008) contends that the combinations of these attributes in an individual may appeal to that individual, which in turn motivates one to become an entrepreneur.

2.4 MOTIVATIONAL FORCES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Many people are forced by various motivations in becoming entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship is not always taken as a legitimate or desirable career choice, but many South Africans are forced to become entrepreneurs due to retrenchment, job frustration and job loss (Nieman and Niewenhuizen, 2014). Dawson and Henley (2012) identify push and pull factors as positive and negative motivations associated with becoming an entrepreneur.

According to Kirkwood (2009), push factors are personal or external factors with negative associations that leave entrepreneurship as one of only a few alternative career options. Orhan and Scott (2001) identify possible push factors as dismissal or

retrenchment, having difficulty in finding another job, and dissatisfaction with previous job owing to a lack of stimulation or a lack of prospective career development. In support of the idea put forward by Kirkwood, Orhan and Scott, Wickham (2006) identifies push factors as follows:

- The limitations of financial rewards from conventional jobs.
- Job insecurity.
- Being unemployed in the established economy.
- Career limitation and setbacks in a conventional job.

Alternatively, pull factors are identified by Kirkwood (2009) as attributes of entrepreneurship that appeal to an individual or positive associations that influence an individual to adopt entrepreneurship as a career choice. Kirkwood (2009) notes that the desire for independence and a strong need for achievement that cannot be fulfilled in a current salaried job are powerful pull factors. According to Orhan and Scott (2001), the desire to transform an opportunity or social need into a marketable idea is an important pull factor, while Dawson (2012) considers financial reasons as one of the main drivers of entrepreneurial intention, as it is considered to be both a necessity and a desire. Longenecker, Petty, Palich and Hoy (2014) divide the common motivations for founding a business into the following categories which are recognised as pull factors:

- Personal fulfilment – making a difference; sense of belonging and working together.
- Personal satisfaction – intellectually challenging; passion for firm's product or service; recognition and respect.
- Independence – being my own boss; controlling my own future; discretionary time and flexibility.
- Financial rewards – building personal financial wealth.

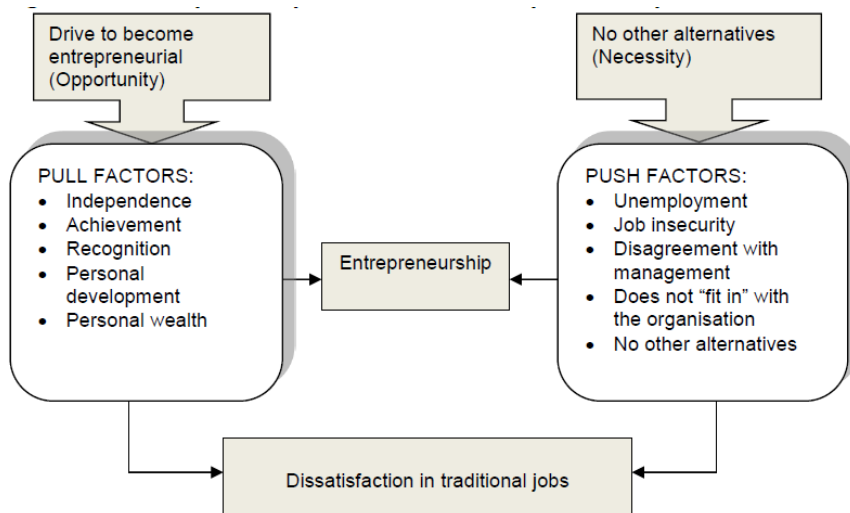


Figure 2.1: The push and pull factors of entrepreneurship

Source: Nieman *et al.* (2014: 38)

Push and pull factors may also differentiate between high-growth and low-growth entrepreneurs. Krueger (2004) in Malebana (2012) identifies high-growth entrepreneurs as pull motivated while low-growth entrepreneurs are push motivated.

2.5 THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

2.5.1 Defining the Concept of Entrepreneurial Intent

Over the years, various researchers came up with various definitions of entrepreneurial intent. Bird (1988) defines entrepreneurial intent as a state of mind that focuses a person's attention, experiences and behaviour towards a goal or path. Individuals do not start a business as a reflex, but do so intentionally. Hence Learned (1992) referred to it as a conscious state of mind directing attention towards the goal of establishing new enterprises. The same notion is supported by Fayolle (2007) by asserting that entrepreneurial intention is the cognitive representation of a person's will to perform a particular behaviour that is considered a good predictor of planned and controllable human behaviour. Thompson (2009) further asserts that entrepreneurial intentions are self-acknowledged convictions by individuals that they

intend to set up new business ventures and consciously plan to do so at some point in the future.

Starting a new business demands commitment on an individual (Krueger, 1993) and the search for information that can be used to fulfil the goal of venture creation (Katz and Gartner, 1998). Entrepreneurial intent is described by Liñán (2004) as the effort that the person will make to carry out the entrepreneurial behaviour. The degree of commitment towards some future target behaviour (Malebana, 2014) will underpin an individual's intention to start his own business. Hmieleski and Corbett (2006) describe entrepreneurial intention as intentions towards starting a high-growth business.

Entrepreneurial intention probes an individual towards independence and self-realisation. Hence Souitaris, Zerbinati and Al-Laham (2007) define it as a state of mind directing a person's attention and action towards self-employment as opposed to organisational employment. The willingness of individuals to perform entrepreneurial behaviour, to engage in entrepreneurial action and to be self-employed (Dohse and Walter, 2012) supports motivational factors that influence individuals to pursue entrepreneurial outcomes (Hisrich *et al.*, 2008).

Given the foregoing definitions, entrepreneurship is considered to be an intentional and planned activity that can be understood by studying individual's entrepreneurial intentions (Krueger, Reilly and Carsrud, 2000). Entrepreneurial intentions are considered to be the foundation for understanding the new venture creation process (Linan, Nabi and Krueger, 2013; Bird, 1988). This is mostly so because they precede entrepreneurial action (Schlaegel and Koenig, 2014; Douglas, 2013; Shook, Priem and McGee, 2003). This supports the idea that there is a link between entrepreneurship and intentions (Henley, 2007). Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour and Shapero's model of entrepreneurial intent explain the theoretical foundation of entrepreneurial intentions better (Venter, Urban and Rwigema, 2010).

2.5.1.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) has been derived from the theory of reasoned action developed by Ajzen and Fishbein in 1980 (Ajzen, 2005; 2012). This theory is regarded as the most popular and influential framework for the prediction of human behaviour (Ajzen and Cote, 2008). TPB suggests that individuals' intentions are the most important immediate determinants of whether they will perform a particular action or not (Ajzen, 2005; 2012). Furthermore, Ajzen (2005, 2011) suggests that the theory of planned behaviour has important implications for behavioural interventions that have been designed with the purpose of changing intentions and behaviour. The TPB has since its introduction been applied and empirically tested in various studies that focused on the decision and intention to start a business, to grow a business venture or the evaluation of the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intent (for example, Krueger *et al.* 2000; Kirby 2004; Turker and Selcuk, 2009; Mansor and Othman, 2011; Gerba, 2012; Douglas, 2013; Fayolle, 2015)

According to the TPB, the person's intention to perform or not to perform an action is the most important determinant of action (Ajzen, 2005; Ajzen, 2006). Figure 2.2 reflects the determinants of intentions in the TPB.

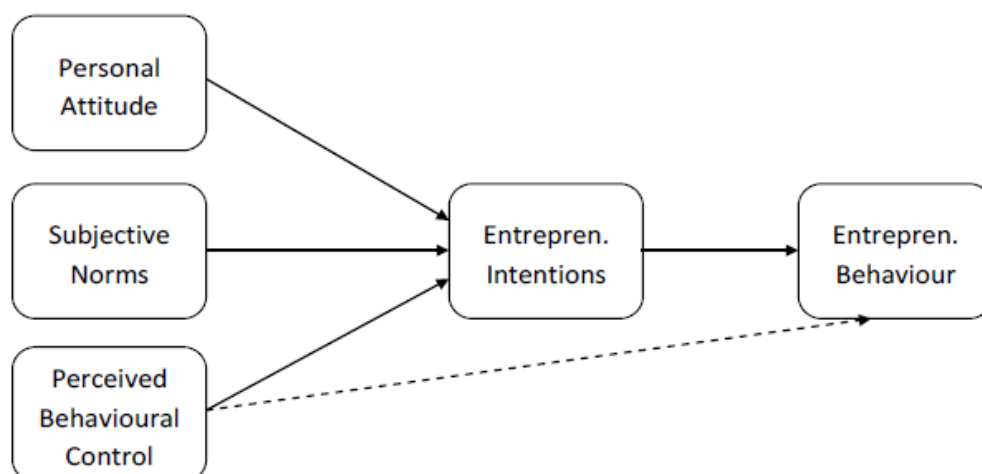


Figure 2.2 The Theory of Planned behaviour

Source: Ajzen (1991)

The motivational factors which are the personal attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, influence the behaviour and lead to intentions. Intentions indicate how hard people are willing to try and how much effort they intend to exert in performing the behaviour (Malebana, 2013). The stronger the intention, the more likely is its performance. The following discussion entails the three determinants of intentions:

1) Personal attitude toward the behaviour

The TPB refers to behavioural beliefs as the beliefs relating to the likely outcome of behaviour and how an individual evaluates these outcomes. Behavioural beliefs can produce a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the behaviour (Ajzen, 2002). Attitude towards the behaviour is dependent on the expectations and beliefs about the impact of outcomes resulting from performing the behaviour. It also depends on the strength of the associations with these evaluations of outcomes (Ajzen and Cote, 2008). Kolvereid and Isaksen (2006) indicate that salient beliefs with regard to authority, autonomy, economic opportunity and self-realisation influence the attitude towards entrepreneurship, while Fretschner and Weber (2013) identify influential factors as independence, self-actualisation and financial success. Douglas and Fitzimmons (2013) report that attitudes towards independence, income and ownership are related to entrepreneurial intentions, while Schwarz, Wdowiak, Almer-Jars and Breitenecker (2009) identify entrepreneurship, change and money, and perceptions regarding institutional support for entrepreneurship as contributing factors. Based on these findings it can be argued that individuals will more likely view entrepreneurship as a viable career if they believe that it will result in outcomes that they value. Linan *et al.* (2013) state that individuals tend to hold positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship if it is approved and valued positively by those closer to them and when they strongly believe that they possess the necessary skills to carry out the behaviour. In search of ways to create jobs and encourage entrepreneurship in the form of new venture start-ups, it is crucial to adopt a positive attitude and values regarding entrepreneurship and show appreciation for entrepreneurs in the society. Malebana and Swanepoel (2015) ascertain that this will contribute towards the development of positive entrepreneurial attitudes

2) Subjective norms

According to Ajzen and Cote (2008), subjective norms refer to perceived social pressure to perform or not perform. They emanate from normative beliefs which are based on the normative expectations of others and motivation to comply with those expectations. Subjective norms derive from readily accessible normative beliefs regarding the expectations of significant others (Ajzen, 2012). Ajzen (2012) further ascertains that individuals will feel more pressured to behave or perform in a particular way when they believe that important social referent individuals approve or disapprove of a given behaviour and are motivated to comply with the expectations of such referents. Referents may refer to parents, co-workers, friends and even experts in the behaviour of interest. Ajzen (2005) states that whether individual social referents themselves engage or do not engage in a particular behaviour influence perceptions regarding whether that behaviour is approved or disapproved. Research has found that the experience an individual acquired in a particular sector and having entrepreneurial role models (Uygun and Kasimoglu, 2013; Dohse and Walter, 2012) enhance entrepreneurial self-efficacy or perceived behavioural control (Sun and Lo, 2012) which has a positive influence on entrepreneurial intentions. Similarly, Ramos, Medina, Lorenzo and Ruiz (2010) report that being able to recognise good business opportunities is related to individuals' beliefs that they possess the necessary skills and knowledge to start their own businesses and that they know other aspirant entrepreneurs.

Douglas and Fitzimmons (2013) and Gird and Bagraim (2008) also report that there is positive relationship between prior self-employment experience and entrepreneurial intentions. Based on these studies, Malebana and Swanepoel (2015) conclude that it is important that institutions that provide entrepreneurial support be accessible and also are able to facilitate opportunities for networking with entrepreneurs.

3) Perceived behavioural control

According to Ajzen and Cote (2008), and Ajzen (2005), perceived behavioural control refers to the individuals' assessments to the degree to which they are capable of performing a given behaviour. It emanates from control beliefs which result in the intention to start an entrepreneurial venture. Venter *et al.* (2010)

describe it as an individual's perception of how easy or difficult it is to start a business. According to Ajzen (2012), perceived behavioural control was developed from the concept of self-efficacy. Bandura (1986) defines self-efficacy as people's judgements of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action needed to attain designated types of performances. There are internal and external forces which can either enable or hinder the performance of the behaviour which determines the perceived behavioural control. These factors include past experience with the behaviour, availability of resources and opportunities, observing experiences of acquaintances, availability of social support, second-hand information about the behaviour, emotions and compulsions (Ajzen, 2005; 2012). These factors have an impact on the successful performance of an intended action. Uygun and Kasimoglu (2013) found that the experience that a person has acquired in a particular sector and having entrepreneurial role models (Dohse and Walter, 2012) enhance perceived behavioural control which in turn positively influences entrepreneurial intentions. Ramos-Rodriguez *et al.* (2010) found that being able to recognise good business opportunities is positively related to individuals' beliefs that they possess the necessary knowledge and skills to start own businesses and that they know other people who are entrepreneurs.

2.5.1.2 Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event Model (SEE)

According to Guerrero, Rialp and Urban (2008), Shapero and Sokol's model of entrepreneurial event was the first model of entrepreneurial intent developed in 1982. The purpose was to define the interaction of social and cultural factors that can lead to a venture creation by influencing individual's perceptions. According to the model, the intention to start a business is derived from perceptions of desirability, feasibility and propensity to act (Guerrero *et al.*, 2008). Figure 2.3 below illustrates the SEE model.

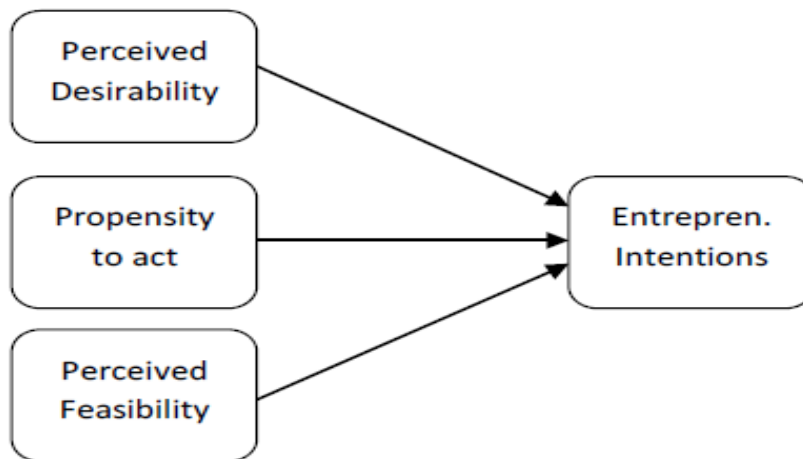


Figure 2.3. Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event

Source: Shapero and Sokol (1982)

According to Shapero and Sokol (1982), perceived desirability (PD) refers to the degree to which an individual feels attracted to become an entrepreneur and also reflects individual differences for entrepreneurial behaviour. An individual's propensity to act (PTA) upon opportunities refers to an individual's disposition to act on one's own decision (Shapero and Sokol, 1982) and depends on an individual's perception of control as well as a preference to acquire control by taking appropriate actions (Krueger *et al.*, 2000). Shapero (1975) found that individuals with a high locus of control have an orientation to control events in their lives. Krueger *et al.* propose learned optimism (Seligman, 1990) as an operationalisation of the propensity to act. Perceived feasibility (PF) refers to the degree to which individuals are confident that they are personally able to start their own business and consider the possibility to become an entrepreneur as being feasible (Shapero and Sokol, 1982).

2.5.2 Entrepreneurial Potential

Carland, Hoy, Boulton and Carland (1984) define entrepreneurial potential as the possibility within a person that he/she might establish and manage a business venture for the principal purpose of profit and growth. Several authors concur that

behavioural characteristics most commonly found in entrepreneurs include the use of strategic management practices in entrepreneurial initiatives and propensity for innovation (Martinez, Mora and Villa, 2007; Priem, Li and Carr, 2012; Keupp, Palmie and Gassmann, 2012). Additionally, there is a long tradition in entrepreneurship research which holds the belief that entrepreneurs have distinctive psychological characteristics (Carland *et al.*, 1984). Numerous studies have identified personality traits that may be in some way linked to entrepreneurial behaviour through their influence over the constitution of future entrepreneurial intentions and reinforcement (Keat, Selvarajan and Meyer, 2011; Fairlie and Holleran, 2012; Ebert *et al.*, 2014). The factors most frequently associated with entrepreneurial behaviour include gender, age, work experience, professional background and aspects of the potential entrepreneurs' psychological and educational profile (Gassman, 2012). The factors that have been frequently used to measure entrepreneurial tendencies include personal characteristics, personality traits and contextual factors.

Personal or demographic characteristics such as those relating to age, gender, regional origin and educational status can be used to describe potential or existing entrepreneurs. However, most of these variables have little or no influence on a person's entrepreneurial intention, nor can they be used to predict such a lifestyle choice or career (Ebert *et al.*, 2014).

The second method of assessing entrepreneurial potential is to examine personality traits such as risk assumption or aversion, achievement motivation and attitudes regarding control and delegation. Several psychological aspects that have been suggested to be good predictors of entrepreneurial behaviour include creativity and initiative (for example, Baum, Bird and Singh, 2011), the propensity for risk-taking (for example, Carland, Carland and Steward, 2015), desire for independence and autonomy (for example, Audretsch, 2012), the need for self-achievement (for example, Lange, 2012), self-confidence and the locus of control (for example, Khan *et al.*, 2014), persistence and also motivation, energy and commitment.

Finally, several authors have stressed the importance of contextual factors (for example, Bernhofer and Han, 2014). They argue that the decision to adopt an entrepreneurial lifestyle is much more complex than merely assessing personal characteristics and psychological traits. From this perspective, focus is placed on an understanding of the link between a potential entrepreneur's social background and subjective perceptions of the contextual factors in which patterns of entrepreneurial behaviour are developed and put into practice.

Thus, the theory that entrepreneurship is an innate characteristic of some individuals or is the result of inherited competencies no longer seems to have many followers (Barringer and Ireland, 2012). Lange (2012) argues that the theory of planned behaviour is the sound theoretical framework for understanding the basis of entrepreneurial intentions and stating that it is possible for one to learn to be an entrepreneur through the use of targeted educational approaches. The same notion is supported by Gelard and Saleh (2011), and Ooi, Christopher and Denny (2011). From this perspective, it seems appropriate to analyse the contribution of entrepreneurship education towards the development and enhancement of entrepreneurial intentions.

Before embarking on entrepreneurship education, an entrepreneurial potential model of Krueger and Brazeal (1994) is discussed to highlight intentions towards entrepreneurship.

2.5.2.1 Entrepreneurial Potential Model

Krueger and Brazeal (1994) introduced the Entrepreneurial Potential Model which integrates the concepts in Entrepreneurial Event Model by Shapero and Sokol (1982) and the Theory of Planned Behavior by Ajzen (1991). It is believed that people venture into entrepreneurship as a result of planned behaviour indicated by intention (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994; Krueger *et al.*, 2000). Hence these models represent entrepreneurship by showing that intention which is highly influenced by attitudes and that belief guides the focus to the favourable behaviour, and these attitudes and beliefs are based on perception derived from the surrounding

environment (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994). The Entrepreneurial Potential Model simplifies the previous models by matching up the perceived desirability to attitude toward behaviour and subjective norm, and perceived feasibility to perceived behavioural control (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994). Attitude toward behaviour and subjective norm correspond to each other in which personal perception of the behaviour is also influenced by perception of other people who are close to him or her. Personal perception of the behaviour may differ from how the family members perceived it. Motivation, again, is a key element to reach to their expectation. Krueger and Brazeal (1994) assimilate the concept of self-efficacy into perceived feasibility. Self-efficacy has been determined to be predominant consideration in career selection where entrepreneurship can be one of the options (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara and Pastorelli, 2001). Krueger (1993) cites persuasive evidence that perceived credibility, perceived desirability and propensity to act explain over half the variance in intentions towards entrepreneurship, with feasibility perceptions being the most influential. The Entrepreneurial Potential Model is depicted in Figure 2.4.

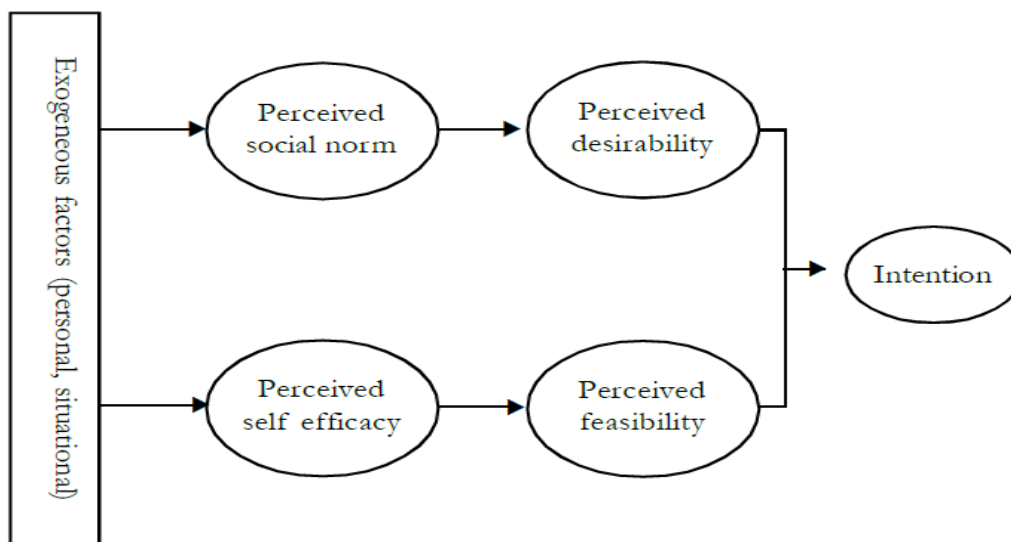


Figure 2.4. Entrepreneurial Potential Model

Source: Shapero and Sokol (1982); Krueger and Brazeal (1994); Krueger *et al.* (2000)

2.6. ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Entrepreneurship education (EE) refers to any pedagogical process of education for entrepreneurial attitudes and skills (Fayolle, Gailly and Lassas-Clerc, 2006). McIntyre and Roche (1999) affirm that, “it is a process of providing individuals with the concepts and skills to recognise opportunities that others have overlooked and to have the insight and self-esteem to act where others have hesitated”. Along the same lines Dutta, Li and Merenda (2011) also add that to be able to discern opportunities that others ignored or failed to notice, they should be exploited in a timely and effective manner. McIntyre and Roche (1999) further state that EE includes instruction in opportunity recognition, marshalling resources in the face of risk, and initiating a business venture.

It has a relatively long history and has since developed into a widespread phenomenon (Kuratko, 2005; Katz, 2003). Different types of entrepreneurship education are targeted toward particular stages of development (Bridge, O’Neill and Cromie, 1998; Gorman, Hanlon and King, 1997; McMullan and Long, 1987). Different scholars have mentioned that there are types of entrepreneurship education targeted toward specific audiences (Linan, 2004). For example, education for awareness is targeted at students who have no experience of starting a business. According to Linan (2004), the purpose of entrepreneurial awareness education is to enable students to develop entrepreneurial skills and to assist them in choosing a career. Most higher education programmes are intended to prepare aspiring entrepreneurs and to increase entrepreneurial awareness (Weber, 2011).

2.6.1 Entrepreneurship Education in TVET Colleges

The need for entrepreneurship education in TVET colleges is generally highly acknowledged and a large number of colleges include entrepreneurship education in their curricula (Mansor and Othman, 2011). Entrepreneurship education is mainly seen as a solution to the challenge of unemployment of TVET College graduates. The formal economy is not able to absorb all graduates. Thus, graduates need to be nurtured for self-employment which ties in well with the mandate of TVET Colleges.

Viewed in this respect, entrepreneurship education is crisis-driven and requires a more positive outlook as it is an enabler of economic development and social progress. It should go hand-in-hand with the core mandate of TVET Colleges which is to produce a skilled workforce for the country. In addition to the technical skills, equipping young people with entrepreneurial skills is a critical step towards contributing to growing the country's economy.

Entrepreneurship education in TVET Colleges is not a new phenomenon although it is often neglected (Smith, 2011). It started as a NATED syllabus offered in N4 to N6 certificates in 1995, so it has been around for more than 22 years. The offering of the course declined sharply in around 2007 when the FET education policy was amended and National Certificate Vocational (NCV) was introduced. The result was that Colleges largely abandoned entrepreneurship education programmes resulting in loss of motivation, passion and partnerships that had been developed over the years. Although Entrepreneurship has re-emerged as a module, its delivery is limited. The module is largely seen as an add-on and optional extra competing with effective academic delivery. Effective integration and delivery of entrepreneurship education is hindered by both internal and external factors (Davies, 2001). External factors are government policy and leadership, structure of the course and teaching material, curriculum, lack of recognition of small business experience and business creation for the Diploma award purpose and lack of funding. Internal factors relate to knowledge and motivation of entrepreneurship lecturers, lack of dedicated internal entrepreneurship mentors, teaching and assessment approaches and also students' interest in entrepreneurship.

There is currently no policy that makes entrepreneurship education at TVET Colleges mandatory. The consequence of this policy void is lack of national government leadership on entrepreneurship education within the context of TVET Colleges, lack of government funding and a curriculum that is inadequate to promote effective entrepreneurship education and development.

The present curriculum is viewed by both students and College personnel alike as being very theoretical and very little practical in nature. The NATED entrepreneurship curriculum that is currently offered at colleges has been developed more than twenty years ago and has never been revised. Hence Kelly, Singer and Herrington (2012) called for an urgent review of the curricula of TVET Colleges.

At NATED level, only business studies students are offered entrepreneurship education whereas engineering students are not given this option. This can be attributed to the shorter duration (three trimesters) of engineering studies compared to NATED Business and Management studies, two semesters, and NC(V) which takes three years to complete. Exclusion of engineering students from entrepreneurship education deprives them of the necessary entrepreneurial skills that are needed in virtually all pursuits in life. Again, because of its lack of the practical component, the curriculum is seen as not adequately preparing students to start their own businesses but rather preparing them to serve as managers in existing ventures.

With regard to the structure of the course, entrepreneurship is a compulsory module at N4 and N5 for Business and Management studies. At N6, Colleges differ with some continuing to offer entrepreneurship while others replace it with some other modules. At NC(V) level, Entrepreneurship and New Venture Creation are offered but are entirely optional. Little in the content teaches the attributes of entrepreneurship and guidance in starting an actual business. It remains doubtful that students who study entrepreneurship only in their first year of study for the NC(V) programme out of the three years of study will still possess the knowledge and motivation to start their own businesses when they complete their studies.

Limited funding resources mean that Colleges should make their own means of acquiring essential resources to effectively drive entrepreneurship development programmes. This is because entrepreneurship education is not a mandated activity by DHET, therefore not funded as a distinct focal activity. While many Colleges intend on setting up entrepreneurial support systems such as centres of entrepreneurship incubators, their plans are thwarted by lack of financial resources. To resolve this challenge, many colleges have forged partnerships with other

external institutions such as SETAs and small business development agencies. These partnerships, however, are not sustainable in their funding because they are only for a limited period and their interventions tend to be more of projects rather than programmes in nature. Because of this lack of continuity and longevity in partnerships, Colleges are negatively affected in terms of long-term entrepreneurship development plans.

Currently, for a student to be awarded a National N Diploma, the practical component of the student's practical training should take place in a workplace where training experience is structured and strong supervision is provided to the student. Secondly, the training should be related to the qualification the student is pursuing. Under these requirements, starting an own business will not qualify a student to be awarded the diploma. This mitigates against the College encouraging students to start their own ventures and also against students being keen to start their own businesses before completing their studies. Colleges focus on placing a large number of students in large companies, reducing the number of placement opportunities. This denies students the opportunities to start and run their own businesses.

Effective delivery of entrepreneurship education in Colleges is partly impaired by the limited knowledge and experience on the part of most entrepreneurship lecturers. The data gathered from the national audit conducted by Cosser, Kraak and Winnaar (2011) on the state of TVET Colleges confirm that a significant number of educators who are currently teaching New Venture Creation or entrepreneurship have very low academic qualifications or no academic qualification in this field at all. Even those who have attained a diploma or a degree did not study entrepreneurship as part of their qualifications. Lecturers are assigned to teach the subject without due consideration of their background in the field. Isaacs, Visser, Friedrich and Brijlal (2007) conclude that curriculum development coupled with entrepreneurship education and training delivery can enhance the quality of teaching entrepreneurship at TVET level.

Most students still prefer formal employment in larger companies compared to pursuing one's own business. The reason is that larger companies are viewed as safe and promise more lucrative career prospects while starting one's own business

is perceived to be risky. This mindset results in weak interest in entrepreneurship among students. However, a sizeable number of students who studied entrepreneurship have a positive view of entrepreneurship and self-employment. This indicates that these programmes have a positive effect on motivating some students about entrepreneurship as a possible career option (Herrington and Kew, 2014)

2.6.2 The Importance of Entrepreneurship Education

To answer the question about the importance of entrepreneurship education (EE), one needs to understand the importance of entrepreneurship itself as a phenomenon. According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) 2012 report by Turton and Herrington (2013), entrepreneurship is one of the two sources of growth in the economy (the other one being the expansion of existing firms). Economic growth is a desirable outcome because it enables innovation, wealth creation and employment, all of which improve the standard of living as well as economic and social advancement. In order to achieve higher and sustained levels of economic growth, it is important to enable existing firms to expand and to promote the creation of new ventures. Fostering of greater levels of entrepreneurship within the population will make this endeavour possible. Entrepreneurship education is a critical component required to drive economic growth in any economy. (O'Connor, 2013)

According to the European Commission's Expert Group on Entrepreneurship and Vocational Education and Training (2009) in Maigida, Saba and Namkere (2013), the broad role and importance of EE is stated thus: "Entrepreneurial programmes and modules offer students the mechanisms to think creatively, to analyse a business idea, to be an effective problem solver, and to network, communicate, lead and evaluate any given project. Students normally feel more confident at setting up their own businesses if they are allowed to test their ideas in a supportive, educational environment. Educational entrepreneurship can be particularly effective in the field of vocational training as students are close to entering the working environment and self-employment may be a valuable option for them." The benefits of EE are however, not limited to boosting business start-ups, innovative ventures and new

careers. Entrepreneurship is a competence for every individual, helping young people to be self-confident and more creative in whatever venture they undertake.

The role of entrepreneurship schemes including EE is described by the South African National Treasury as follows: “Entrepreneurship schemes promote skills development in young people with the objective of creating sustainable and efficient businesses capable of creating permanent jobs and employment growth.” (National Treasury, February 2011). As can be seen from this statement, South Africa’s National Treasury sees entrepreneurship development playing a crucial role in responding to the challenge of youth unemployment that the country is currently facing.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) report of 2012 on South Africa found significant deficits regarding the entrepreneurial outlook of South African youth compared to other sub-Saharan countries. According to the report, South Africa’s youth lag behind their Sub-Saharan counterparts when it comes to key entrepreneurial indicators of young peoples’ belief that they possess adequate entrepreneurial capabilities, young people’s perception of the existence of good entrepreneurial opportunities within the economy, and young people’s entrepreneurial intentions. The main implication of the findings is that if a country needs to experience meaningful growth in entrepreneurial activities involving young people, substantial effort needs to be invested in fostering a positive entrepreneurial outlook among the country’s youth. EE plays an important role in fostering positive entrepreneurial attitudes, strengthening entrepreneurial aspirations and encouraging entrepreneurial activity.

The GEM also reports that EE can have a positive impact on entrepreneurship development by developing more positive attitudes towards a career in entrepreneurship and also improving perceptions of self-efficacy by performing crucial entrepreneurial tasks such as thinking creatively, identifying new business opportunities, commercialising an idea and creating new products (Turton and Herrington, 2013). Higher perceptions of self-efficacy promote higher chances of entrepreneurial intentions. GEM concludes by citing a 2008 Western Cape ‘Status of Youth Report’ which states that EE can have significant impact on four crucial areas of entrepreneurship which are:

- The learners' understanding of business and financial matters
- The learners' self-confidence about their entrepreneurial abilities
- The learners' desire to further their education, and
- The learners' desire to pursue entrepreneurship

Most empirical studies report that entrepreneurship, or at least some of its aspects, can be taught and that education can be considered to be one of the key instruments for fostering entrepreneurial intentions, attitudes and competence (Falkang and Alberti, 2000; Mitra and Matlay, 2004; Henry, Hill and Leitch, 2005; Kuratko, 2005; Harris and Gibson, 2008; Martin, McNally and Kay, 2013). This view led to a drastic rise in the status and number of entrepreneurship education programmes (EEPs) in universities and colleges worldwide (Finkle and Deeds, 2001; Katz, 2003; O'Connor, 2013).

Fayolle *et al.* (2005) and Krueger (1993) indicate that both current behaviour and future intentions are influenced by EE, despite the early notions that entrepreneurship is an innate skill. Having confidence in personal skills to start a business and being able to identify business opportunities may be enhanced through education and training. Studies suggest that individuals with more knowledge and education are more likely to pursue opportunity entrepreneurship with high growth ventures, which may have overall benefits for national growth (Reynolds, Bygrave and Autio, 2003)

Entrepreneurship education exposes students to examples of successful business planning and proactive interaction with successful practitioners (Honing, 2004). The pedagogical elements of EE facilitate coping strategies, which help maintain motivation and interest ultimately leading to greater expectations of success (Stumpf, Brief and Hartman, 1987) and increased entrepreneurial self-efficacy

According to Mwasalwiba (2010), the main aim of EE is to promote entrepreneurship by influencing values, attitudes and general community culture. This aim is the main driving force behind all the other objectives, be it start up, knowledge advancement, self-employment, job creation or/and skills development.

DeTienne and Chandler (2004) report that the entrepreneurship classroom is the ideal place for fostering the skills and knowledge required to enhance opportunity identification competency. The result of their study indicates that EE led to the identification of more innovative opportunities. The same idea is supported by Munoz, Mosey and Binks (2011) by stating that EE develops students' opportunity identification capabilities. In addition EE equips students with tools enabling them to find opportunities and make opportunities (Neck and Greene, 2011; Sarasvathy, 2008).

All this shows that EE plays a key role in fostering entrepreneurial attitudes and actions. Efforts should be made to increase greater economic participation by young people through effective entrepreneurship education measures.

2.6.3 Effects of Entrepreneurship Education on Entrepreneurial Intent

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was first applied by Krueger and Carsrud (1993) in the specific context of entrepreneurship education. They indicated that an EE programme can have an impact on the antecedents of intention which form the basis of TPB. Fayolle, Gailly and Lassas-Clerk (2006) report that although entrepreneurship education has a measurable and strong effect on students' EI, it has a positive impact on their perceived behavioural control (PBC). The study by Souitaris, Zerbinati and Al-Laham (2007) on the intentions of science and engineering students using the TPB found that entrepreneurship education programmes (EEPs) significantly increased students' EI and subjective norms. However, their study did not indicate any significant relationship between EEPs, PBC and attitudes.

On the contrary, Peterman and Kennedy (2003) and Athayde (2009) report a positive effect of EEPs on perceived feasibility and intentions, or attitude toward entrepreneurship (ATE) among high school students. A study by Walter and Dohse (2012) indicate that EEPs are positively related only to ATE and not to PBC or subjective norms (SN).

Based on all these studies, it is apparent that results regarding entrepreneurship education initiatives are somewhat inconclusive, and this prompts for a more detailed

research in order to get full and detailed information and understanding on the relationship between entrepreneurship education and intentions (Karimi, Biemans, Lans, Chizari and Mulder, 2016)

2.7. SMALL, MEDIUM AND MICRO ENTERPRISES

2.7.1 Concept of Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises

One of the challenges encountered when conducting research into small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) is the lack of any standard definition of what actually constitutes the size of an SMME. Definitions vary widely across regions and countries although the criteria include one or more of the following maximum level of criteria (Senderovitz, 2009):

- Number of full time employees
- Amount of total assets in the firm
- Annual sales turnover

There may also be a specific requirement of ownership or management independence of larger corporations.

Internationally, the size of an entity is the criterion mostly considered in defining SMMEs. What constitutes a small, medium or a large company is mainly clear and uniform across different countries. According to Cronje *et al.* (2000), an SMME is classified as a small business which employs fewer than 50 employees, while a medium business has fewer than 250 employees. In Chile, companies are mainly classified according to their annual turnover. In developed countries such as Britain, firms with fewer than 500 employees are considered small, unlike in developing countries such as India where the number employed may be considerably smaller. According to Abor and Quartey (2010), a small business in developing countries employs between 5 and 9 employees, while a medium business employs between 20 and 90 employees. For instance the Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprise Development (2002) in Zimbabwe classifies an SMME as a registered business with

employment levels ranging from 30 to 70 employees depending on the type of industry.

In the South African context, an SMME is any business which employs fewer than 200 employees, with an annual turnover of less than 5 million Rand, owns capital assets of not more than 2 million Rand and the owner must be directly involved in the management of the business (Cronje *et al.*, 2000). According to the National Business Act of 1996 as stipulated in the Government Gazette of the Republic of South Africa 1996, SMMEs are defined as separate and distinct business entities, including sole proprietorships, partnerships, close corporations, cooperative enterprises and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) managed by either one owner or more which is predominantly carried on in any sector of the economy.

In South Africa, SMMEs are classified into five categories which are survivalist enterprises, micro enterprises, very small enterprises, small enterprises and medium enterprises. The survivalist enterprise is regarded as the one providing an income below the poverty line. Micro enterprises refer to businesses with a turnover of below R300 000 (Chalera, 2007). The livelihood of millions of people in South Africa is provided by many of these informal and micro-enterprises.

An analysis of both international and South African definitions of SMMEs indicates that they agree on what constitutes a small business in terms of the number of employees. An SMME should employ a minimum of between 1 and 50 employees and the maximum of approximately 500 for medium enterprises depending on the industry. What is important is that there must be sufficient capital for the SMME to be successful and must be able to grow and develop. The international and South African definitions of SMMEs also agree that an SMME must be registered and be formal. This enables the government to assess and record the contribution of the SMME to the economy. With respect to the asset base, the definition differs across borders, but it is important that a firm has sufficient capital base for everyday operations and also for production purposes. Nevertheless, the definition adopted in this study is that of The National Small Business Act (102 of 1996) which states that an SMME is a separate and distinct business entity including non-governmental organisations and cooperative enterprises managed by one owner or more which is

predominantly carried on in any sector of the economy. This definition is adopted because it clarifies how the government defines SMMEs.

2.7.2 Contribution of SMMEs to the Global Economy

SMMEs, by their large number, dominate the world business stage. Although it is difficult to obtain precise, up-to-date data on their numbers, estimates suggest that SMMEs constitute more than 95% of enterprises across the world, accounting for approximately 60% of private sector employment (Ayyagari *et al.*, 2011). According to Jahanshahi, Nawaser, Khakar and Kamalian (2011), there were approximately 13 million SMMEs in India in 2008 as reported by its Ministry of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises. Japan has the highest proportion number of SMMEs among the industrialised countries, accounting for more than 99% of total enterprises (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2010). It is estimated that 91% of South Africa's formal business entities are SMMEs (Abor and Quartey, 2010).

A report by Wymenga, Spanikova and Konings (2012) reflect that the estimated data for the 27 European Union countries (the EU – 27) for 2012 illustrate the importance of SMMEs. According to the report, SMMEs account for 99.8% of all enterprises, employ 67% of all workers and contribute 58% of the Gross Value Added (GVA), which is defined as the value of outputs less the value of intermediate consumption.

The contribution made by SMMEs varies widely between countries and regions. Although they play key roles in high-income countries, they are also important to low-income countries where they make significant contributions to both the GDP and employment (Dalberg, 2011). These SMMEs are regarded as major contributors to innovation in economies, through collaboration with the larger corporate sector. According to Ayyagari *et al.* (2011), SMMEs that are involved in the supply chains of larger businesses can be urged to improve their own human and technological capital, thus improving their own productivity and performance.

Wymenga *et al.* (2012) further reported that SMMEs account for 52% of private sector value added, when combining the data for those countries whose data are available. This provides a good estimate for the sector's global economic contribution. SMMEs contribution towards economic fundamentals varies

substantially across different countries, ranging from 16% of GDP in low-income countries (where the small business sector is typically large but informal) to about 51% of GDP in high-income countries (Ayyagari *et al.*, 2011).

The report issued by the Australian government (2011) reflects that SMMEs contributed about 60% of Australia's industrial value added in 2009/10. The report further states that over 95% of firms in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) economies are SMEs and micro-enterprises, accounting for around 55% of GDP. By contrast, over 90% of all enterprises outside the agricultural sector in developing countries are SMEs or micro-enterprises. These enterprises produce a considerable part of GDP. For example, in Morocco, 93% of industrial enterprises are SMMEs, accounting for 33% of investment, 38% of the production and 30% of exports. The contribution of SMMEs is even higher in South Africa, where the estimated 91% of the formal business entities are SMMEs, contributing 52 – 57% to GDP. SMMEs are even more prominent in the local economy of Ghana, representing about 92% of the businesses and contributing about 70% to the country's GDP (Abor and Quartey, 2010).

Greater labour intensity of SMMEs means that job creation requires lower capital costs than in larger firms which are particularly crucial for developing countries and economies with high unemployment (Liedholm and Mead, 1987; Schmitz, 1995). SMMEs are moreover, generally more common in rural areas than larger enterprises. SMMEs thus, provide much needed employment in rural areas especially in developing countries.

SMMEs can become the engines that sustain growth for the long-term development prospects in developing countries. When growth intensifies, SMMEs gradually assume a major role in industrial development and restructuring. They are able to satisfy the increasing demand for services, which allows increasing production and specialisation in pursuit to supporting larger enterprises with services and inputs (Fjose, Grunfeld and Green, 2010).

SMMEs provide a substantial contribution to employment at macro level as they tend to be more labour intensive. A World Bank survey conducted on 47 745 firms across 99 countries revealed that businesses with between 5 and 250 employees made up 67% of the total full-time, permanent employment (Ayyagari, Demirguc and

Maksimovic, 2011). According to De Kok, Vroonhof, Verhoeven, Timmermans, Kwaak, Snijders and Westhoff (2011), between 2002 and 2010, on average, 85% of total growth in employment was attributable to SMMEs. This confirms the idea that SMMEs were creating more jobs than large enterprises.

Job creation is important for countries plagued by high unemployment rates and particularly for developing and emerging economies. SMMEs are crucial in such countries to provide employment. In Bangladesh, for instance, SMMEs account for 58% of employment, whereas in Morocco, SMMEs provide 46% of total employment. Private companies with fewer than 50 employees in Ecuador account for 55% of employment. South African SMMEs contribute even more to employment, at about 61% of the total, with SMMEs in Ghana providing over 80% of total employment (Abor and Quartey, 2010).

2.7.3 Contribution of SMMEs in South Africa

SMMEs play an important role in the economy of every country. In South Africa, the government recognises the importance of this business sector so much that it established a new Ministry of Small Business Development in early 2014. The main aim of the Ministry is to promote and facilitate the development of small businesses. Most entrepreneurial activity takes place in these small businesses. Nieman and Niewenhuizen (2014) confirm that small businesses form 97% of all businesses in South Africa, generating 35% of the National Gross Domestic product (GDP). South Africa is struggling with an alarmingly high national unemployment rate of 25% (Statistics South Africa, Quarter 2, 2015). It is against this backdrop that the government has put in place policies, strategies and programmes which aim to promote entrepreneurship and small business development mainly because of its potential to absorb the growing number of job seekers.

Unemployment and poverty are regarded as the most serious challenges affecting many communities in South Africa (Mensah and Benedict, 2010). Creation of jobs subsequently leads to poverty alleviation. Poverty is a worldwide issue and it is only the level of poverty that varies. The level of poverty is higher in developing countries than in developed countries. The South African government has identified SMMEs

as a key to poverty alleviation. According to Du Toit, Li and Merenda (2009), SMMEs combine the resources of the society efficiently to produce the much needed goods and services for the society in which they operate. The poor communities are therefore able to earn income required to buy goods and services (Ndabeni, 2006). In most cases, these communities have little choice and at times adequate paid employment is not available. The poor people will attempt to get out of poverty by establishing their own small businesses. The idea is that the survivalist enterprises will first strive to meet the needs of the owner and then grow into micro enterprises which will not only benefit the owner but also create jobs for others. Njiro and Compagnoni (2010) report that for South Africa to achieve the goal of improving economic development, creation of wealth and employment, the small business sector should be prepared to improve business performance.

The South African government's strategy has been focusing mainly on the development of SMMEs in previously disadvantaged communities (Department of Trade and Industry, 2014), which are the communities that have been disadvantaged by apartheid and segregation development policies prior to 1994. The SMMEs are identified to provide solutions to inequality between different population groups in the country.

Unlike the larger enterprises, SMMEs are regarded as the milestones to the South African economy. These enterprises are the largest source of employment and income for many South Africans and are the source of the majority of jobs. They are purported to give solutions to the growing levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality in most townships and rural areas of South Africa. Naidoo and Urban (2010) report that SMMEs in South Africa contribute 43% of the total salaries and wages in the labour market and employs about 54% of all private sector employees. The development and promotion of these enterprises is therefore critical in advancing the economic performance of the country. According to the White Paper on Small Business and National Small Business Act (102 of 1996), the SMMEs in South Africa are purported as having the ability to :

- Address the high unemployment in South Africa as they have extensive labour absorptive ability;

- Redress inequalities created by apartheid in terms of patterns of restricted economic ownership and limited career opportunities for black people;
- Play a vital role in people' efforts to meet their needs despite the absence of efficient social support systems; and
- Contribute to Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) by having SMMEs initiated, owned and controlled by those who were excluded in the past.

According to Ndabeni (2006), the national economies experience the predominance of SMMEs, and this predominance is more evident in the local economies. This is supported by Chew and Chew (2008) who report that SMMEs are the core of any local economic development process. They are the fundamental source of employment, income generation and innovation in their respective areas of establishment. Kesper (2001) adds that an increase in the level of employment in local economies could positively impact on a range of various standard of living conditions such as home foreclosure rates, disposable income and new small business start-ups. In addition, SMMEs contribute to a significant proportion of taxes in the local economy such as property tax, income tax and employment tax. This implies that having more small businesses in the local economy can increase tax revenue for local governments, generating more money to repair roads, build schools, develop health facilities and improve essential public services (Egan, 2009 ; Kongolo, 2010).

2.7.4 Challenges Faced by SMMEs Globally

The contribution made by the SMMEs in economic development in terms of income generation, employment and poverty reduction both globally and locally cannot be underestimated. Yet, they are faced with several challenges that affect their productivity and contribution towards local economies. Zevallos (2003) indicates that the recurring and greatest challenge for the small businesses is the lack of access to finance.

Most SMMEs present a high risk to the creditors as they do not have adequate assets and suffer from low capitalisation. In addition, lack of relevant financial records and poor accounting records make it difficult for banks to assess creditworthiness and offer financial support to prospective SMME borrowers (Katwalo and Mwiti, 2010). According to Xhepa (2006), the empirical study conducted in Europe reported that about 21% of SMMEs indicated that access to finance is a problem.

Lack of management skills also appears to be a challenge. Mears and Theron (2006) reported that the majority of SMME owners lack the necessary skills to operate their businesses successfully. Lack of management experience and capacity impinge on SMMEs' operations. There is mostly a lack of typical fundamental skills such as business management, marketing, financial management and personnel management. Moreover, these enterprises cannot afford to employ qualified people to operate them. Qualified staff prefers to work in large enterprises because of the assurance and prestige they obtain from these enterprises (Mensah and Benedict, 2010). A global survey carried out by consulting groups about a number of small businesses revealed that finding and retaining qualified staff causes the most frequent tribulations in these enterprises (Chowdhury, 2007)

Okpara (2011) identified government regulations as one of the major challenges to business expansion. A regulatory and legal system that entails complex registration procedures, costly reporting practices and licensing requirements imposes profound costs on these enterprises. SMME owners also find it difficult to adhere to laws pertaining to employees and customers. The owners might not comprehend some of these laws and as a result end up paying heavy penalties (McGrath, 2003; Mears and Theron, 2006). A study conducted in Canada into SMMEs documented in the small Business Research Policy found that the small businesses surveyed do not relate to government regulations, cost of compliance and taxation as they increase the costs of running their businesses (McGrath, 2003)

Lack of access to markets can also impact negatively on SMMEs' development. Market related problems such as lack of knowledge of the market, product demand, marketing locality and competition affect SMMEs (Dockel and Ligthelm, 2002). Therefore, the ability of small businesses to enter the market depends on internal

conditions such as market access opportunities, the quality of their products and their pricing strategy. In India, for example, the competition with Chinese products that are selling at much lower prices put the Indian SMME sector under pressure.

Additionally, lack of access to public infrastructure is identified by Okpara (2011) as a preventative factor to SMMEs' development. It is apparent that efficient operation of any business requires basic infrastructural services such as roads, telecommunication, electricity, water and sanitation. Public infrastructure is essential for support of internal operations of the business. However, these services are supplied and controlled by government or local authorities within which they operate. The lack of these basic services can challenge SMME performance and competitiveness.

SMMEs in Africa are confronted with many challenging problems. Most of these problems can be assigned to the growth of SMMEs in Africa. Mutoko (2014) identified some of the challenges concerning SMMEs management and development in Southern Africa. Global competitiveness was identified as the major challenge facing African countries. Competitiveness in developing countries is hindered mainly by lack of business knowledge and skills, lack of working capital and poor entrepreneurial culture (Mears and Theron, 2006)

Technology development, education and training can be seen as contributors to entrepreneurial development. However, access to technology is a significant challenge among SMMEs, as it requires large capital which is not accessible to SMMEs (Chiwane and Dick, 2008). This results in SMMEs not being able to exploit the latest trends in technology to gain competitive advantage over big businesses, resulting in lower customer satisfaction and lower growth in SMMEs. Venter and Boshoff (2007) identify issues that could be challenges to SMMEs, development in Africa as industrial policies and incentives favouring large businesses, lack of knowledge on government regulations, difficulties in raising finance and insufficient physical and institutional support infrastructure.

2.7.5. Challenges faced by SMMEs in South Africa

Over the years, researchers have identified the following challenges that SMMEs are faced with:

1) Access to finance

One of the common challenges facing most SMMEs is limitation of access to finance (Financial Services Regulatory Task Group, 2007). Due to their highly conservative nature, most South African banks and lenders finance small businesses in their later stages of development. Start-up SMMEs are often overlooked and are less likely to be financed (Financial Services Regulatory Task Group, 2007). The degree of inclination in financing these SMMEs can vary depending on locational differences. For instance, SMMEs in North West and Gauteng tend to have greater access to finance as compared to SMMEs in other provinces. The greater access to finance in Gauteng could partly explain why 48% of formal SMMEs are found in this province (The DTI, 2005). On the other hand, SMMEs in Limpopo and Mpumalanga find it difficult to access finance. This can be attributed mainly to the rural nature of these provinces.

The GEM South Africa 2014 report identifies lack of access to finance and poor profitability as among the main reasons why most businesses discontinue in South Africa. The GEM report also indicates that poor profitability, as a cause for discontinuance, was on the increase. Typical reasons for small businesses not being able to obtain finance include:

- A lack of credit history
- Inadequate collateral on the part of the entrepreneur
- Poor market research
- Inability to produce an acceptable business plan
- Absence of a viable business idea, and

Lack of access to vibrant markets

2. Poor infrastructure

The GEM South Africa report (2014) regards Infrastructure as one of the key enablers for SMMEs development. The lack of access to proper physical infrastructure is a major impediment to business growth and may add significantly to the cost of doing business. Ease of access to land or space at affordable prices, utilities and transport and also communication infrastructure can be instrumental in supporting new businesses. The GEM South Africa report further extends the concept of infrastructure to professional and commercial infrastructure, which refers to the presence of accounting, legal and other commercial services and institutions. These services are essential to promoting the sustenance and performance of existing and emerging SMMEs.

Results from Finmark Trust (2010) show that small businesses in Gauteng find it difficult to get physical space in which to operate. SMMEs in the Northern Cape, Limpopo and Mpumalanga claim to have access to adequate amenities and space. In North West, on the contrary, the experiences were different. There SMMEs cited problems related to utilities such as interruptions in the delivery of electricity.

3. Low levels of Research and Development (R&D)

Research and Development capacities are essential for start-up businesses as it can help to determine the feasibility of ideas that can be transformed into actual businesses. Investing in R&D allows businesses to get innovative solutions through discovery. Maas, De Coning and Smit (1999) allude to the fact that innovating businesses are likely to grow faster compared to the traditional start-up businesses. They further reported that South African SMMEs are less innovative than those in developed countries.

According to Booyens (2011), the failure of small businesses in South Africa to form strong upward linkages with larger firms inhibit innovation in South Africa. This failure denies SMMEs opportunities for technology diffusion and advancement. The GEM South Africa report (2014) proposes that government should provide substantial incentives for R&D with the aim of fostering innovation, attracting and strengthening continuous linkages among domestic and foreign knowledge intensive businesses.

4. Onerous labour laws

The onerous South Africa's labour laws have been found to be a regulatory obstacle to the growth of most businesses (Watson and Netswera, 2009), especially when it comes to laying off employees. Small business owners get stuck under difficult situations where they are not allowed to lay off workers if the business is no longer doing well and cannot afford to keep them, or even when the workers are no longer productive. Labour laws in South Africa do not provide for cyclical downsizing in small firms (GEM, 2014). Some SMMEs within the manufacturing sector such as those in furniture and clothing production are labour-intensive (Berry, Von Blotnitz, Cassim, Kesper, Rajaratnam and Van Sevente, 2002). Such sectors are subject to relatively high labour costs which were well intentioned by the labour laws to benefit the workers. High minimum wages stipulated by South Africa's labour laws are proving costly for SMMEs, especially at their start-up stage. SMMEs find it even costly to hire semi-skilled and skilled workers and this adds to the hindrances of their growth.

5. An inadequately educated workforce

Small businesses in South Africa are negatively affected by shortage of skills (The National Planning Commission, 2011). The Department of Trade and Industry (2008) acknowledges that there is a substantial shortage of skills and entrepreneurship capacity and this acts as a constraint to growth of small businesses. This shortage is mostly prevalent for business services such as sales and accounting capabilities. This is so despite the fact that the South African trade and accommodation sector, which is sales oriented, has the largest number of SMMEs relative to the other sectors

6. Inefficient government bureaucracy

Government policies and bureaucracy are instrumental in enhancing entrepreneurial activities. These policies set the platform upon which new firms can be started and

sustained. Government bureaucracy is listed as one of the major obstacles to entrepreneurial activity in South Africa (GEM, 2014). One of the drawbacks is the delays in time required to obtain permits and licenses to start new businesses. According to the WEF 2014/2015 Global Competitiveness Report, red tape associated with starting up a new business is a problem.

The report concerning the integration strategy on the promotion of entrepreneurship and small businesses by DTI (2005) identified inter-departmental cooperation within government to hinder entrepreneurial activity when it comes to programme planning and implementation. The report further asserts that various departments abandon any coordination of efforts at the height of inter-departmental conflicts to create their own SMME functions. This practice is detrimental as it usually results in duplication of efforts and hampers the evaluation framework for SMME programmes.

7. High levels of crime

The high level of crime is a serious problem in South Africa. Both formal and informal SMMEs are equally affected. The OECD economic survey of 2015 found that the high level of crime was forcing SMMEs to increase their security spending. Increased spending on security has a negative effect on the total cost of doing business. The business cost of crime and violence is regarded as one of the key hindrances to investment confidence in South Africa (GEM, 2014)

8. Lack of access to markets

The inability to access markets has been considered to be one of the major factors threatening the sustainability of SMMEs. One of the main requirements by credit providers to access funding, especially at early stages is access to markets. However, Watson and Netswera (2009) note that small businesses in local areas are at a disadvantage compared to their urban counterparts. They also report that their remote location and their small size hinder them to form collectives in order to strengthen their bargaining power. As a result, it becomes difficult to lobby government institutions to better their services. Naude, Aries, Wood and Meintjies

(2008) encourage the practice of forming spatial clusters. However, forming clusters could expose fragile small business to fierce competition; hence it is mostly encouraged for SMMEs which have passed their start-up phase.

2.8 THE LINK BETWEEN ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION AND ENTREPRENEURIAL SUPPORT

Entrepreneurial support facilitates the creation of new ventures. The recognition of entrepreneurship as a means of achieving economic growth and development has attracted considerable interest among policy-makers and researchers (Audet, Berger-Douce and St-Jean, 2007; Ismael, Khalid, Othman, Rahman, Kassim and Zain, 2009). Researchers, on the one hand, are engaged with the evaluation and analysis of the effectiveness of various support programmes and policies in terms of their impact on new venture creation (Bridge, O'Neill and Martin, 2009; Zanakis, Renko and Bullough, 2012) and entrepreneurial intention (Luthje and Franke, 2003). Policy-makers, on the other hand, are concerned with how entrepreneurial activity and economic growth can be stimulated through various support programmes and policies (Limpopo Provincial Government, 2015).

Entrepreneurial support as a deliberate behavioural intervention can assist both potential and existing entrepreneurs in overcoming obstacles they face and facilitate their efforts to start their own businesses (Ajzen, 2005). Without entrepreneurial support, potential entrepreneurs will not be able to translate their intentions into new ventures (Henley, 2007). While different terms can be used to refer to support for SMMEs, such as business support and small business assistance, Hanlon and Saunders (2007) define entrepreneurship support as 'the act of providing an entrepreneur with access to a valued resource'. According to Malebana (2012; 2014), entrepreneurial support refers to the provision of information, finance, training and education programmes, provision of infrastructural facilities, business counselling and mentoring services needed by an entrepreneur to act on opportunities and manage the business effectively. The need to support SMMEs is recognised by both the private sector and the government (Schaper and Volery, 2007; Boter and Lundstrom, 2005)

Entrepreneurial intent can be translated into formation of new ventures by government's intervention through provision of entrepreneurship education schemes, subsidising enterprise training and advice, providing financial support schemes and incubation workspace (Bridge, O'Neil and Martin, 2009). In order to be effective, government intervention should improve the growth of the small business and the level of enterprise. Boter and Lundstrom (2005) assert that entrepreneurial support offered to individuals should motivate them to start their own businesses, provide support structures for equipping potential and existing entrepreneurs with the necessary skills and provide good opportunities to start and manage new ventures. This assertion is supported by Gu, Karoly and Zissimopoulos (2010) by stating that entrepreneurial activity is a deliberate activity that is dependent on entrepreneurs who start and manage new businesses. The GEM approach of describing the entrepreneurship process (Simrie, Herrington, Kew and Turton, 2012) and the model proposed by Shook, Priem and McGee (2003) are the basis of the role of entrepreneurial support in influencing entrepreneurial intention. They both view entrepreneurial intention as the first stage in the entrepreneurship process or the creation of a new venture. Therefore, the entrepreneurial process appears to be a valuable and fundamental framework for understanding the entrepreneurial behaviour and how entrepreneurial support can enhance this behaviour.

The entrepreneurial process is based on four interacting contingencies which are, an opportunity, an entrepreneur, resources, and business organisation (Wickham, 2006). According to Ardichvilli, Cardoso and Ray (2003), new ventures result from a successful opportunity development process. This process comprises of recognition of an opportunity, its evaluation and its development. If entrepreneurs decide to pursue the opportunities, action which requires the accumulation of resources is taken. These resources may come from entrepreneurs, the government or other private institutions. While there might be several obstacles that prevent the implementation of entrepreneurial intentions (Ajzen, 2005, 2011, 2012; Carsrud and Branback, 2011), the government should make an effort to support new and existing businesses. The support can avoid some of the causes of small businesses' failure and also facilitate the implementation of entrepreneurial intentions among intending entrepreneurs.

Nabi, Holden and Walmsley (2006) assert that providing a range of resources and support can influence the start-up decision process by impacting on perceived attractiveness, perceived feasibility, self-efficacy and propensity to act. Kim and Cho (2009) found that institutional support provided to new ventures leads to the increase in the number of people starting own ventures. The supply of skilled labour and provision of information pertaining to market opportunities can enhance perceived feasibility and feasibility of starting a business (Begley, Tan and Schoch, 2005).

2.8.1 Entrepreneurial Support in South Africa

The high unemployment rate of about 26.8% in South Africa, based on the expanded definition of unemployment (Statistics South Africa, 2016), necessitates the promotion and support of entrepreneurship as an approach for stimulating job creation and formation of new ventures. Knowledge about the available business support measures in influencing entrepreneurial intention is important in South Africa to encourage students to start their own businesses. This knowledge is more crucial in a rural province like Limpopo which is characterised by a legacy of underdevelopment and high poverty level.

The South African government published the White Paper on National Strategy on the Development and Promotion of Small Business in South Africa (1995). It came up with measures to promote an enabling environment for small businesses which resulted in the establishment of several support institutions and the introduction of various programmes and measures to support SMMEs (DTI, 2014, 2010, 2005). The DTI is the key organisation that provides the national framework for the implementation of SMME support in South Africa (DTI, 2005). According to DTI (2014), the support institutions include:

1) Small Enterprise Finance Agency (SEFA)

The Small Enterprise Finance Agency (SEFA) was established in 2012. It was merged with Khula Enterprise Finance Limited and the South African Micro-Finance Apex Fund (SAMAF). The objective was to offer financial support to small

enterprises requiring funding up to a limit of R3 million. It offers revolving loans, term loans, bridging finance, asset finance and funds working capital needs.

2) National Youth Development Agency (NYDA)

NYDA was established in 2009 to replace the Umsobomvu Youth Fund (UYF). The purpose was to assist young South Africans between the ages of 14 and 35 years to start their own businesses and to finance existing ones.

3) Small Enterprise Development Agency (Seda)

SEDA was established in December 2004 in accordance with the National Small Business Act (Act 29 of 2004). It is an agency of the Department of Small Business Development. The agency is mandated to implement government's small business strategy and also to design and implement a standard national delivery network for small enterprise development. It is also mandated to integrate government-funded small business support agencies across all tiers of government.

4) Industrial Development Corporation (IDC)

IDC is an agency that assists start-up and existing businesses with funding requirements in support of industrial capacity development. It also lead the creation of viable new industries and take up higher- risk funding in early-stage and high-impact projects

5) South African Micro-Finance Apex fund (SAMAF)

SAMAF provides financial services to small-scale entrepreneurs in rural and outer urban areas. It does not lend money straight to the public but uses existing institutions within the communities to handle and lend the funds to qualifying entrepreneurs. SAMAF's main products are the micro-credit fund, the savings mobilisation fund and the capacity building fund.

6) The Land Bank

The Land Bank is a specialist agricultural bank working in cooperation with the government to provide financial services to agri-business and the commercial farming sector. It facilitates access to finance by new entrants from historically disadvantaged backgrounds.

7) The Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPC)

It was formerly the Companies and Intellectual Property Registration Office (CIPRO). The main functions of the commission include registration of companies and Intellectual Property Rights, promotion of education awareness of the Company and Intellectual Property Law, monitoring compliance with financial reporting standards and licencing of Business rescue practitioners

8) National Empowerment Fund (NEF)

The National Empowerment Fund was established with the aim of providing financial and non-financial support to black empowered businesses. It also promote a culture of savings and investment among black people

9) Technology and Innovation Agency (TIA)

TIA was established by the Department of Science and Technology in order to enable and support technological innovation and also to enhance the competitiveness of South African businesses. It was formed through a merger of seven entities which previously performed the same tasks.

10) The Micro Agricultural Financial Institutions of South Africa (Mafisa)

Mafisa is a scheme that provides financial services to smallholder producers in the agriculture sector. Its objective is to address financial services needs of smallholder producers in the sector. Services provided by the scheme include production loans, capacity building for intermediaries and facilitation of saving mobilisation.

11) Provincial government agencies

In addition to some of the national institutions that are accessible at provincial level, provincial governments have their own entrepreneurial support institutions. For instance, the Limpopo province has the Limpopo Enterprise Development Agency (LEDA) which replaced the Limpopo Economic Development Enterprise (LIMDEV) and the Limpopo Business Support Agency (LIBSA) in December 2012.

In order to create more jobs through SMMEs, the support measures provided by the South African government should stimulate the formation of entrepreneurial intentions to establish growth-oriented ventures (Malebana, 2014). This is crucial as research has shown that typical start-ups are less innovative, make little contribution to wealth creation and create few jobs (Shane and Venkataraman, 2001). It is also important that information pertaining to various types of entrepreneurial support is made available. The individual's perception regarding their skills to successfully exploit opportunities enhances the ability to act on entrepreneurial opportunities (Sriram, Mersha and Herron, 2007). Since these skills can be developed through entrepreneurship education (Malebana and Swanepoel, 2014; Saeed, Yousafzai, Yani and Muffatto, 2013), the establishment of partnerships between the government and higher education institutions is vital. Perceptions regarding the availability of entrepreneurial support are positively related to entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions (Saeed *et al.*, 2013). By increasing access and awareness of entrepreneurial support, government will create a socially supportive environment that is positively associated with high levels of start-up motivation (Hopp and Stephan, 2012)

2.9 SUMMARY

Efforts to stimulate entrepreneurial activity among students are more likely to succeed if the quality of entrepreneurial education at TVET Colleges is improved. It is also worth noting that awareness of and access to entrepreneurial support will enhance entrepreneurial intentions. This view is supported by previous research findings that indicate the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions, perceived availability of entrepreneurial support and transition to owning a new venture (Zanakis *et al.*, 2012).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the methodology that was followed to collect data for the study. The target population, sample, research area as well as instrument of data collection are presented.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to De Vos (2002), the definitions of research design are rather ambiguous. Creswell (2013) defines research design as a plan, structure and strategy of investigation which has the sole purpose of finding solutions to problems and questions associated with research studies.

This study followed the quantitative methodology. The results were quantified and generalised from the sample to population. Quantitative approach is an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables which can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2013). The research design is descriptive in nature as it intends to find out the potential of students without any manipulation. Brown (2013) defined a descriptive study as exploration and description of phenomena in real life situations, which provides an accurate account of characteristics of particular individuals, situations or groups.

The quantitative research method was the most appropriate one since the focus was on investigating and examining the students' potential to become entrepreneurs, the level of their entrepreneurial intention and discovering students' awareness towards youth SMME support programmes without manipulating their experiences, awareness and/or knowledge.

3.3 STUDY AREA

The study of entrepreneurial potential of students studying entrepreneurship was conducted at Capricorn TVET College. Capricorn TVET College comprises of four campuses, namely, Seshego, Botlokwa, Senwabarwana and Polokwane. The study was conducted at Polokwane campus situated in the city of Polokwane, Limpopo Province, South Africa. This campus was selected because it is the biggest in Limpopo in terms of the number of student registrations in the faculty of business studies

3.4 TARGETED POPULATION

According to Kruger and Mitchell (2001), population is a collection of all observations of a random variable under study about which one is trying to draw conclusions in practice. The target population for the study comprised of students studying entrepreneurship as one of their modules in the National Certificate and Vocational (NCV) programme from the Faculty of Business Management at the Polokwane TVET College. In 2016, there were 170 students doing entrepreneurship in the NCV programme and all of them participated in the study.

College students studying entrepreneurship were selected because they are believed to be at the stage of deciding their career path, or may have already decided.

3.5 SAMPLE

According to the Faculty of Business Management, Polokwane campus, 2016, there were 170 students doing entrepreneurship in the NCV programme. According to Gay, Mills and Airasian (2012) in Leedy and Ormrod (2015), the sample size of 100 is appropriate and sufficient. As this is a quantitative study of a sample that was conducted in one area for administration of the research instrument, the whole population (of 170) at the identified TVET College (Polokwane) was used for data collection. This implies that the total sample was equal to the targeted population ($n = 170$).

3.6 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The researcher used self-administered questionnaires to obtain information from respondents. Questionnaires have the advantage that they are cost-effective and can also be used when targeting a large sample size (Leedy and Ormrod, 2015).

The self-administered questionnaire has three sections as follows:

1. Biographical information of the respondents.
2. Questions from the General Enterprising Tendencies (GET) questionnaire.
3. Questions asking participants about their entrepreneurial intention and whether they are aware of South Africa's initiatives/programmes that support entrepreneurship and small businesses in the country.

The General Measure of Enterprising Tendency Test

The General Enterprising Tendency (GET) test is a formalised evaluation tool of enterprising tendency that was developed by Caird (1991a; 1991b; 1993; 2006). This test was designed to measure several personal tendencies commonly associated with the enterprising person. They include: risk taking, need for achievement, creative tendency, need for autonomy; and drive and determination. Enterprising tendency measurements should consider the most important entrepreneurial characteristics, motivations and attitudes since entrepreneurs are not a homogeneous group (Van der Lingen and Van Niekerk, 2015). According to Van der Lingen and Van Niekerk (2015), the GET test was developed from the following psychometric tests:

- The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), which measures achievement and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) which measures autonomy.
- Honey and Mumford's Measure of Learning Styles and Jackson's Personality Inventory which both measure risk-taking.

- The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) which measures introversion versus extroversion, thinking versus feeling, judging versus perception, and intuition versus sensation

The GET test contains statements to which respondents should indicate whether they agree or disagree. It has subfields which are scored individually and a total score can be calculated. The GET test together with the tests on which it is based (Caird, 1991a; 1993) has been validated by multiple researchers. Stormer, Kline and Goldenberg (1999) indicate that the test is credible and reliable as shown by an overall Cronbach's rating of 0.86 for the test yield. Linan and Chen (2009) found that despite an increase in the volume of research regarding enterprising tendencies, there is a shortage of standardised, validated psychometric tests for enterprising tendencies, rendering Caird's findings still valid today (Van Niekerk and Van der Lingen, 2015). The GET test has been utilised in various papers which presented results from different populations. For example, Caird (1991b) studied managers, business owners, nurses, teachers, lecturers and civil servants. Stormer and Kline (1999) studied a sample of new and successful business owners using the GET test. Cromie (2000) made use of the test to study Australian MBA students' enterprising tendencies. Kirby and Ibrahim (2011) provided comparative values of utilising the GET test from the study of Egyptian and British management students. Sethu (2012) performed a study on students studying management, engineering, hotel management, pharmacology and medicine at Manipal University in Karnataka. Demirci (2013) performed a comparative study between Canadian and Turkish students studying business management courses. A recent study by Ishiguro (2014) utilised the GET2 test in a study on Japanese students.

Although these studies found the GET test to be more valid and having good internal consistency, Cromie (2000) suggests that the test requires further study in order to verify its psychometric properties. Stormer and Kline (1999) found that although the test is academically sufficient and a reliable measure of entrepreneurial intent, it is not a good measure of entrepreneurial success. Cromie (2000) concluded that while the GET test has potential for the assessment of enterprising tendencies, it does not determine whether the person being tested is an entrepreneur or not.

For purposes of this study, the GET was used to assess whether the identified respondents, i.e. students studying entrepreneurship as one of their modules, have enterprising tendencies. This was with the hope that as there is high level of unemployment in the country, especially amongst youth, they will start to see entering into entrepreneurial ventures as a viable option to seeking employment.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The collected data were captured in the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 2010 for analysis. The collected data were edited, coded and analysed using themes and subthemes imitative of the objectives of the study which are entrepreneurial interest of students studying entrepreneurship, their intentions to start own business ventures and different support programmes at their disposal. Anova was used to test the variance between means.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Since the purpose of the study was to evaluate the entrepreneurial potential and intent of students, as well as their awareness of youth SMME support programmes, the following issues were taken into consideration:

- Ethical clearance: the study requested ethical clearance from the University's ethics committee.
- Permission to conduct the study: prior to collecting information from the targeted respondents, permission was sought from the campus manager of Polokwane campus to carry out the study.
- Confidentiality: all information gathered from the respondents will be treated and kept confidential at all times. No identifying information was asked for when collecting information for research purposes.
- Informed consent: the purpose of the study was explained to the respondents prior to gathering any information from them.

- Voluntary participation: it has been explained that participation in the study is voluntary, it will not be remunerated, and that should the respondents feel uncomfortable at any point of the data collection they should feel free to withdraw their participation.
- Access to report: the final report of the study will be made available and accessible to all interested stakeholders.

3.9 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the methodology that was followed to collect information for the study, that is, the research design, the target population, sample and method of data collection. The next chapter will present the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter on research methodology discussed in what way the research was undertaken. This chapter will focus on the analysis of the data which will be described in tables and figures. The purpose of this chapter is to present and interpret the empirical findings of this research. Firstly, the method of data analysis used in this study will be outlined, followed secondly by the presentation of results from the analysed data. Presentation of results will start with the biographical information of the respondents followed by an outline of the results as linked to the research questions.

4.2 DATA ANALYSIS

Data obtained from the questionnaires were analysed using IBM SPSS statistics (version 24). Data analysis entails categorising, ordering, manipulating and summarising the data to describe it in meaningful terms. The demographical information from section A of the research questionnaire was analysed with descriptive statistics and described with frequencies and percentages whereas the relationship between the entrepreneurial interest and demographical factors such as gender and age were computed using independent T-test and ANOVA.

Data were summarised and presented by making use of descriptive statistics. Tables, charts, graphs and percentages were used in the presentation of the findings. The mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values for all scaled questions were also computed and used in the explanation of the findings. The T-test and ANOVA were used to test for any significant differences between gender, age, and entrepreneurial tendencies, as well as perceived support of the TVET College.

Data obtained from the questionnaires were analysed and interpreted. This section presents the results of the research starting with the presentation of the demographic information of the respondents. The structure used is to present the item level responses, followed by the scale level responses and lastly by the responses as they relate to the research questions. This structure is followed for each sub-research question. The results are illustrated using tables, graphs and charts. This section displays the responses on a question-by-question basis. Results from all sections of the questionnaire are also compared to existing empirical evidence to assess consistency.

The study is guided by the following questions:

- 1) Do entrepreneurship students of Capricorn TVET College show entrepreneurial interest to start their own businesses?

This entrepreneurship interest is measured by the five categories of the GET as discussed in chapter three.

- 2) Do these students have intentions to start their own businesses after completion of their studies?
- 3) Are they aware of youth SMME support programmes that are available in the country (i.e. South Africa)?

4.3. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

Personal information of respondents, which include their gender and age were recorded. Demographical information was useful in determining and comparing patterns amongst different categories of the research participants. The total sample was 170 respondents.

4.3.1. Gender of the respondents

From table 4.1 below of the 170 respondents 32.9% were male and 67.1% were female

Table 4.1: Gender of the Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	56	32.9
Female	114	67.1
Total	170	100.0

4.3.2 Age of the Respondents

In terms of age 43.5% were in the age category between 18 and 21 years, 47.6% of the respondents were in the age category between 22 and 25 years, with 7.1% in the age category between 26 and 29 years and only 1.8% were above 30 years.

Table 4.2: Age of the respondents

Age	Frequency	Percent (%)
18 – 21	74	43.5
22 – 25	81	47.6
26 -29	12	7.1
Over 30	3	1.8
Total	170	100.0

4.3.3 Business in the family of Respondents

Of the respondents 24.7% came from the families with members who are running businesses while 75.3% came from families with none of the members running businesses. The results are presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Business in the Family of the Respondents

Business in family	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	42	24.7
No	128	75.3
Total	170	100.0

4.4 ENTREPRENEURIAL TRAITS OF RESPONDENTS

The entrepreneurial traits will be presented as measured by the GET, i.e. they include:

- Need for achievement
- Need for autonomy
- Creative tendency
- Calculated risk-taking
- Locus of control

For the responses on all of the entrepreneurial traits, according to the GET scoring, the respondents are supposed to agree to even-numbered questions and disagree to odd-numbered questions for them to be displaying that entrepreneurial tendency. The entrepreneurial traits of the respondents are now presented in this section.

4.4.1 Need for Achievement

The need for achievement was measured by questions 1, 6, 10, 15, 19, 24, 28, 33, 37, 42, 46, and 51 on the GET. The responses are presented in figure 4.1 below.

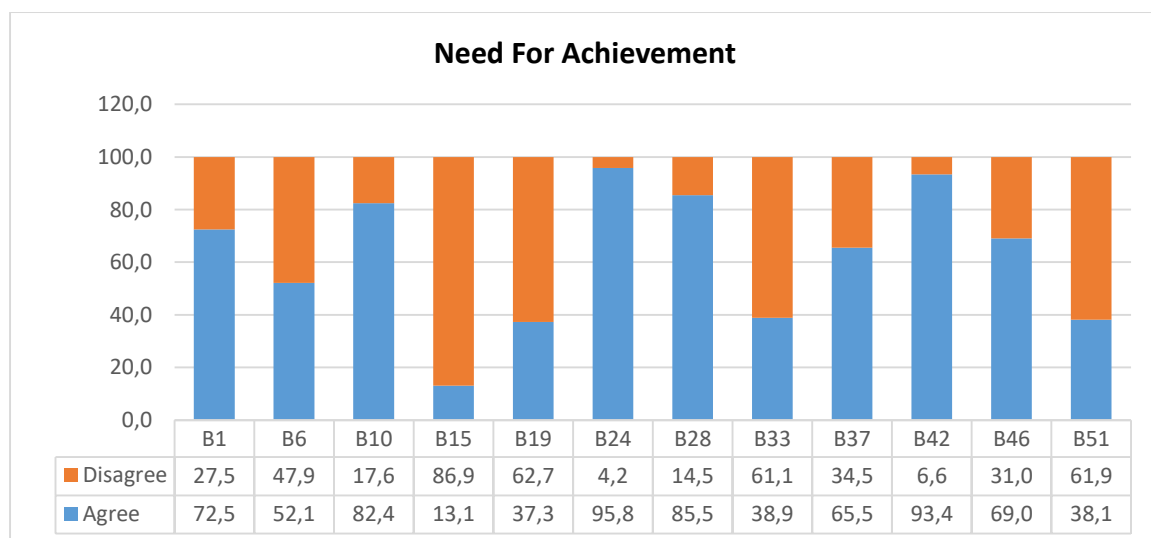


Figure 4.1: Responses on the Need for Achievement

Figure 4.1 shows that overall the respondents do have the need to achieve as shown by, for instance, large percentages who like challenges (82.4%); prefer to accomplish their jobs well rather than just pleasing people (95.8%); like to keep time as well as liking colleagues who keep time (85.5%); are results-oriented (93.4%); and are willing to engage different ways of thinking (69.0 %).

However, the majority of the respondents (72.5%) would still prefer secure jobs that can offer them pensions and 65.5% of them would still prefer working in teams and not take personal responsibility for tasks that need to be accomplished. This may be hampering factors for independent achievement if they still want to rely on others for achievement. So it would seem that although they would like to achieve they tend to be afraid somewhat and still need approval from others. This may be suggestive of the fact that they do not as yet trust themselves enough to make it on their own, hence the need for teamwork.

4.4.2 Need for Autonomy

The findings regarding need for autonomy are shown in figure 4.2 below. The need for autonomy was measured by questions 3, 12, 21, 30, 39 and 48 on the GET. The questions for need for autonomy are few, and most of responses on the even-numbered questions suggest that the respondents have a tendency toward the need for autonomy. For instance, there is evidence for potential or interest looking at 74.9% who indicated that they rarely need assistance and like to put their own stamp on the work they do and 55% of them often take projects and steer them their own way.

However, the majority of respondents (96.4%) indicated that they would still prefer to follow instructions carefully in order to do what is expected of them while 94.6% like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work. This is a drawback for the respondents since it shows that they are not ready to work autonomously and are not independent enough at this stage to do their own things in their own way. Only 40.2% tend to be unconventional and stand out as being different to others.

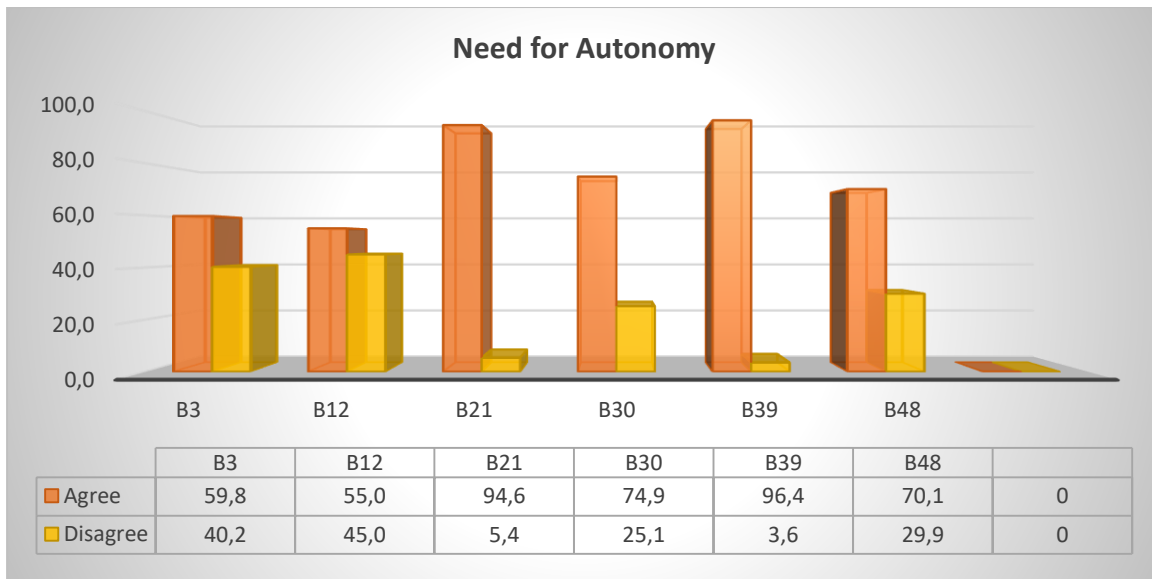


Figure 4.2: Responses on the Need for Autonomy

4.4.3 Creative Tendency

The responses on creative tendency are presented in figure 4.3.

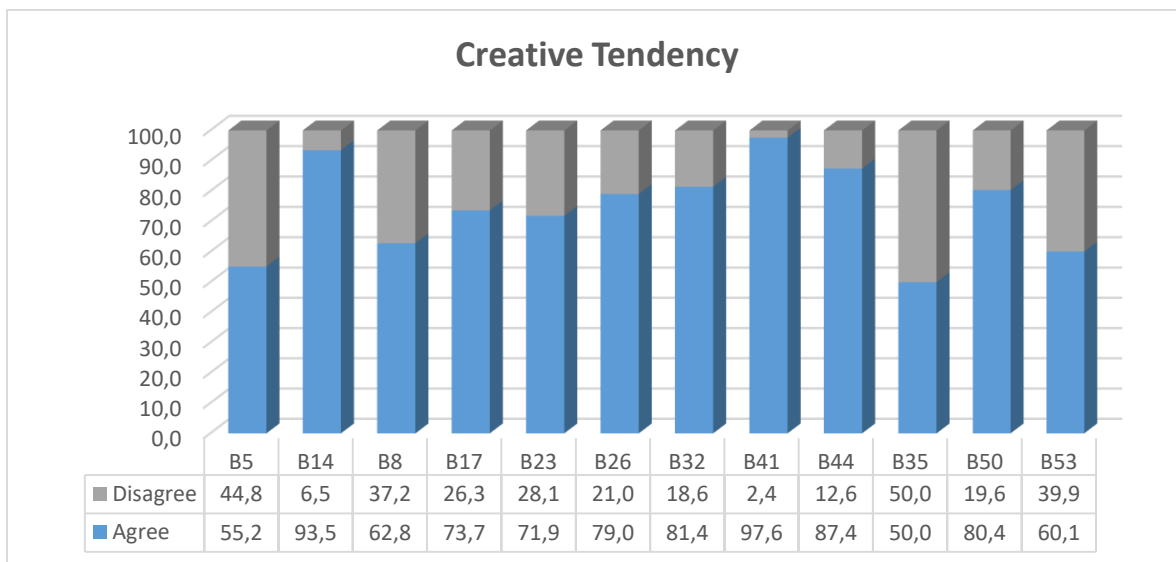


Figure 4.3: Responses on Creative Tendency

Questions 5, 8, 14, 17, 23, 26, 32, 35, 41, 44, 50 and 53 on the GET measured creative tendency. Figure 4.3 shows that while there are tendencies towards the

creative tendency trait, there are also drawbacks that will perhaps eventually contribute to the respondents not being creative enough should they decide to enter into entrepreneurial ventures. Of the respondents 93.5% indicated that they think deeply about information until they come up with new ideas and solutions, 62.8% who sometimes have unique ideas, 79.0 % of them believe that they are always making changes and trying out new ideas. Furthermore, 81.4% prefer to be good at several things rather than being very good at one thing, 87.4% like to spend time with people with different ways of thinking.

However, it might be important to help the respondents to think differently as a way of enhancing their creativity. For instance, 60.1% of them find it hard to adapt to changes, 50% prefer to do things in traditional ways rather than trying new methods, 97.6% like to have smooth and organised lives, 71.9% are weary of new ideas and 73.7% do not like unexpected changes to their weekly routines. Traditional, stable environments are not typical of entrepreneurial ventures, or for any modern day organisation.

4.4.4 Calculated Risk-taking

The calculated risk-taking was measured by questions 2, 9, 11, 18, 20, 27, 29, 36, 38, 45, 47 and 54 on the GET.

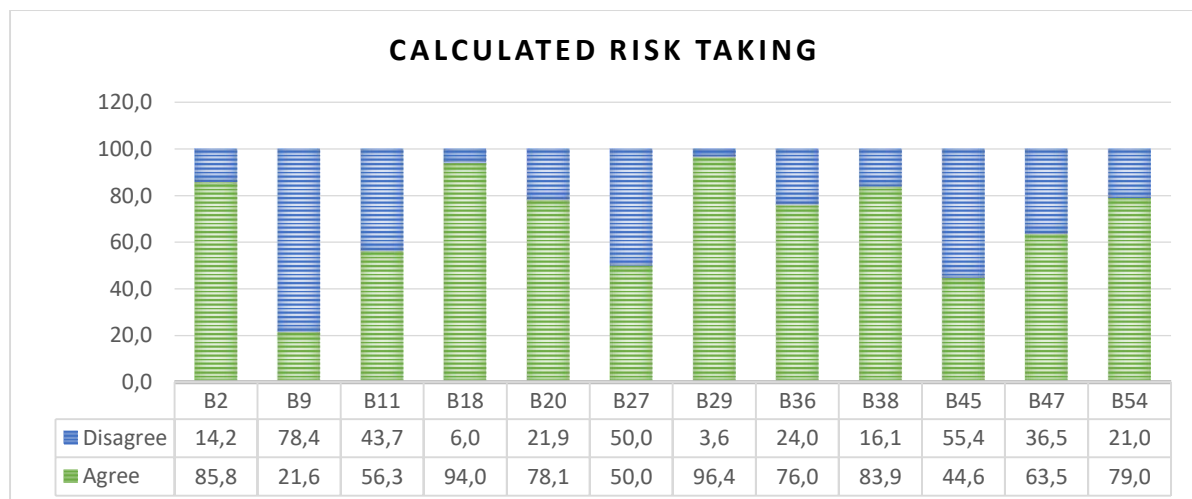


Figure 4.4: Responses on Calculated risk taking

The responses on the ability to take calculated risks are presented in figure 4.4 above. The respondents show qualities of being willing to take calculated risks since, for instance, 85.8% are not afraid to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before. This is also supported by the majority of the respondents (96.4%) who indicated that they would like to have all the facts before making decisions, 94.0% are not afraid to take the risk even if the chances of success were 50/50, 83.9% are prepared to take opportunities that might lead to even better things than to have experiences that they are sure to enjoy, 76.0% would weigh up the pros and cons quickly before making important decisions 78.1% would be willing to invest time and borrow money to enable them to explore their idea of making some more money.

Despite the above trend, there are some respondents who would not take the risk of getting out of their comfort zones to pursue opportunities. This is shown by 63.5% who believe that what they are used to is usually better than what is unfamiliar; those who prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on the individual's performance (56.3%). Seeking a secure job is not entrepreneurial as often entrepreneurial ventures are uncertain, with unpredictable income levels. Half of the respondents (50.0 %) feel that while taking the risk is good, if there is a chance of failure they would rather not do it. These respondents are perhaps on the one hand being analytical and good at evaluating the likely benefits against the likely cost of actions, or on the other hand may be willing to take risks, a trait that is required if one has to enter into entrepreneurship.

4.4.5 Locus of Control

The locus of control was measured by questions 4, 7, 13, 16, 22, 25, 31, 34, 40, 43, 49 and 52 on the GET. The responses on the locus of control are presented in figure 4.5.

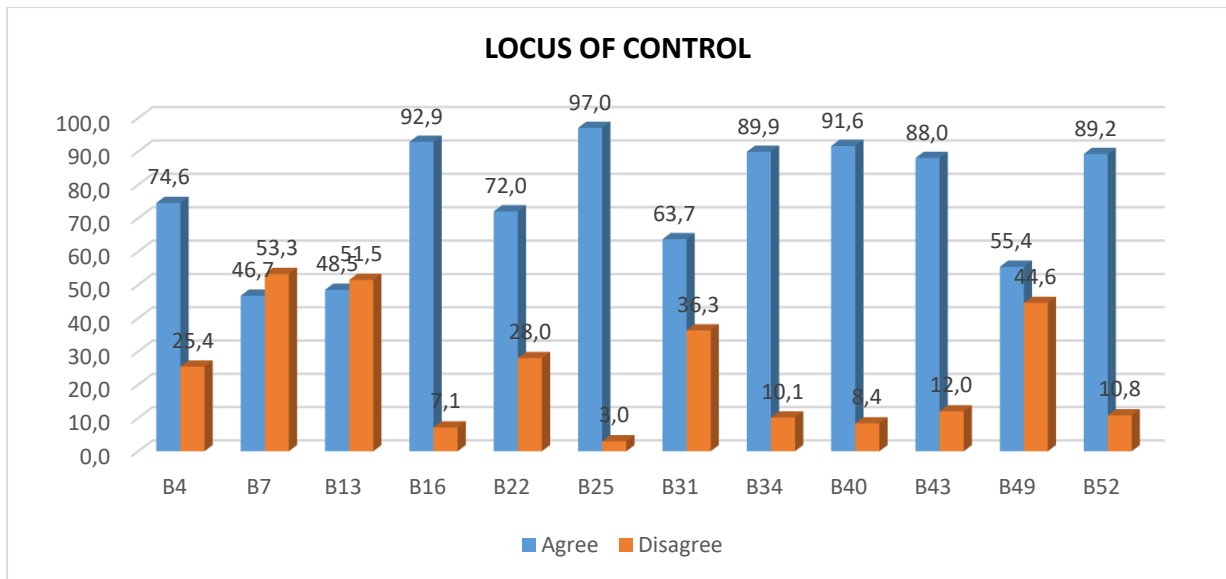


Figure 4.5: Responses on Locus of control

Figure 4.5 above suggests that the respondents have some degree of internal locus of control. This is proven by, for instance, the majority of respondents who agree that things happen to them in life for a reason (97.0%), that they nearly always achieve their plans (92.9%), that being successful is a result of working hard with luck having very little to do with it (89.9%), and that they get what they want from life because of their hard work (89.2%). This suggests that the respondents are constantly seeking and taking advantage of opportunities and that they are self-confident with the belief that they have control over their own destiny rather than being controlled by fate.

4.4.6 Performance on Entrepreneurial Traits compared according to the Gender and Age of the Respondents

The results suggested some differences in performance of the respondents. The study wanted to find out if there were any significant differences on entrepreneurial traits according to gender or age.

4.4.6.1 Performance on entrepreneurial traits according to gender

Overall performance on entrepreneurial traits according to gender is outlined in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Overall Performance according to Gender

		Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	%	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	
Need for achievement	Male	52	30.6	16.50	1.528	.212	
	Female	100	58.8	16.64	1.642	.164	
Need for autonomy	Male	55	32.4	7.35	.947	.128	
	Female	108	63.5	7.16	.968	.093	
Creative tendency	Male	53	31.2	15.13	1.755	.241	
	Female	102	60.0	14.95	1.697	.168	
Calculated risk taking	Male	54	31.8	15.31	1.635	.222	
	Female	104	61.2	15.88	1.342	.132	
Locus of control	Male	54	31.8	14.78	1.525	.208	
	Female	105	61.8	14.86	1.522	.149	
Entrepreneurial Intention	Male	55	32.4	5.35	.775	.105	
	Female	112	65.9	5.54	1.013	.096	
Entrepreneurial support	Male	55	32.4	5.60	1.132	.153	
	Female	111	65.3	5.78	1.115	.106	

Data outlined in table 4.4 suggest that there are differences between the overall performances on the different entrepreneurial traits based on gender. Further tests were computed to determine if the differences were significant. The following sections present the differences or lack of differences on the entrepreneurial traits.

The T-tests were used to check if there were any significant differences between the performances of males as compared to those of females on the measures of entrepreneurial tendencies. Table 4.5 outlines the comparisons

Table 4.5: Comparison of Performance on Entrepreneurial Traits according to Gender

Entrepreneurial Trait	value	df	p-value
Need for achievement	-.510	150	.610
Need for autonomy	1.181	161	.239
Creative tendency	.623	153	.534
Calculated risk taking	2.307	156	.022
Locus of control	-.311	157	.756

From Table 4.5 above, there were no significant differences on the performance of the males and females except on the trait of calculated risk taking. On the willingness to take risks, although overall both males and females show the tendency to take calculated risks, males seem to be more willing to take risks than females. The difference was significant at 5% level of confidence ($p = 0.022$). The current results are similar to those found by Marlow and Swail (2014); Goktan and Gupta (2015) who also found that males are more of risk-takers than their female counterparts especially when it comes to starting entrepreneurial ventures.

4.4.6.2 Performance on Entrepreneurial Traits according to Age Groups

The current study also wanted to investigate whether there are any differences, according to gender, on entrepreneurial traits. T-tests were used to compare the performance on entrepreneurial traits according to different age groups. Table 4.6 outlines the overall comparison.

Table 4.6: Overall Performance according to Age

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Need for achievement	18-21	68	16.43	1.539	.187
	22-25	72	16.65	1.611	.190
	26-29	10	16.90	1.912	.605
	Over 30	3	18.00	1.000	.577
	Total	153	16.59	1.595	.129
Need for autonomy	18-21	72	7.04	.813	.096
	22-25	77	7.35	1.036	.118
	26-29	12	7.42	1.084	.313
	Over 30	3	7.00	1.732	1.000
	Total	164	7.21	.964	.075
Creative tendency	18-21	66	14.94	1.487	.183
	22-25	78	15.08	1.857	.210
	26-29	10	15.10	2.132	.674
	Over 30	2	14.50	.707	.500
	Total	156	15.01	1.708	.137
Calculated risk taking	18-21	69	15.67	1.390	.167
	22-25	76	15.79	1.560	.179
	26-29	11	15.27	1.348	.407
	Over 30	2	14.50	.707	.500
	Total	158	15.68	1.468	.117
Locus of control	18-21	71	14.75	1.500	.178
	22-25	75	14.92	1.540	.178
	26-29	12	15.08	1.676	.484
	Over 30	2	14.00	1.414	1.000
	Total	160	14.84	1.524	.120
Entrepreneurial Intention	18-21	73	5.42	.985	.115
	22-25	80	5.53	.886	.099
	26-29	12	5.25	.866	.250
	Over 30	3	6.00	1.732	1.000
	Total	168	5.47	.941	.073
Entrepreneurial support	18-21	74	5.81	1.106	.129
	22-25	79	5.75	1.115	.125
	26-29	11	4.73	1.009	.304
	Over 30	3	6.00	1.000	.577
	Total	167	5.71	1.125	.087

The current studies show no significant differences on entrepreneurial traits when respondents were compared according to age groups. The data on the performance of the respondents on the entrepreneurial traits according to different age groups are outlined in table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Comparison of performance on the entrepreneurial traits according to age groups

Entrepreneurial Trait	value	Df	p-value
Need for achievement	1.186	3	.317
Need for autonomy	1.523	3	.211
Creative tendency	.144	3	.934
Calculated risk taking	.853	3	.467
Locus of control	.458	3	.712

From the above table, there is no significant difference in performance according to age group.

4.5 ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION

Another objective of the current study, as outlined in chapter one, was to find out if the respondents intend starting their own businesses when they complete their studies. The results are presented in figure 4.6 below.

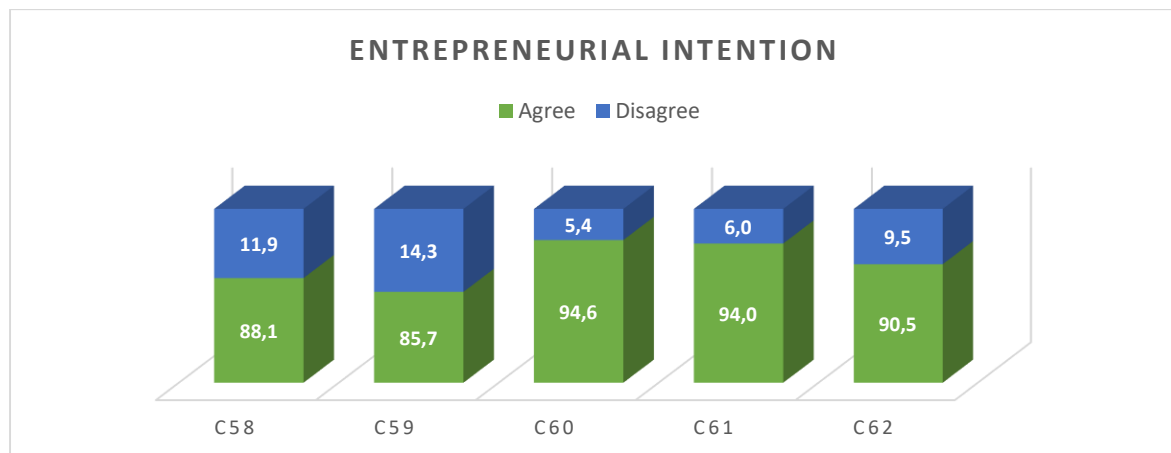


Figure 4.6: Responses on Entrepreneurial intention

From figure 4.6 the results indicate that 94.6% of the respondents are determined to create business ventures in the future, 94.0% will make every effort to start their own businesses, 90.5% have seriously thought of starting a business in the future, 88.1% prefer to be entrepreneurs rather than to be employees in a company. Overall, the respondents seem to have intentions to become entrepreneurial as shown by 85.7% of them who indicated that they have a professional goal of becoming entrepreneurs.

The study went further to find out if the respondents' intention to start their own businesses when they have completed their studies differed according to age or not. Data on their responses are presented in table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Comparison of gender performance on Entrepreneurial Intention

	value	df	p-value
Entrepreneurial Intention	1.343	136.010	0.182

The table shows that there is no significant difference of the different age categories when compared on their intention to be entrepreneurial.

4.6 ENTREPRENEURIAL SUPPORT

The respondents' responses on their knowledge and/or awareness of the various entrepreneurial support initiatives that are available in the country for entrepreneurs are outlined in figure 4.7.

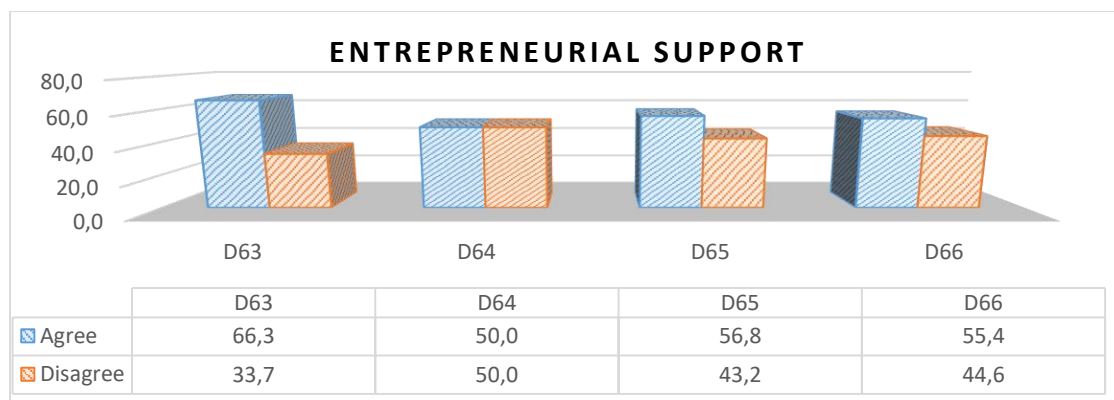


Figure 4.7: Responses on Entrepreneurial support

The results depicted on figure 4.7 indicate that the majority of the respondents (66.35%) believe that the government provides good support to people who want to start their own businesses. Half of the respondents (50.0%) know the different types of support initiatives that are offered to youth who want to start their own businesses. However, despite half of them indicating that they have knowledge of government support programmes for youth entrepreneurship, 56.8% of them still went on to indicate that they believe that it would be easier for them to obtain support from people they know than from the government. Furthermore, only 55.4% of the respondents agreed that information about government support programmes for individuals who want to start their own businesses is easily accessible.

4.6.1 Opinion on Availability of Entrepreneurial Support

The respondents were also asked what their thoughts were on the availability of support for youth who would like to start their own businesses. The responses that looked at whether there were any differences of opinion between males and females are presented in table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Comparison of Opinion on Availability of Entrepreneurial Support according to Gender

	Value	df	p-value
Entrepreneurial support	-.994	164	.321

Table 4.9 shows that there is no significant difference between males and females on perception of availability of entrepreneurial support for aspiring entrepreneurs in the country, South Africa.

4.6.2 Comparison of Different Age Groups on Opinion of Availability of Entrepreneurial support

The data on comparison of age group on performance of the respondents based on their opinion on availability of entrepreneurial support are presented in table 4.10

Table 4.10: Comparison of age groups on Opinion of Availability of Entrepreneurial support

	Value	Df	p-value
Entrepreneurial support	3.212	3	.025

There is significant difference in terms of perception of availability of entrepreneurial support for different age groups. Those respondents who are over 30 years of age believe that there is enough support for people who want to start their own businesses in the country more than the other age groups.

Older people tend to be more aware of the different entrepreneurial support available as according to Kautonen, Down and Minniti (2014), entrepreneurial activity increases almost linearly up to a certain threshold age for individuals who prefer to be self-employed.

4.7 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the interpretation of the data that were collected. The biographical information of the respondents was outlined, followed by entrepreneurial traits as presented on the GET instrument. The respondents' intention to start own businesses and their knowledge of entrepreneurial support programmes offered by the government were analysed. The data were further presented in accordance with the gender of respondents and their different age categories.

The next chapter will present the summary of results, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the results of research from the data collected to determine the entrepreneurial tendency of students studying Entrepreneurship as one of their modules at Capricorn College for TVET. The GET instrument was used to that effect. The study also assessed if these students have intentions to start their own businesses after completion of their studies. Lastly, the study also investigated whether the students are aware of the different government support programmes in the country (South Africa). This chapter will outline the summary of the findings of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

5.2 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The primary objective of this study was to assess the entrepreneurial traits of students studying entrepreneurship at Capricorn College for TVET. The entrepreneurial traits as measured by the GET test are: need for achievement, need for autonomy, creative tendency, calculated risk-taking, and internal locus of control. This study shows that the majority of the students have the measured entrepreneurial qualities. This is very encouraging since it depicts that most students have the entrepreneurial potential and, given the opportunity, they are capable of starting their own businesses. There are no significant differences between the performance of males and females except on the trait of risk-taking. According to the results of the study males tend to be more willing to take risks than their female counterparts. With respect to age, there is no significant difference between the males and females on all the measured entrepreneurial traits.

The study also wanted to find out if the respondents intend starting their own businesses after completing their studies. The research findings show that the majority of the respondents think that starting a business is an option to employment

with most of them indicating that they have seriously thought about starting their own businesses. A high percentage of respondents (85.7 %) indicate that they intend to start their own businesses in future. There are no differences in intention to be entrepreneurial in terms of gender or age group performance.

Responses to a question that asked about what would stop the respondents from starting their own businesses reveal that most of them fear that lack of funding, inadequate knowledge about business and lack skills would be the main obstacles towards achieving their goal of starting their own businesses. This is in line with previous research that has shown that lack of management experience, lack of financial skills, rising costs of doing business and lack of finance are some of the causes of failure of small and medium enterprises in South Africa (Fatoki, 2014).

The current study also investigated the opinion of the respondents on availability of support for people who want to start their own businesses in the country. The results of the study show that the majority of the respondents were convinced that there is adequate government support for people who want to start businesses and that government support is accessible. However, only a few above 50% indicate that the support offered in the country is easily accessible. The issue of low level of awareness of government entrepreneurial support in South Africa among entrepreneurs has been documented in previous studies (Herrington and Kew, 2014; Malebana, 2014). In this study, the respondents further state that it would be easier for them to obtain financial support from people they know than from the government.

5.3 CONCLUSION

With the low total entrepreneurial activity (TEA) rates in South Africa, entrepreneurial intentions need to be transformed into action in order to solve the problem of unemployment. This implies that it is not enough to identify that people have entrepreneurial potential and intend starting their own businesses. More effort needs to be exerted to bring that potential into reality. This is so because research has shown that small businesses can contribute much towards developing the local

economy and thus alleviating poverty (Department of Trade and Industry, 2013; Herrington and Kew, 2014). Entrepreneurial activity is dependent on entrepreneurs who identify and exploit opportunities in the market (Spinelli and Adams, 2012).

Courses on entrepreneurship have been instrumental in developing students' desires and intentions to start own businesses, particularly as exposure to entrepreneurial skills and support increases the likelihood of young people pursuing entrepreneurship as a viable career option. Moreover, research has shown that entrepreneurship education increases students' general knowledge, self-efficacy and self-confidence, which in turn increases their perceptions of feasibility of pursuing entrepreneurship (Urban, 2012). The results of the study reveal the respondents have entrepreneurial traits, as measured in the current study, and are thinking of starting their own businesses. However, they are still uncertain about the kind of support they can get from their country.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommends the following:

- Given the low level of knowledge about small business support institutions and their services among the respondents, it is the responsibility of the colleges to help the government to raise awareness of such support initiatives as government may be unaware of that gap in knowledge. College curricula can include information on those available support programmes as well as information on how to access them. The college can also invite government departments that are responsible for the support programmes to talk to the students about the initiatives. The more knowledgeable young people are about the different types of entrepreneurial support and perceive them to be easily accessible, the greater their likelihood of being self-employed.
- This study also shows that the students fear starting their own businesses as they are not sure of their knowledge of business management skills. It is therefore recommended that more training and development be given in areas of for instance, marketing management, financial management and crafting business plans. The training does not necessarily have to be in a formal college

at all times, it can be through the short learning programmes that can be offered in one specific skill at a time.

- Another way of alleviating the students' fears of starting their own businesses can be through getting successful, young entrepreneurs, who are from similar, or almost similar backgrounds to come to talk to them and motivate them to start their own businesses. These motivational talks can perhaps help them to start thinking that anything is possible, including owning one's own business and creating employment as a result.
- The primary purpose of the study was to assess the entrepreneurial tendencies of students studying entrepreneurship at Capricorn College for TVET. Based on the fact that this study focused on one college, there is a need for future researchers to conduct the research in colleges all over South Africa in order to get higher accuracy of the college students' feedback and opinions.
- There are still very few studies on entrepreneurial intention of students in South Africa. Therefore, there is a need for more research regarding the factors influencing the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. Future research can, for example, apply the entrepreneurial intention models to assess the impact of entrepreneurial support on the formation of new businesses.

5.5 SUMMARY

The study wanted to investigate the entrepreneurial traits and intentions of students studying Entrepreneurship at the Capricorn College for TVET. The study further investigated whether the students have intentions to start their own businesses after completing their studies and to assess if they have knowledge of government support programmes. The research problem was outlined in the first chapter of the study. The second chapter outlined the literature review on the concept of entrepreneurship and the contribution of small, medium and micro enterprises globally and in South Africa and government entrepreneurial support initiatives that are available in the country. The GET test was used to measure entrepreneurial traits and the method of collecting data for the study was presented in chapter three. Chapter four described the results of the study, which show that the students mainly have the entrepreneurial traits and are interested in starting their own business.

However, intention by itself may not be adequate as they still have fears. Finally, this final chapter presented the summary of results and recommendations.

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APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

My name is Moji Dorothy Mathosa, and I am currently registered for the Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree at the Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership, University of Limpopo. As part of my studies I need to conduct a research. The title of my study is: “Entrepreneurial tendency of students studying Entrepreneurship: The case of Capricorn TVET College, Limpopo Province”

The purpose of this survey is to determine whether the students who are studying Entrepreneurship as a module have the interest to start their own businesses after completion of their studies. It also aims to find out if they are aware of the different small business support programmes that are available, especially for youth entrepreneurs in South Africa. Your participation in this survey is highly appreciated.

Kindly note that you will not be remunerated for participating, your participation in this research study is voluntary and you may choose not to participate and you may also withdraw your consent to participate at any time. Please respond to all the questions in the questionnaire as honestly and frankly as possible.

The study is envisaged to benefit colleges in providing programmes that will realise their goal of producing students who will be able to start their own business ventures. Policy makers in the Department of Higher Education will also be able to assess if their policies are in line with the underlying objective and amend or formulate policies accordingly. Other supporting organisations will also be able to identify if there are any loopholes and offer support to students.

You are not required to write your name anywhere on the questionnaire and all information collected and documents submitted for this research study will be treated with confidentiality and kept safely. No identifying information will be divulged to any party without your consent, and your identity will not be revealed in any publication that may result from this study.

By signing this consent form I certify that I agree to the terms of this agreement.

Signed

Participant's full name

signature

date

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact Moji Dorothy Mathosa at 082 836 9245

QUESTIONNAIRE ON ENTREPRENEURIAL TENDENCIES OF STUDENTS STUDYING ENTREPRENEURSHIP

(Make a cross 'X' next to the appropriate option)

A. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Gender

- 1) Male 2) Female

2. Age

- 1) 18 - 21
2) 22 – 25
3) 26 – 29
4) Over 30

3. Is anyone in your family running a business?

- 1) Yes 2) No

B. ENTREPRENEURIAL TENDENCIES

For each of the 54 questions below, select the answer that you most closely feel reflects yourself. Select 'A' for 'Agree' and 'D' for 'Disagree'

4. I would not mind routine unchallenging work if the pay prospects were good.

- A D

5. I find it difficult to switch off from work completely.

A D

6. I like challenges that stretch my abilities and get bored with things I can do quite easily.

A D

7. If I have problems with a task I leave it, forget it and move on to something else.

A D

8. I think more of the present and past than of the future.

A D

9. It is more important to do a job well than to try to please people.

A D

10. I get annoyed if people are not on time for meetings.

A D

11. I would rather work with a person I liked who was not good at the job, rather than work with someone I did not like even if they were good at the job.

A D

12. I would rather work on a task as part of a team rather than take responsibility for it myself.

A D

13. When I am faced with a challenge I think more about the results of succeeding than the effects of failing.

A D

14. I get up early, stay late or skip meals if I have a deadline for some work that needs to be done.

A D

15. I find it easy to relax on holiday and forget about work.

A D

16. I tend to not like to stand out or be unconventional.

A D

17. At work, I often take over projects and steer them my way without worrying about what other people think.

A D

18. I like a lot of guidance to be really clear about what to do in work.

A D

19. I rarely need or want any assistance and like to put my own stamp on work that I do.

A D

20. I usually do what is expected of me and follow instructions carefully.

A D

21. I get annoyed if superiors or colleagues take credit for my work.

A D

22. I rarely daydream.

A D

23. Sometimes people find my ideas unusual.

A D

24. Sometimes I think about information almost obsessively until I come up with new ideas and solutions.

A D

25. I do not like unexpected changes to my weekly routines.

A D

26. I am wary of new ideas, gadgets and technologies.

A D

27. Other people think that I'm always making changes and trying out new ideas.

A D

28. I prefer to be quite good at several things rather than very good at one thing.

A D

29. I prefer doing things in the usual way rather than trying out new methods.

A D

30. I like to have my life organised so that it runs smoothly and to plan.

A D

31. I like to spend time with people who have different ways of thinking.

A D

32. Sometimes I have so many ideas that I feel pressurised

A D

33. It is harder for me to adapt to change than keep to a routine.

A D

34. I like to test boundaries and get into areas where few have worked before.

A D

35. I would rather buy a lottery ticket than enter a competition.

A D

36. I would prefer to have a moderate income in a secure job rather than a high income in a job that depended on my performance.

A D

37. If I wanted to achieve something and the chances of success were 50/50 I would take the risk.

A D

38. If I had a good idea for making some money, I would be willing to invest my time and borrow money to enable me to do it.

A D

39. If there is a chance of failure I would rather not do it.

A D

40. Before I make a decision I like to have all the facts no matter how long it takes.

A D

41. Before making an important decision I prefer to weigh up the pro's and con's fairly quickly rather than spending a long time thinking about it.

A D

42. I would rather take an opportunity that might lead to even better things than have an experience that I am sure to enjoy.

A D

43. I find it difficult to ask for favours from other people.

A D

44. What we are used to is usually better than what is unfamiliar.

A D

45. I like to start interesting projects even if there is no guaranteed payback for the money or time I have to put in.

A D

46. Capable people who fail to become successful have not usually taken chances when they have occurred.

A D

47. You are either naturally good at something or you are not, effort makes no difference.

A D

48. Many of the bad times that people experience are due to bad luck.

A D

49. When I make plans I nearly always achieve them.

A D

50. People generally get what they deserve.

A D

51. I try to accept that things happen to me in life for a reason.

A D

52. You are not likely to be successful unless you are in the right place at the right time.

A D

53. Being successful is a result of working hard, luck has little to do with it.

A D

54. For me, getting what I want is a just reward for my efforts.

A D

55. I believe that destiny determines what happens to me in life.

A D

56. People's failures are rarely the result of their poor judgement.

A D

57. I get what I want from life because I work hard to make it happen

A D

C. ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION

Tick under the appropriate option

	Agree	Disagree
58. I prefer to be an entrepreneur rather than to be an employee in a company.		
59. My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur.		
60. I am determined to create a business venture in the future.		
61. I will make every effort to start and run my own business.		
62. I have seriously thought of starting a business in the future.		

D. ENTREPRENEURIAL SUPPORT

Answer by ticking under the appropriate option

	Agree	Disagree
63. The government provides good support to individuals who want to start their own businesses.		
64. I know the different types of support that is offered to youth who want to start their own businesses.		
65. It would be easier for me to obtain support from people that I know than from the government.		
66. Information about government support for people who want to start their own businesses is easily accessible.		

67. For question 64 above, if you know of any support programmes, list them here (If you do not know of any of these support programmes skip to question 69).

68. How did you get to know of these programmes?

69. What type of support do you think will be most beneficial for you should you decide to start your own business?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION