

Social Entrepreneurship among Diepsloot Youth

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**A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and
Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Masters in Entrepreneurship and New
Venture Creation**

(Johannesburg, 2014)

ABSTRACT

Social entrepreneurship activity is very low in South Africa, especially among the youth. It is argued that favourable attitudes toward social entrepreneurship are determinants of successful social entrepreneurship that could contribute to sustainable socio-economic development amongst the youth who are still grappling with the “triple challenge” of unemployment, poverty and inequality.

The primary objective of this study was to describe the attitudes of urban youth toward social entrepreneurship and to identify the constraints that the youth perceive as barriers to engaging in social entrepreneurship.

The data of this study was from a survey conducted in Diepsloot, North of Johannesburg involving 153 young people. Data was collected using two self-rating questionnaires. The Social Entrepreneurial Intent Scale (SEIS), adopted from Thompson (2009), was used to measure social entrepreneurial intentions, while the Constraint scale developed by Fatoki and Chindoga (2011) was used to identify constraints.

The study produced three main findings. Firstly, the majority of respondents had positive attitudes towards starting and engaging in social enterprises. Secondly, the research identified three main constraints that discourage the youth from starting or engaging in social enterprise, namely “lack of access to finance”, “lack of savings to start”, and “weak economic environment”. Thirdly, the research also identified an overall limitation to social entrepreneurship, namely; lack of support.

Recommendations to reduce constraints and support social entrepreneurship were suggested.

DECLARATION

I, Dinah Mamashalane Mataboge declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

(Dinah Mamashalane Mataboge)

Signed at

On the day of 20....

DEDICATION

This report is dedicated to my husband Theo, my son Lesedi, my daughter Reabetswe and my mother Boledi, for the unconditional love you give me which continuously kept me focused during this journey. Furthermore, the aspiration to make you full of pride by completing my Master's degree assisted me to break down some personal obstacles which I hope will encourage and motivate you and others in your respective lives.

Praise God, He made it all possible!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A special thank you to the following people who assisted and supported me during the course of my studies

- Professor Urban , my supervisor, for his guidance and assistance
- Tozi Zeka, MMENVC administrator, for the support and encouragement
- Chimene Chetty, who inspired me to register for this Masters and supported me to the end
- Richard Pendame and Merle Weberloff; who stood by me throughout the course and assisted me with my statistics
- To the Diepsloot Youth Centres facilitators, for allowing me to access and administer my questionnaire to their youth groups
- A special thanks to my family (especially my Husband) for the support they gave me

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

South Africa is struggling to address the triple challenges of poverty, unemployment and inequality amongst its young population because it lacks a robust model of social entrepreneurship, underscoring poor attitudes amongst stakeholders. (UNDP, 2010) The innovativeness of treating social problems that are becoming more complex has been advocated by numerous scholars (Thompson, Alvy, & Lees, 2000; Mair & Martí, 2004; Nicholls, 2006b; Roberts & Woods, 2005; Weerawardena & Sullivan Mort, 2006) and has been unmistakable in multiple success stories around the globe. An example is the growth in microfinance industries throughout the world e.g. the Grameen Bank model (Seelos et al., 2005).

Although social entrepreneurship is an emerging phenomenon, developments in this field have started to spark academic interest and it thus has profound implications in the economic system. Yet, and despite the increased academic interest in social entrepreneurship, the field still lacks a good conceptual understanding of the economic role and logic of action of Social Entrepreneurship.

The challenge of finding the most operational and justifiable solutions to many social ills is substantial, and those solutions require many of the constituents related to successful business revolution. Therefore, the solutions to social problems—such as sustainable alleviation of the gathering of problems associated with long-term poverty and unemployment—often demand fundamental transformations in economic and social systems.

Most recent published books and research studies looking at youth, attitudes and constraints only focus on conventional or commercial entrepreneurship. It is argued that attitudes and perceptions towards entrepreneurship/social entrepreneurship exert an influence on the development of a social entrepreneurial culture. This study is aimed at describing the attitudes of the youth, particularly in Diepsloot, and identifying the constraints in engaging in social entrepreneurship.

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to describe the attitudes of urban youth towards social entrepreneurship, and to identify the perceived constraints to engaging in Social Entrepreneurship. It is argued that favourable attitudes and perceptions of urban youth toward social entrepreneurship are determinants of successful social entrepreneurship that could contribute to sustainable socio-economic development amongst the youth.

1.2 Context of the study

South Africa is a country with substantial natural resources as well as human and financial capital that, if used effectively, could take it out of the historical 'triple challenge' of poverty, unemployment and inequality (COSATU, 2013). The dilemma, however, is that this 'triple challenge' has persisted, regardless of the various national macroeconomic plans (NPC, 2011) adopted by the ANC government since independence in 1994. Social scientists and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have organised many workshops and seminars to assess how the country could utilize the above potential to maximize the benefits for the majority of South Africans living in poverty. For instance, the 36th International Small Business Congress (ISBC), held in the country in September 2012, concluded that entrepreneurship could be a solution to the problem of unemployment facing South Africa (ISBC 2012). However, while there appears to be a large corpus of literature on the socio-economic development role of entrepreneurship in Africa (Beeka & Rimmington, 2011; Brundin, et al 2008; Hwang, 2012; Preisendörfer, et al 2012), there exists a dearth of empirical findings on the role of social entrepreneurship (SE) in the socio-economic development discourse of a country like South Africa (Hwang, 2012). This point had earlier on been given by Urban (2008) and corroborated by Teise (2012), who both argue that the field of social entrepreneurship necessitates a scholarly scientific research agenda, if South Africa aims at using it as an mechanism for socio-economic development. The field of social

entrepreneurship has been long recognized by western countries as an area where provincial and local authorities have set up policies that empower social entrepreneurs to implement business methodologies to address social problems. The fundamental objective of these western countries related to social entrepreneurship initiatives is to achieve socio-economic development in a sustainable manner by encouraging non-government organisations to survive financially, rather than depending on donor support initiatives (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009). Taking into consideration that social enterprises do not operate on dividends or on a shareholder basis, profits from revenues are used by the organisations to finance programmes and other related activities (Making a world of difference, 2009).

1.2.1 *The Triple Challenge in Context*

Employment is too low, especially in the private sector. With one in two young South Africans unemployed (IMF, 2013), overall national unemployment is at 25%, although there is much debate on this figure (COSATU, 2013) with a structural unemployment figure of 36% covering those 'discouraged from employment' being proffered as realistic. At the same time, real wage growth has outstripped productivity growth. South Africa's rate of unemployment is thus too high, especially when benchmarked against 10% for developing countries and 5% for the developed countries (COSATU, 2013). The nexus between unemployment and poverty (COSATU, 2013) has important policy implications for South Africa within the broader scope of the NDP. Unemployment and under-employment are sources of poverty and inequality, especially in developing countries that do not have unemployment insurance and other social benefits. The NDP proposes to create 11 million jobs especially in the private sector on the basis of mass entrepreneurship and SMMEs. This will not necessarily lead to full employment, suggesting that even with the NDP, unemployment will persist in the economy in the medium to long-term. In terms of inequality, the NDP intends to reduce income inequality from the world-breaking Gini co-efficient of 0.69 to an equally high Gini co-efficient of 0.60. The average Gini in the OECD is 0.40 (Spiegel, 2007) suggesting that even with the NDP, South Africa will still have to contend with economic inequalities.

1.2.2 Diepsloot Informal Settlement

Diepsloot is a predominantly informal settlement located 40km north of Johannesburg's city centre. As a post-apartheid township, it acutely represents the challenges facing the South African state on matters of housing, service delivery and effective local governance (The Informal City, 2013). Diepsloot's population is ever-rising, the result of migration and the movement of migrant labourers from fringe provinces to the City of Gold in search of a better life. This has strained resources, such as land, water, energy and social services, with little help administered only to a few (The Informal City, 2013). Diepsloot is buffeted by a myriad challenges such as weak infrastructure to support a burgeoning population, rampant unemployment, especially amongst the youth, xenophobia, pollution, and HIV/AIDS (City of Johannesburg, 2013). To address these challenges, the provincial government of Gauteng has come up with a spatial development plan for Diepsloot which emphasizes infrastructure development. However, there is scope for other players, notably NGOs, to come in with programmes which seek to address some of these challenges. South Africa's membership of the BRICS means that it does not qualify for HIPC status and this point was underscored recently by the British Government when it indicated that it was no longer going to support humanitarian projects in the country (City of Johannesburg, 2013). This means that the role of international NGOs will be greatly curtailed in future, thus creating a gap in social development programming in communities like Diepsloot. Mainstreaming social entrepreneurship could be a potentially viable policy alternative for the provincial government of Gauteng and this needs to be explored through scientific study.

1.3 Problem statement

1.3.1 *Main problem*

Since attaining political independence in 1994, South Africa has been grappling with the 'triple challenge' of poverty, unemployment, and inequality. Successive post-independent governments have developed and implemented various economic development plans with a view to addressing these issues but with limited success. The latest statistics indicate that poverty, unemployment and inequality are all increasing (UNDP, 2010). Literature, cited in Chapter 2, indicates that this decline in human development indicators can be reversed. Therefore there is a need for effective strategies to be put in place to ensure sustainable socio-economic development in line with the literature (UNDP, 2010). It is for this reason that this study is being conducted to measure attitudes of urban youth towards social entrepreneurship and to identify the constraints that they perceive to engaging in Social Entrepreneurship in South Africa in an urban area. It is anticipated that research findings will demonstrate the potential of social entrepreneurship as a strategy that can be used by South Africa to address the 'triple challenge' (COSATU, 2013), especially amongst its growing youthful population, with a view to making recommendations that will inform future policies and programmes.

1.3.2 *Sub-problems*

The specific sub-problems of the research are to:

- i. describe the attitudes towards social entrepreneurship of youth in Diepsloot in South Africa
- ii. describe the relationship between attitude and demographic variables of youth in Diepsloot in South Africa
- iii. identify the constraints that youth in Diepsloot perceive as barriers to engaging in social entrepreneurship

1.4 Significance of the study

South Africa is struggling (UNDP, 2010) to address the triple challenge of poverty, unemployment and inequalities amongst its youth because it lacks a robust model of social entrepreneurship underscoring poor attitudes amongst stakeholders. The study will contribute towards the body of literature on social entrepreneurship strategy formulation at grassroots level that potentially may promote better strategy implementation by policy makers. According to the knowledge of the author, based on the literature review, there has been little research or exploratory studies of the potential of social entrepreneurship amongst urban youth, therefore this study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge by providing new findings on social entrepreneurship amongst youth in a developing country like South Africa. The study also aspires to provide solutions which can mitigate the 'triple challenge' of poverty, unemployment and inequality especially as it affects the youth. It is anticipated that the research findings will form the basis for further study to other researchers to follow in the area of social entrepreneurship.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

This study focuses on Urban Youth to describe attitudes and to identify the constraints to Social Entrepreneurship. The sample size will consist of urban youth from Diepsloot Community in Gauteng Province.

1.6 Definition of terms

Social Entrepreneurship

This research adopts the definition by Mair and Marti (2006, p.37) who define social entrepreneurship as: "a process involving the innovative use and combination of resources to pursue opportunities to catalyse social change and/or address social need", since it takes into account the individual characteristics of the entrepreneur which allows for an understanding of the attitudes.

Youth

In relatively simple terms, youths are often conceptualised as any person who is non-adult. The United Nations defines youth as those between 15-24 while Kelly, Parker and Oyosi (2002, p.1-5), for instance, regard those aged 12-25 to be youth. For the purpose of this study, we will use the definition of youth as defined by the National Youth Commission Act 19 of 1996, which define youth as those between ages of 14-35.

Triple challenges

Within the context of this research, triple challenges refer to the problem of unemployment, poverty and inequalities that persist amongst youth.

1.7 Assumptions

The following assumptions have been made regarding the study:

- i. The sample will have the required information and the respondents will be Diepsloot residents.
- ii. Respondents will provide information openly and honestly.
- iii. The number of respondents will be enough to gain adequate data that would be illustrative of the wider Diepsloot youth population
- iv. If the respondents do not have internet access, they will still be willing to complete hard copy questionnaire/surveys

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section is a review of literature pertinent to the study of social entrepreneurship with a special focus on urban youth. It consists of two thematic areas with the first theme reviewing literature on the definition of the concept of social entrepreneurship and on the attitudinal construct of youth towards social entrepreneurship within the conceptual framework of social entrepreneurial intentions. The section notes that social entrepreneurship as a discipline is still in its infancy and draws many of its theories from commercial entrepreneurship. Consequently, various theories of entrepreneurship are reviewed with the core focus being on the theory of planned behaviour to explain the role of attitudes in entrepreneurial intention or orientation. The second theme reviews literature on the constraints to embedding an entrepreneurial orientation amongst youth and how this affects the potential for social entrepreneurship. The section concludes with an overview of the key learning points derived from the literature review.

2.2 Definition of topic and background discussion.

2.2.1 Definition of Social Entrepreneur, Social Entrepreneurship and Social Enterprises

The definitions of a “social entrepreneur” and “social entrepreneurship” are contested territory with one study identifying some 37 definitions relating to the two concepts (Dacin et al, 2010, p.40-41). This is a result of the lack of clarity on the boundaries and domains of social entrepreneurship (Perrini, 2006).

The definitions of “social entrepreneur” and “social entrepreneurship” can sometimes be used interchangeably when the definition focuses on the individual characteristics of social entrepreneurs in terms of their qualities and behaviours. One such definition has been given by Light (2006, p.50) who defines a social entrepreneur as: “an individual, group, network, organization or

alliance of organizations that seeks sustainable, large-scale change through pattern-breaking ideas in what or how governments, non-profits and businesses do to address significant social problems” At the individual level, social entrepreneurs have been seen as a ‘sub-species’ of the entrepreneurs’ family (Dees, 1998a). Mair and Martí (2004), for example, mention that an important element is the “entrepreneurial spirit” that gives social entrepreneurs their entrepreneurial nature. A recent review of social entrepreneurship literature (Bacq & Janssen, 2011) showed that social entrepreneurs share a series of behavioral characteristics with the commercial entrepreneurs, such as: the ability to detect opportunities (Catford, 1998; Dearlove, 2004; Dees, 1998b; Johnson, 2003; Nicholls, 2006b; Peredo & McLean, 2006; Roberts & Woods, 2005; Thompson et al. 2000; Tracey & Phillips, 2007); the drive to innovate (Austin et al. 2006; Dees, 1998b; Mair & Martí, 2004; Roberts & Woods, 2005); the willingness to bear risk (Peredo & McLean, 2006; Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009) and the display of proactive behaviour towards survival, growth and serving the market (Prabhu, 1999; Sullivan Mort, Weerawardena, & Carnegie, 2003; Weerawardena & Sullivan Mort, 2006). However, they show a key difference in terms of motivation to engage in social activities: social entrepreneurs demonstrate a socio-moral motivation in their entrepreneurial initiatives (Nicholls, 2006b; Shaw & Carter, 2007).

Another definition, adopting a similar approach, focuses on the operating sector, processes and resources used by social entrepreneurs and has been given by Zahra et al., (2009, p. 5) who define social entrepreneurship as encompassing the activities and processes undertaken to define, exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organizations in an innovative way.

Another approach to defining social entrepreneurship has been to focus on the primary mission and outcomes of the social entrepreneur. Adopting this approach, Mair and Marti (2006, p.37) define social entrepreneurship as “a process involving the innovative use and combination of resources to pursue opportunities to catalyse social change and/or address social need”.

In an attempt to illustrate the linkages and how to turn entrepreneurs into social entrepreneurs, figure 1 below, shows that social entrepreneurs also commit to their shareholders but do not distribute dividends. Social entrepreneurship therefore lies in-between entrepreneurship and pure social business.

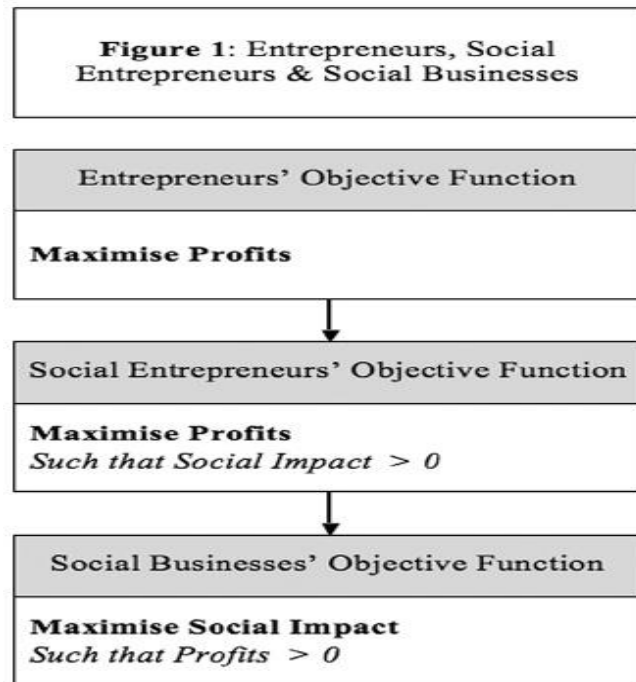


Figure 1: Social Entrepreneurship location.

(Touboul & Roubet, 2011)

This figure above indicates that social entrepreneurship is located between Pure Social Business and Entrepreneurship.

Social Entrepreneurship and the Social Entrepreneur

Social entrepreneurship first emerged in the late 1980s, and has since developed to include a 'variety of disciplines, methods and countries' as insinuated by Young (1983) cited in Shockley & Frank (2011). It was established as a respected and defined area of research by the end of the 1990s. Most theorists seem to claim that social entrepreneurship serves a critical function in communities and societies by producing genuine and tangible social effects. Yu (2001) proposed the Kirznerian entrepreneurial innovation to encompass both Schumpeterian and Kirznerian theories of entrepreneurship,

the propositions for social entrepreneurship research based on Schumpeter and Kirzner are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Summary of the proposition for social entrepreneurship

Summary of the proposition of social entrepreneurship, these research is based on Schumpeter and Kirzner's insights into social entrepreneurship (**Source: Shockley & Frank, 2011**)

Proposition 1	Entrepreneurial thinking in social entrepreneurship originates not in the instrumental rationality of the social entrepreneur but rather in his or her novel intuitions and entrepreneurial discovery
Proposition 2	Social entrepreneurship is a self-reflective activity unto itself and distinct from, even if compatible with leadership, capitalism and management
Proposition 3	Social entrepreneurship, indeed all forms of entrepreneurship, is a universal behavior. Social entrepreneurship occurs within and across the commercial, public and voluntary sectors
Proposition 4	The casual functionality of social entrepreneurship produces at least smaller effects in a community and potentially larger, systemic effects in the social sector
Proposition 5	The process of social entrepreneurship must be analysed in addition to the consideration of individual social entrepreneurs. Both are necessary to understanding social entrepreneurship

The discipline of social entrepreneurship is multi-disciplinary and this creates a dichotomy of some sort (Perrini et al, 2010). The multi-disciplinary nature is exemplified through the use of numerous concepts whose origins are in other disciplines (Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009). To a large extent, social entrepreneurship embodies elements of both traditional business entrepreneurship with its focus on opportunity recognition and exploitation of economic value and social dimensions of social entrepreneurship which emphasise social value creation (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). This then creates a dichotomy which is an enduring characterisation of the discipline of social entrepreneurship as we understand it today (Weerawardena & Mort, 2006).

Social entrepreneurship is primarily focused on addressing issues of deprivation, inequality, unemployment and insecurity which are usually associated with marginalised communities (Westall et al, 2000). However, it has been noted that these areas are also associated with low-levels of self-efficacy and desirability amongst individuals suggesting that it is a challenge to encourage entrepreneurship in such areas. Yet, these are the areas which need the greatest level of social entrepreneurship and it is therefore imperative to develop and grow social entrepreneurship in such areas.

Within the discourse of social entrepreneurship, the role of the social entrepreneur is critical. Social entrepreneurs are entrepreneurs driven by a social mission. The social mission is the thrust and it is central to social entrepreneurship, resulting in different ways of evaluating and exploiting opportunities (Dees, 1998). A social impact becomes the measuring criterion, and not wealth creation, to individuals or shareholders. In social entrepreneurship, wealth creation is the means to an end towards achieving the social mission (Dees, 1998).

The social entrepreneur is at the coalface of identifying social issues and conceptualising and implementing solutions to these issues on the basis of social entrepreneurship (Dees, 1998a; Schuyler, 1998; Harding, 2006; Jeffs, 2006). The social entrepreneur is focused on identifying solutions to those

social problems where traditional market-driven approaches have failed and examples include poverty alleviation, crime prevention, education delivery, and social inequalities.

In expressing entrepreneurial intention and decision-making, research by Mair and Noboa (2006) reveals that these are largely influenced by the cognitive desirability and feasibility of the social entrepreneur. Cognitive desirability denotes the degree of the desire to start social entrepreneurial ventures exhibited by the social entrepreneur.

While the demeanour of the social entrepreneur in the decision-making process mimicks that of a regular business manager, it is important to indicate that these two are different. The social entrepreneur is a catalyst of entrepreneurial initiative while the business manager is more focused on the execution or implementation of entrepreneurial initiative (Thompson, Alvy & Lees, 2000).

When contrasted with business entrepreneurs, social entrepreneurs have been shown to differ fundamentally from the former in only one aspect, which is an orientation towards social impact and environmental sustainability (Harding, 2006). However, social entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial businessmen share similar personal qualities and leadership styles (Leadbeater, 1997).

Another key attribute associated with social entrepreneurs is self-efficacy which has been defined by Bandura (1986) as the extent to which an individual believes in their capabilities to be motivated, mobilise resources, and release action in pursuit of situational demands.

According to Waddock and Post (1991), there are three characteristics that are essential for social entrepreneurs to succeed:

- They must be able to factor in the complexity of the social problem into their social vision and mission. This enables them to have a buy-in from the community when implementing the social vision and mission in partnership with the community;
- They have a high personal credibility allowing easy mobilisation of required resources in implementing the social vision and mission;

- Social entrepreneurs must generate community commitment through involving target communities to drive social values as opposed to economic returns.

Martin and Osberg (2007) assert that social entrepreneurs are business people who are trying to achieve a double bottom line or triple bottom line. The double bottom line refers to both financial sustainability and a social impact in society and a triple bottom line considers the above and further includes an environmental impact.

Social Enterprise

The concept of social enterprise is fraught with ambiguities and lacks definitional consensus (Chell, 2007). The social dimension of the concept refers to the attitudes and values that are socially derived and associated with particular societies or civilisations while the enterprise dimension suggests values associated with personal achievement, pursuit of excellence, ambition, and personal responsibility (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006).

Pearce (2003) has explored alternative definitions of the concept of social enterprise and these are cited below:

“[In social enterprises] all assets and accumulated wealth are not in the ownership of individuals” (Evans et al., 2000)

“[In social enterprises] profits are used to create more jobs and businesses and to generate wealth for the benefit of the community” (Community Business Scotland, 1991)

“[Social enterprises are] independent [...] and provide services, goods and trade for a social purpose and are non-profit distributing” (Policy Action Team 3, 1999).

Table 2: Definitions for Social Enterprises

Article	Definition
Dart (2004)	This definition distinguishes the social enterprise from the traditional non-profit organisation in terms of its radical innovation, structure, norms, strategy, and values.
Ligane & Olsen, (2004)	A social enterprise is an early-stage venture or seed-stage venture with both a profit-driven and social mission and whose social impact is greater than the industry standard.
Peredo & Chrisman, (2006)	They define a social enterprise as a community acting corporately in duality as entrepreneur and enterprise in pursuit of the greater good.
Korosec and Berman (2006)	Their definition defines social enterprises as individuals or organisations which develop new services, programmes and solutions to address specific needs of targeted populations.
Harding (2004)	Harding conceptualises a social enterprise as an orthodox business premised on social objectives and which re-invests its surpluses in the community rather than to shareholders.
Hartigan (2006)	A social enterprise drives transformational change by growing the social venture so that it reaches more people. It is not motivated by maximisation of financial returns or wealth accumulation.

Source: Masseti, 2008

An analysis of definitions in the foregoing suggests that there is no consensus on what constitutes a social enterprise and this underscores the pervasive ambiguities characterising social entrepreneurship (Peteraf, 1993; Bull, 2008).

For a start, there are forceful arguments against the term 'social enterprise' (Goerke, 2003) as being incompatible, while Defourny (2001) had contended that neither traditional entrepreneurial literature nor not-for-profit literature could adequately capture the reality of social enterprise. This point received renewed endorsement by Bull (2008) who emphasised that the terms 'social' and 'enterprise' are realistically irreconcilable.

The lack of consensus on what a social enterprise is, has also drawn in the DTI (2004) who argued that a social enterprise is an independent organisation whose governance and ownership structure emphasise participation by various stakeholders. Earlier, Emerson and Hewlet (2002) had sought to identify social enterprises within the context of social markets in which they have forcefully argued that social markets exist for the exchange of social items and that the key players in these markets are the social enterprises.

Notwithstanding these evident inconsistencies in conceptualising social enterprise, there is growing convergence in recognising and accepting the inevitable role of these enterprises in various economies. For instance, Europe has come up with various laws which endorse social enterprise (Seanor and Meaton, 2008; Defournney & Nyssens, 2008), while in the developing world, there is evidence of their growing role (Hackett, 2010). This trend is confirmation of the thesis posited earlier by Urban (2008) on the likely implications of increased success and start-up of social enterprise on perceptions of desirability and acceptability of social initiatives.

Seanor and Meaton (2008) sought to demonstrate the positive link between the perception of desirability and acceptability of social enterprises by the social entrepreneurs and the resultant growth and success of the social enterprises.

Another area of contestation is the perceived goal of social enterprise policy. Essentially, the arguments have been on whether the goal of social enterprise should be “more-than-profit” or “not-for-profit” (Haugh, 2005) with the DTI having earlier suggested a “more-than-profit” institutional argument, emphasising the need to protect assets for community use. However, there is an equally strong entrepreneurial argument favouring a hybrid of these goals (Ridley-Duff, 2002).

However, this is fraught with two problems. The first problem arises when oligarchies and hierarchies develop in these areas which alter the ownership and control of resources through the creation of elites (Conforth et al, 1988)

while the second problem arises when, in the process of emphasising collective rights under social entrepreneurship, the rights of individuals are trampled upon (Parker, 2002; Johnson, 2006).

Social enterprises, particularly non-profit organisations, tend to rely on volunteers to serve key functions. Usage of volunteers for core organisational functions presents a different set of management challenges for organisational leadership. Social enterprises are usually faced with additional constraints, such as limited access to best talent, fewer financial resources resulting from limited and scarce funding. To overcome these constraints, social enterprises sometimes opt for the following models: for profit model to increase commercial capital and to pay market related wages to attract required talent (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006).

Another development which has generated discourse in social entrepreneurship is the apparent trend by many not-for-profits to extend their revenue base through adoption of profit-focused concepts and strategies. This may entail commercialisation of core programmes and adoption of a generally business-like orientation in the pursuit of attaining their social mission. The rationale is largely to wean these social enterprises off donations and other philanthropic support (Dees, 2008), albeit other reasons for this trend include:

- Need for appropriate and effective revenue collection through the use of relevant business tools
- Need for sustainable solutions
- Need for enhanced financial strength and capacity which can propel diverse and sustainable solutions and assure consistency.
- Need for heightened accountability on the basis of the shift from charitable orientation to market-driven customer orientation; and
- Need for greater efficiency and innovation in provision of social services (Dees & Anderson, 2003)

However, the benefits of adopting a profit model, cited in the foregoing, need to view against the backdrop of the following disadvantages identified by (Dees, 1998):

- An orientation to commercial revenue has the potential to divert social enterprises from their social mission with negative implications for service delivery
- Adoption of a profit model may create stratification of society which may negate the inclusive orientation of social enterprises
- It is not fairly easy for social enterprises to adopt a profit model since this entails effort, skill, and adaptability
- A profit orientation may raise legitimacy concerns from stakeholders who may not understand the nexus between the social and community aspects of the enterprise
- Mutual concern and goodwill often associated with social enterprises can be endangered when they seek to rely on formal business contacts as opposed to the huge volunteer corps on whom they traditionally rely.
- Reliance on the profit model may lead to a gradual decline on the lobbying and advocacy dimension of the social enterprises as they minimise these activities in preference for profit maximisation.

The issue of blurring, which essentially is at the core of the ambiguities characterising social entrepreneurship, and can be defined as the lack of clarity between profit and non-profit social enterprises, continues to pose challenges. Perhaps, there is no better illustration of this than the poignant observation made by Dees and Anderson (2003) that more and more not-for-profits are assuming a profit orientation as they adopt creative and innovative strategies to generate income from the services that they render.

Another challenge arising from this blurring is when not-for-profit and profit organisations compete with each other in areas which are traditionally associated with each other. Thus, it is no longer uncommon to see not-for-

profits entering into areas traditionally dominated by profit organisations with the latter also entering into areas considered historically as reserved for 'not-for-profit' organisations (Dees & Anderson, 2003).

Arising from the above contradiction is the phenomenon of hybrid organisations which embody characteristics of both 'for-profit' and 'not-for-profit' organisations. For instance, profit organisations may adopt a social mission for their activities while 'not-for-profit' organisations may equally adopt profit-driven orientations (Dees & Anderson, 2003).

In attempting to explain this blurring, particularly as it manifests in 'not-for-profit' organisations adopting a profit orientation, several theories have been used. The resource-based view, institutional theory, and social embeddedness theory have all been used to explain why social enterprises must interact with others in the quest for obtaining, controlling and leveraging resources to achieve their objectives (Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004).

The resource-based view explains the need for resources by social enterprises while institutional theory seeks to explain 'not-for-profits' as entities which operate within the social, cultural, and political systems of specific communities. There are rules that govern interactions within these communities and social enterprises have to operate within the institutional framework of these relationships. This point is further explained by the social embeddedness theory which highlights the importance of these relationships in strengthening trust and lowering acquisition costs amongst social enterprises (Eikenberry & Kluver, 2004).

In trying to understand the trend towards hybridisation within social enterprises, Martin and Osborne (2007) have explored the issue of financial constraints and note that it is the greatest driver of this development. Several social enterprises are determined to fulfil their social mission but this has to be buttressed by a solid financial base which can only come through the creativity and innovation associated with the business-like approach of profit organisations. Consequently, it is now accepted that the creation of social value by social enterprises is not mutually exclusive to the adoption of creativity and innovation usually associated with the corporate organisation.

Consistent with the discussion in the foregoing, Bosma and Levie (2009) have mapped out the continuum of social entrepreneurial endeavour and it is made up of: traditional non-governmental organisations (NGOs); non-profit social enterprises; hybrid social enterprises; profit-oriented social enterprises; socially-committed enterprises; and hybrid social enterprises.

Traditional NGOs are characterised by a lack of profit objective but high levels of environmental and social orientation, while non-profit social enterprises fit the same rubric but tend to emphasise innovation in the delivery of social value. On the other hand, socially-committed enterprises lack strong environmental and social goals while profit-oriented social enterprises have a financial objective in addition to having significant social and environmental goals. Finally, hybrid social enterprises possess both an amplified profit orientation and social and environmental focus.

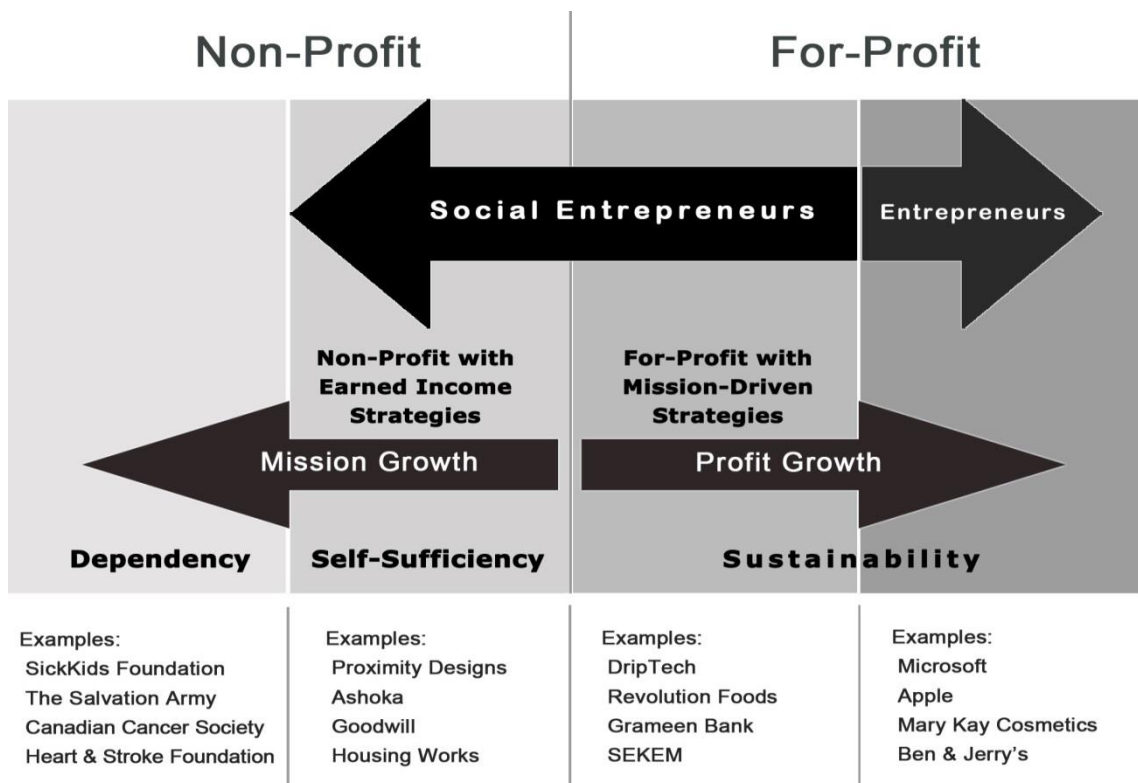


Figure 2: The entrepreneurship spectrum

Source: Ashoka (2013)

The entrepreneurship spectrum illustrates the boundaries of social entrepreneurship.

In conclusion, social entrepreneurship is premised on the role of the social entrepreneur. The processes and behaviours of social entrepreneurs are critical in understanding the mission of social enterprises. Looked at from this context, the social entrepreneur is an initiator of social endeavour while the social enterprise is the medium through which specific outcomes are achieved in terms of this endeavour.

Social value

Social value is defined as positive initiatives that benefit communities whose urgent and reasonable social needs are not being met.

In summary, any social enterprise strategy relies on the following four pillars:

- **The social innovation:** defined as the development and implementation of new ideas (products, services and models) to meet social needs and create new social relationships or collaborations (Dees, 1998). It represents new responses to pressing social demands, which affect the process of social interactions. It is aimed at improving human well-being (European Commission, 2013).
- **The sustainability:** defined as the attitude and ability of a social enterprise to plan for future endeavours. It's three aspects (organisational, financial and environmental) should receive equal attention from the enterprise because each has an impact on the other (Dees & Anderson, 2003). It should be noticed that putting a sustainability strategy in place is not just something that should be done because of the 'social' nature of the enterprise, but because it is also good business practice (Social Enterprise University Enterprise Network in the UK).

- **The scalability:** implies increasing the impact of social purpose organizations to better match the magnitude of the social need or challenge. Further, it involves an underlying business model chosen to insure the sustainability of the social enterprise has the potential for large growth in a cost-efficient manner (Bloom & Smith, 2010).
- **The social impact:** defined as the effect of an activity on the social fabric of the community and well-being of individuals and families.

2.2.2 Background Discussion

The draft Integrated Youth Development Strategy (IYDS, 2011) notes that youth economic participation in South Africa is poor, characterized by 'high unemployment and poor entrepreneurial levels' (IYDS, 2011, p.17). The National Development Plan (NDP, 2012) and the Industrial Policy Action Plan create opportunities for job creation on the basis of entrepreneurship, industrial and infrastructure development which can benefit the youth. In particular, the Integrated Youth Development Strategy is encouraging and supporting the creation of social enterprises and social businesses as a way of enhancing youth economic participation (IYDS, 2011). However, there is one untested assumption in the policy-making discourse in South Africa that positive attitudes and perceptions of social entrepreneurship are necessary conditions for its gem success. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) shows that South Africa ranks low in terms of the Total Entrepreneurial Activity rate suggesting that there is a low uptake of entrepreneurship among the youth (GEM Report, 2012). This study seeks to understand why this is so by measuring attitudes of youth towards Social Entrepreneurship, and identifying the constraints to Social Entrepreneurship of urban youth in Diepsloot, South Africa.

There is growing recognition on the role of the social economy in South Africa with the New Growth Path (2010) being emphatic on the need to amplify the role of social enterprises. South Africa is grappling with the triple challenge of poverty, inequalities, and unemployment (National Development Plan, 2011) and there is a need to create decent jobs for its people on the basis of the social economy and social enterprises.

The low prevalence of social entrepreneurship in South Africa has been attributed to lack of definitional clarity on what constitutes social entrepreneurship (Visser, 2011). While there has been an effort to situate discussion on social entrepreneurship within 'success stories', the research findings so far suggest that South Africa is bereft of these 'success stories' and this should serve as a fillip for the growth of viable and sustained social entrepreneurship in the country (Bloom, 2009).

Entrepreneurship education has been cited as a critical driver of total entrepreneurial activity in a country (Urban & Barrera, 2007) yet the GEM Country Report for South Africa (2012) laments the poor quality of education in South Africa and how it impinges negatively on entrepreneurial orientation.

Notwithstanding this aberration in South Africa, elsewhere, there is irrefutable evidence that social entrepreneurship (SE) is now a fairly well established academic body and practice (Kramer, 2005). There are various explanations for this development, but the starting point has been the need to find alternative sources of development outside traditional economic development models tried with limited success in developing countries. For a long time, the Bretton Woods institutions have sought to implement various economic development models to address pervasive developmental challenges in developing countries. These have sought to address poverty on the basis of aid and loans but these have produced more stories of failure than success (Stiglitz, 2002).

South Africa itself is an example of how economic theory has failed to help the country address the pressing development challenges (Pritchett, 1997) and this has created renewed interest on alternative development approaches. Social Entrepreneurship has been touted as a potential alternative development approach and this is evidenced by the prolific research output that has come to characterise the discipline within a relatively short space of time spanning 1991 to 2009 (Gawell et al, 2009).

Yet an examination of the potential for Social Entrepreneurship in South Africa reveals challenges. Urban (2007; 2008) did the seminal work exploring the potential for Social Entrepreneurship in South Africa and noted that government was still not agreed on the effectiveness of social enterprises in bringing about

sustainable development. However, that position has since altered dramatically with a former Minister of Economic Development acknowledging the potential of social enterprises and the social economy in addressing the triple challenges faced by the country. In his discussion of the potential for SE Urban (2008) notes that there are several areas where traditional government can leverage on the social enterprises to address some of the pressing development challenges. Examples of these areas are in HIV/Aids mitigation, crime prevention, education provision and the green economy.

This is consistent with an observation made by Austin, et al (2006) that the central driver of Social Entrepreneurship is the pervasive social problems while Lock (2001) had earlier suggested that issues of devolution and a diminishing national cake in most economies had laid the foundation for involvement of other players in national development.

Thus, it can be argued that Social Entrepreneurship has evolved largely because of its perceived promise to tackle many social problems and this has immediate relevance to South Africa, which is still nursing serious historical social problems. The success of Social Entrepreneurship in South Africa is not assured since there still exists negative perceptions of social enterprises which are viewed as inefficient, ineffective and unresponsive and largely maverick (Christie & Honig, 2006; Urban, 2008). The idea that the invisible hand of the economics can address social problems needs to be revisited, since it is clear that there is need for other interventions to address apparent social deficits which arise in the economy.

Enhancing entrepreneurial orientation in South Africa

One key route through which entrepreneurial orientation can be enhanced in South Africa is through education and training. In fact, the GEM Country Report for South Africa (2012) notes that South Africa has a low total entrepreneurial activity rate relative to other emerging economies because of its weak education and training. Entrepreneurship Barometer (2013) notes that education and training are important parts of the ecosystem. A study by Ladzani (1995) shows that most SMMEs in Limpopo were facing graduation problems,

largely because of the limited education and skills of their owners. In his comments in the Entrepreneurship Barometer (2013), Urban suggests that governments need to strengthen investments in education and training if they are to enhance entrepreneurial orientation in their economies. When individuals are properly educated and trained, it is possible for them to consider pursuing an entrepreneurial career rather than joining the ranks of the jobseekers (Kroon, 1997). This is critical for a country like South Africa, which is facing growing joblessness, especially among a burgeoning youthful population. The focus of policy should be on how to enhance entrepreneurial orientation on the basis of both traditional entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship. Gradation

2.3 Attitudes

There is recognition of the role of attitude variables as determinants of entrepreneurial action in entrepreneurship research (Byabashaija & Katono, 2011). This is a point of departure from previous studies which focused on personality factors as antecedents of entrepreneurial intention (Judge, Locke & Durnham, 1997). The attitudinal construct in entrepreneurship research has become important in view of empirical evidence suggesting that most attempts to promote entrepreneurship by governments fail because of the negative attitude of people towards such policies (Gnyawali & Fogel, 1994). The seminal work on the relationship between attitudes and intentions can be traced to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) when they postulated that intentions toward certain behaviour suggest strong indicators of that behaviour. According to the Theory of Planned Behaviour posited by Azjen (1991), there are three factors which determine entrepreneurial interest or intention: attitudes towards entrepreneurial behaviour, perceived behavioural control, and perceived subjective norms. Positive personal attitude towards start up is found to be a good base on which to ignite entrepreneurial behaviour, regardless of educational background (Wu & Wu, 2008). Robinson, et al.(1991) maintain that attitudes are less stable than personal characteristics.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) also measures attitudes and aspirations of individuals as well as entrepreneurial activity through its Adult Population Survey (APS). Unlike other data sets which track firm-level data, the

data collected through the APS focuses on individuals to understand why and why not they are participating in entrepreneurship. There are different motivations of entrepreneurs and these range from necessity due to lack of better work options to the need for greater independence. The GEM APS notes that apart from their individual perceptions, attitudes of society also play an important role in shaping entrepreneurial intentions and activity in societies. Looked at from this angle, attitudes are the climate for entrepreneurship in societies. For there to be meaningful entrepreneurial activity in a society, entrepreneurs need to have positive beliefs about opportunities, be willing to take risks, able to start a business and have positive perceptions of the value of doing so. Positive societal perceptions about entrepreneurship have the potential to positively influence entrepreneurial activity.

2.3.1 *Theory of Planned Behaviour*

The theory of planned/reasoned behaviour has emerged as a useful tool in understanding and analysing the perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions of students (Ekore & Okekeocha, 2011; Byabashaija & Katono, 2011; Manuare, et al., 2013). This point was forcefully emphasised by Krueger, et al. (2000) when they stated that almost all entrepreneurial activity is intentionally planned behaviour. According to the theory of planned behaviour, the individual's attitudes have a direct impact on behaviour. This impact occurs through intention. The three independent determinants of behaviour are: (1) perception of personal desirability, (2) perception of social norms, and (3) perception of feasibility. These antecedents have been proven to account for a large component of a variance in intentions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

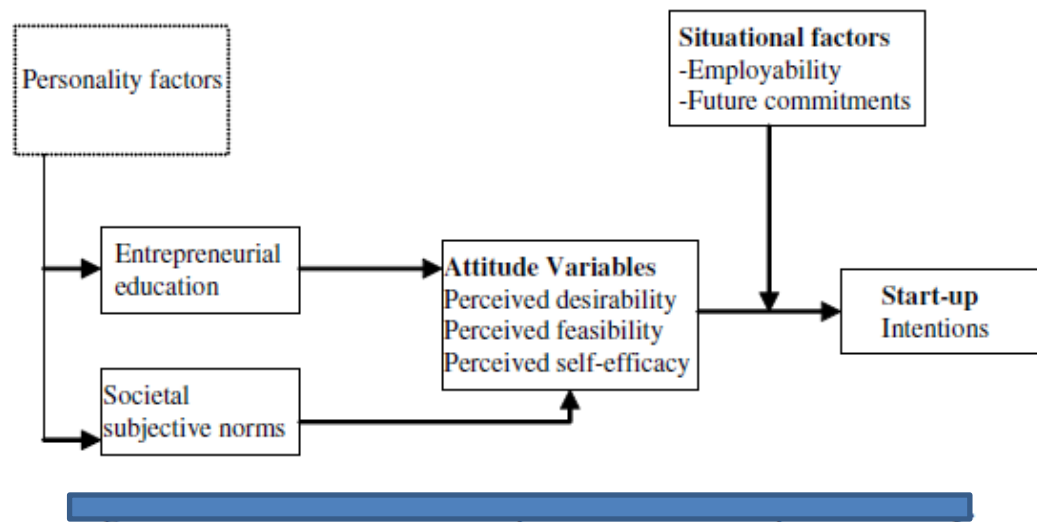


Figure 3: Conceptual Framework of independent determinants of behaviour.

Source: Byabashila & Katono, 2011

Perceived desirability refers to the degree to which an individual holds a positive or negative personal valuation about being an entrepreneur. Byabashaija and Katono (2011) define perceived desirability as the individual assessment of the intrinsic value of entrepreneurship. Perceived social norms refer to the perception that people, such as parents and friends, would approve or disapprove of the decision to become an entrepreneur. Perceived feasibility refers to the perception of how easy or difficult it is to fulfil the behaviour of interest. It is analogous to the concept of perceived self-efficacy posited by Bandura (1997) which describes an individual's belief in his/her ability to mobilise the cognitive and motivation resources and courses of action needed to exercise control over events in their life.

These three conceptual independent determinants have been adapted in the development of an instrument to measure attitudes towards entrepreneurship that has been applied in several studies (Karhunen & Ledyeva, 2010; Byabashila & Katono, 2011; Manuere, et al., 2013). To that extent, the three dimensions constitute the entrepreneurship sub-scales.

Gird and Bagraim (2008) examined the theoretical sufficiency of Theory of planned behaviour by considering four additional factors believed to influence entrepreneurial intention (personality traits, situational factors, demographics and prior experience to entrepreneurship). The study showed that prior experience of entrepreneurship, contrary to personality traits and situational and demographic factors, significantly added to the predictive power of Theory of planned behaviour in explaining entrepreneurship intentions (Gird & Bagraim, 2008: 711).

Shapero and Sokol (1982) also introduced the entrepreneurial event theory. The theory examines life path changes and their impact on individual desirability and perceptions of feasibility related to new venture formation. According to Fatoki & Chindoga (2011) the underlying assumption of the entrepreneurial event theory is that, critical life changes (displacement) precipitate a change in entrepreneurial intention and subsequent behaviour. Displacement can occur in a negative form such as job loss or a positive form such as financial support. The intention to become an entrepreneur therefore depends on the individual perceptions of desirability and feasibility in relation to that activity.

2.3.2 *Entrepreneurship Intentions*

The terms 'entrepreneurial intention' and 'entrepreneurial interest' can be used interchangeably (Karhuhen & Ledyeva, 2010). This approach builds on Rummel (1976) cited in Shanmugham & Ramya (2012) who had reasoned that intentions are living interests being manifested through behaviour. Entrepreneurial intentions have long been established as crucial for the process of entrepreneurship since they provide the impetus for entrepreneurial ideas to become manifest (Urban, 2008; Karhuhen & Ledyeva, 2010). There are several dimensions of entrepreneurial intention and a study by Karhuhen and Ledyeva (2010) on the attitudes of university students in Russia towards entrepreneurship identified these as: gender; family business background; education profile; prior entrepreneurial experience; and the theory of planned behaviour. A study about the attitudes of the youth in India by Agarwal and

Upadhyay (2009) identified family background and educational qualifications as key dimensions of entrepreneurial intentions.

The 2011 GUESS report (Sieger, Fueglistallers, & Zellweger, 2011) wherein 26 countries, including South Africa, participated founded that, worldwide, most students prefer organisational employment directly after studies. Starting and owning a venture directly after studies is the aim of less than 5% of the students. Attitude and perceptions towards entrepreneurship exert an influence on the development of an entrepreneurial culture. According to Kelley, et al. (2011) South Africa rates below all the attitudes and perceptions indicators.

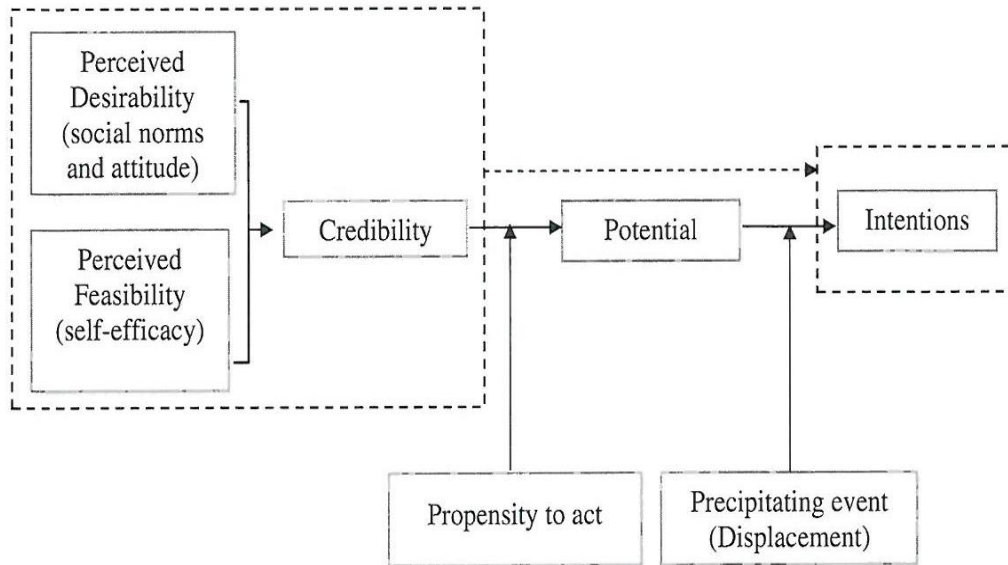
Table 3 below indicates the entrepreneurial attitudes among South Africans and also compares the results between the GEM (2009), Herrington, et al., (2009) and Kelley, et al., (2011)'s findings. It is important to note that entrepreneurial attitudes measured by GEM are not of those of students, but rather overall attitudes of South Africans towards entrepreneurship

Table 3: Entrepreneurial Attitudes among South Africans

	2009	2010
Perceived good business opportunities	35%	41%
Believe they have entrepreneurial capabilities	35%	44%
Have entrepreneurial intentions	11%	17%
See entrepreneurship as a good career choice	64%	77%
Believe successful entrepreneurs have high status	64%	78%

Source: Kelley et al., 2011

Researching the influence that attitudes have on intention for venture creation, it was reported that the intention to be an entrepreneur is stronger in the individuals with a more positive attitude towards risk and autonomy (Douglas & Shepherd, 2002). Entrepreneurial intentions are a consequence of motivation and awareness; the latter includes intellect, ability and skill (Rwigema, et al., 2008)



Elaboration based on Krueger and Brazeal (1994:95)

Fig. 2 Model of entrepreneurial potential

Figure 4: Model of entrepreneurial potential

2.3.3 Research Question 1

What are the attitudes of urban youth towards social entrepreneurial behaviour in Diepsloot?

2.3.4 Research Question 2

What is the relationship between attitude and demographic variables of youth towards social entrepreneurial behaviour in Diepsloot?

2.4 Constraints to Social Entrepreneurship

Numerous studies have explored the constraints to conventional entrepreneurship (Ekore & Okekeocha, 2011; Agarwal & Upadhyay, 2009; Ladzani & Netswera, 2005). The study by Ekore and Okekeocha (ibid) on attitudes to entrepreneurship amongst Nigerian students revealed that psychological factors were a major constraint to entrepreneurial intentions. The study notes that most students exhibited fear of failure. In a study of attitudes to entrepreneurship amongst youth in the Varanassi region of India, Agarwal and

Upadhyay (2009) noted that a major constraint to entrepreneurial intention was the negative attitude towards entrepreneurship. This was despite the existence of favourable policies and support programmes for entrepreneurship. The approach adopted in South Africa to understand entrepreneurial orientation has largely been on the business environment. This is the approach that was adopted by Ladzani and Netswera (2005) who looked at the constraints to entrepreneurship in the Limpopo Province. They note that there is lack of appropriate business support to nascent entrepreneurs and this constrains their attitude towards entrepreneurial interest and intention. The common dimensions of such business support constraints are: limited resources; inexperience to start and run one's own enterprise; poor cash management and weak marketing efforts.

Effects of socioeconomic disparities and inequalities (such as high unemployment rate among Africans in particular, uneven literacy levels, uneven income levels, uneven living standards, inequality in health and education) caused by decades of apartheid policies of social ethnicity and segregation are of the most extreme when compared to the rest of the world (Visser, 2011). Thus, it is not surprising that social enterprise organizations with high levels of social and environmental missions accompanied by strategies of earning revenue from social services activities were highly innovative and dynamic in order to take on these challenges.

There is not much literature on the constraints to social entrepreneurship and Dacin, et al., (2010) suggest that some of the known constraints to conventional entrepreneurship, especially the institutional barriers cited by Ladzani and Netswera (2005), could actually be sources of opportunity for entrepreneurial intention under social entrepreneurship. They suggest that this could be an area warranting further research in the evolving discrete discipline of social entrepreneurship. For instance, it is not known the extent to which the existence of institutional frameworks supports or constrains the innovative capability of social entrepreneurs to bring about positive social change. However, the current focus on constraints to social entrepreneurship has been on cultural barriers and resistance to change.

2.4.1 Social Entrepreneurship - South African context

A targeted search on the subject of social entrepreneurship in both rural and urban South Africa on the EBSCOHOST academic search engine yielded few search results, suggesting that this is an area which is under studied. While there are some important studies targeting problems faced by urban youth in relationship to entrepreneurship in general, (Benedict & Venter, 2010; Fatoki & Chindoga, 2011), the studies on rural youth tended to focus on such issues as HIV/AIDS (Co, 2003; Malisha, et al., 2008). The few national studies covering both rural and urban areas have not been dedicated to research on entrepreneurship but on other constructs (Porter, et al., 2012; Makiwane & Kwizera, 2009). On the other hand, there has been significant body of knowledge on both entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship particularly in the Western world (Karhunen & Ledyeva, 2010; Rantanen, & Toikko, 2013).

With the intent of exploring the prevalence and nature of social entrepreneurship, the special topic of the 2009 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) survey focused on this very concept. This was determined by assessing the percentage of respondents involved in social entrepreneurial activity (SEA) in early stage organisations and/or young firms. According to the 2009 GEM Global Report, SEA rates of participating countries ranged from 0.1 to 4.3 percent, with an average rate of 1.8 percent (Bosma & Levie, 2009 in Herrington, Kew & Kew, 2009).

These rates of SEA across factor, efficiency and innovation-driven economies were found to be similar, with a slight increase observed with economic development (Bosma & Levie, 2009 in Herrington, et al., 2009). Despite the potential likelihood of a greater quantity and variety of social and environmental needs within developing countries, the 2009 GEM Global Report attributes this observation to the opportunity costs to individuals in developing countries being greater than that of individuals in developed countries.

South Africa reported a SEA rate of 1.8 percent with a male to female ratio of 2.6:1 (Herrington, et al., 2009). This ratio is considerably higher than

comparable countries, and is of particular concern, as females, who are largely the victims of social strife and unemployment, are under-represented within this sector. A plausible reason given for South Africa's low SEA rate relates to South African societal expectations for corporations and companies to contribute towards such social and environmental needs (Herrington, et al., 2009).

Another distinct characteristic of South Africa's SEA relates to the age of individuals engaging in such activity. Individuals aged 25 to 44 years are more active, which is different from the global trend where individuals involved in SEA are typically aged 18 to 24 years (Herrington, et al., 2009).

According to Visser (2011) in South Africa much of the work acknowledged as social entrepreneurship are the outputs of Non-Governmental Organisation (NGOs) established 15 years before the rise of democracy, when the majority of the organizations were led by courageous individuals motivated to do good for disadvantaged and disenfranchised communities.

The need for context-specific empirical studies in entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship is now an established fact. There exists a research gap in existing literature on the attitude towards both entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship amongst urban youth in South Africa. For practical purposes, this study shall examine the research topic within the context of Diepsloot urban community and it is hoped that further studies can examine other contexts to take into account differences due to the spatial context.

South African context imposes inherent constraints to social entrepreneurship. For instance, Herrington, et al (2009) note that a pervasive sense of entitlement by individuals that government should take care of all of their needs, including jobs, coupled with low levels of entrepreneurial experience, inadequate education and limited access to finance, as critical components of this constrained context which need to be addressed as part of strengthening the ecosystem.

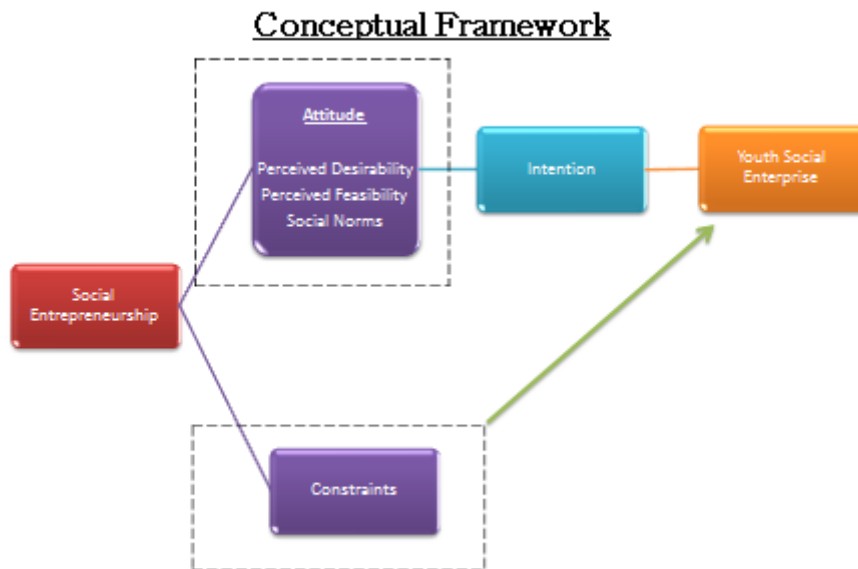


Figure 5: Hypothesised links in the attitude and constraints and Social Entrepreneurship interface

2.4.2 Research Question 3

What are the main constraints that youth of South Africa perceive as barriers to engaging in social entrepreneurship?

2.5 Conclusion of Literature Review

The literature review reveals the importance of attitudes and constraints of Social Entrepreneurship in understanding entrepreneurial intention amongst the urban youth. There are several studies which have used the attitudinal construct to explain the potential of entrepreneurial activity. While there is an established body of knowledge to explain this relationship within the established field of conventional entrepreneurship, there is an evolving body of knowledge attempting to apply the same approach within the social entrepreneurship discrete field. Not much empirical literature on the measurement of the attitudes

related to social entrepreneurial activity, particularly in South Africa, exists. Also, although there is sufficient knowledge on the constraints to conventional entrepreneurship, not much is known about the constraints to social entrepreneurship. It is important to understand these issues within a context-specific setting. Accordingly, the research questions of the study are:

Research Question 1

What are the attitudes of urban youth towards social entrepreneurial behaviour in Diepsloot?

Research Question 2:

What is the relationship between attitude and demographic variables of youth towards social entrepreneurial Behaviour in Diepsloot?

Research Question 3:

What are the main constraints that urban youth of Diepsloot perceive as barriers engaging in social entrepreneurship?

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section is a summary of the methodology adopted for the research. It begins with a review of theory on quantitative research, contextualised in the field of social entrepreneurship and proceeds to evaluate the research design and research instrument used while highlighting the key issues associated with data collection and analysis. The chapter concludes by discussing the reliability and validity issues of the study.

3.1 Research methodology

This research attempts to measure the attitudes of urban youth toward social entrepreneurship while also identifying their perceived constraints to social entrepreneurship. As a measurement study, it is informed by the quantitative research methodology. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) have justified the use of this approach by arguing that it allows a researcher to have first-hand familiarisation with the problem and allows him to generate hypotheses to test an assumption. This point was amplified by Creswell (2009) who argued that quantitative research is thus able to make post-constructivist claims on the strength of this hypothesis testing, observation and measurement, and theory testing.

Quantitative research leads to knowledge building and is largely explanatory, since it allows for establishing causal links between variables (Kalof, Dan & Dietz, 2009; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Looked at from this context, quantitative research tests causal relationships, and according to Kalof, et al., (2009) it seeks to understand variation, and identifies the prevalence and distribution of phenomena. Quantitative research contrasts with qualitative research which is largely exploratory and descriptive in nature (Saunders, et al., 2009) and adopts a constructivist approach in which emphasis is on deducing processes, meanings and experiences (Kalof, et al., 2009). Thus, while social entrepreneurship would be understood as phenomenological, it is also an appropriate emergent discipline (Dart, 2004) to explain individual behaviour on the basis of measuring their attitudes and behaviours (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000).

Moustakas (1994), cited in Creswell (2003), further alluded that phenomenological research identifies the "essence" of human experiences concerning a phenomenon, as described by participants in a study. Understanding the "lived experiences" marks phenomenology as a philosophy as well as a method, and the procedure involves studying a small number of subjects through extensive and prolonged engagement to develop patterns and relationships of meaning. In this process, the researcher "brackets" his or her own experiences in order to understand those of the participants in the study (Nieswiadomy, 1993) This point is further justified by the fact that social entrepreneurship is still largely driven by concepts and practices located in commercial entrepreneurship which leans on a post-positivist theory of quantitative research.

3.2 Research Design

The methodological approach that was adopted is cross sectional survey research. The research was conducted by way of self-completion surveys in a questionnaire format. Surveys in questionnaire format are best suited for a quantitative research. Past research has used questionnaires in measuring the variables (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Zellweger, Sieger & Halter, 2011) hence the researcher proposed to adopt the same approach.

Burke Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) cite a few advantages and disadvantages of quantitative research, as listed below:

Table 4: Difference between Quantitative and Qualitative Research

ADVANTAGES OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH	DISADVANTAGES OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can generalise a research finding when it has been replicated on many different populations and subpopulations. • Research results are relatively independent of the researcher. • Testing and validating already constructed theories about how phenomena occur 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Postulated theories that are used may not reflect respondents' understanding. • Knowledge produced may be too abstract and general for direct application to specific local situation, contexts and individuals.

The key theories underpinning the research are: constraints to social entrepreneurship, and attitudes toward social entrepreneurship.

3.3 Population and sample

3.3.1 *Population*

The population for the study consists of urban youth aged between 14 years and 35 years, Diepsloot community of South Africa. This group falls into the official definition of “youth” in South Africa.

3.3.2 *Sample and sampling method*

The population was sampled according to non-probability sampling. Data for this study was gathered from youth from Diepsloot community. For the sample, the researcher selected as many participants as was feasible since this was based on a non-probabilistic availability sample as the targeted respondents are volunteers and therefore select themselves into the sample.

Nonprobability sampling has a major strength as compared to probability sampling. According to Gobo (2004), it is a better choice for many situations like for exploratory purposes, when resources are limited, and it also needs a low skill level of personnel or field assistants. For this study, it at least provided some measurement of the attitudes towards social entrepreneurship to identify constraints by the youth constituting the sample.

Sample size for non-probability sampling is unclear, and should be dictated by the research objectives, in particular, which size will provide useful and provide credible results (Saunders, et al., 2009). Taking cognisance of this and the chosen data analysis techniques, discussed later, a sample size of 150 respondents was considered satisfactory for the research.

The study used hard copy questionnaires, which were administered to respondents at youth centres, youth forums, and schools in the Diepsloot community. The researcher employed and trained field workers to assist in distributing and administering of the questionnaires. The field workers were

then able to assist respondents to complete the questionnaires by explaining other terms in either English or African languages. They then collected the completed questionnaires.

3.4 The research instrument

The research instrument was initially tested on the basis of a pilot study. Polit. et al. (2001, p.467) has defined a pilot study as a feasibility study conducted on “small scale, or trial run in preparation for a major study”. Baker (1994, p.182) had argued that the main purpose of a pilot study is to “pre-test or try out a particular research instrument. The pilot study for this study was conducted within the context suggested by Baker, et al. (1994). Blaxter, et al. (1996) justified the use of a pilot study in research by pointing out its research risk management usefulness. Research is not risk-free and there is a danger that things may go awry in the research and a pilot study is the only sensible way to gauge and mitigate such risks. Welman and Kruger (1999) further pointed out the value of pilot studies as their ability to enable researchers to pre-test their research instrument in a practical research environment. For the purposes of this research, the pilot study was conducted to detect flaws in measurement procedures and to identify ambiguous items in the research instrument. Flaws in measurement procedures include time limits and instructions. The pilot study also enabled the researcher to operationalise independent variables.

3.4.1 *The Pilot Study*

The self-designed questionnaire was pilot-tested on a sample size of 30 youth from Diepsloot. The researcher used the same selection criteria for the pilot study as for the final intervention.

3.4.1.1 The use of the result of the pilot study

Following the pilot study, a number of flaws were detected which culminated in changes to the research instrument prior to the actual research study. The first flaw noted in the pilot study is that respondents did not grasp some of the questionnaire terms such as “Social Entrepreneurship”, “Entrepreneur”, and “Social Enterprises”. To address

this, the researcher amended the research instrument by adding definitions for these terms.

The second flaw was that the questions asked were too long and complex for youth to comprehend; this was resolved by changing all the questions and replaced them with simplified questions.

It was further noted that respondents took longer to complete the questionnaire on their own and this necessitated the hire and use of trained fieldwork assistants to assist with the completion of the questionnaire. The pilot study also revealed that the English Language used in the questionnaire was difficult for respondents and this necessitated training fieldwork assistants to translate the question items into vernacular language for the benefit of the respondents.

The Likert scale used in the research instrument for SEIS was also changed. A 5-point Likert scale was replaced with 6-point Likert scale. i.e (1=Very untrue; 2=Untrue; 3=Slightly untrue; 4=Slightly true; 5=True; 6=Very true) and for Constraint Scale a 5-point Likert scale was used i.e (5=Strongly agree and 1=strongly disagree). This was necessitated by the need to give respondents more options. In an effort to enhance visual appeal of the research instrument, the researcher also changed the layout from landscape to portrait.

The design of the research instrument was an adaptation of standard instruments used in similar research focusing on two dependent variables i.e attitudes (entrepreneurial intent) and constraints/obstacles to Social Entrepreneurship (Annexure B). The questionnaire was prefaced by a Cover Letter which explained the objective of the research as well as giving instructions on how to answer the questions. The research instrument consisted of an administrative section which contained demographic and background questions on age, qualifications, employment status and gender of the respondent. The questionnaire omitted questions relating to race, guided by research findings by Short, Moss and Lumpkin (2009) which state that social entrepreneurship as a

discipline already incorporates disparities between the different race groups of South Africa.

Measurement variables: This study utilises two dependent variables. The measurement of the Attitude variable (Y1) is based on the responses to the question: This set of questions (6-15) ask you about factors encouraging you to start a social enterprise. Attitude variable questions used the scale =1 Very untrue and 6 Very True.

The measurement of Constraints (Y2) is based on the responses to the question "Please indicate how much of the following factors discourages/constrains you from starting a social enterprise and was made up of questions (15-39). The constraints questions used Likert scale of 1=Strongly Disagree and 5= Strongly Agree.

Reliability Analysis: During data analysis, Cronbach's alpha (Wright, 1979) was computed to measure the internal consistency of the data, hence further establishing the reliability of the results. The generally accepted lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is 0.7, although this may decrease to approximately 0.6 in exploratory research (Hair, et al., 2010). Reliability is the extent to which results are consistent and yield the same results on repeated trials (Neuendorf, 2002). To ensure exploited reliability, only one and the same questionnaire was managed amongst the research sample. In adding, the Likert scale was used to structure the questionnaire in a bid to increase the consistency level of measurement and also lead to improve reliability.

Validity: In addition, looking at the validity, the higher the degree of internal validity, the more the questionnaire measured what it was supposed to. Saunders, et al. (2009) also recommends that high degrees of content validity and construct validity be achieved in questionnaire design. Content validity refers to the extent to which the questionnaire provides adequate coverage of the investigative questions. Careful delineation of the research topic was conducted through reviewing literature, which was captured in the questionnaire to maximise content validity (Wright, 1979; Saunders, et al., 2009). Construct validity refers to the extent to which the questionnaire actually measures the presence of those constructs which are intended to be measured.

3.5 Procedure for data collection

The procedure for data collection entailed the distribution of questionnaires physically by the researcher in collaboration with 4 trained fieldwork assistants at 5 selected points within the communities of Diepsloot (South Africa). Each centre point was manned by a Facilitator who was responsible for distributing and collecting questionnaires. The Facilitator was not given a financial inducement to perform this duty but agreed to donate their free time since the research findings will most likely benefit their work through improved knowledge on how to address the pervasive problems affecting youth in their community. It was mutually agreed between the researcher and Centre Facilitators that the process of distributing questionnaires to youth and collecting the completed questionnaires should be acquitted within 5 working days (Monday to Friday). To assure safety, the completed questionnaires were stored over the weekend in the safe of each centre which is ordinarily used for storing other key documents associated with the Centre work. This would allow the fieldwork assistants to collect the questionnaires on the following Monday morning when the facilitators will be available for their normal work duties. All completed questionnaires were then routed to the Researcher through trained fieldwork assistants.

The researcher was fully conversant with the research ethics guidelines i.e the questionnaire was anonymous, submissions by participants was not shared with other participants and the researcher made use of the field workers to administer the questionnaires and avoid bias.

3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

Once data had been organized and formatted and exported to Excel software it was then analysed statistically using IBM SPSS21 software. Data was analysed through descriptive statistical analysis, factor analysis (Principal component analysis), frequency distributions and Pearson chi squared test as explained in the following paragraphs:

Descriptive statistics: Descriptive statistics analysis included computing means, standard deviations and ranges of variables (Creswell, 2009). The skewness and kurtosis are also computed to indicate the spread and peakness of the unimodal distributions, and emanating from these the skew and kurtosis indices. The skew and kurtosis indices become more important to identify unimodal distributions with unacceptable non-normality characteristics (Kline, 2011).

Factor Analysis (Principal component analysis): Factor analysis was used to summarise the data i.e. to reduce the dimensionality of the data to its underlying components. (DeCoster, 1998), and due to the exploratory nature of the research, principal component analysis was specifically used.

There are two main factor analyses, i.e the common factor analysis and principal component analysis. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) principal component analysis is a multivariate statistical method used to describe variability among observed variables in terms of fewer unobserved variables called factors and could be used to verify a construct of interest. Principal component analysis has two main purposes. Firstly, it is used for data reduction and secondly, for detection of structure (underlying dimensions) in a set of variables. Leech, Barrett and Morgan (2005) point out that the decision about which factor to retain depends on the percentage of the variance accounting for the variable, the absolute variance accounted for by each factor, and whether the factor can be meaningfully interpreted. For the purpose of this study, principal component factor analysis was used to describe variability among observed variables in terms of fewer unobserved variables for the constraint measurement.

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), factor analysis therefore is a statistical method used to explain observed variability among correlated variables in terms of factors. Factors are the unobserved variables. Variability also referred to as dispersion can be measured in terms of the variance, standard deviation, range, interquartile range and quartile deviation. These items describe score cluster or scatter in a distribution. Variance is the average

of the squared deviation score from the distribution's mean, it is a measure of score dispersion about the mean (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Standard deviation summarises how far away from the average the data values typically are (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Furthermore, principal component analysis method helps to make interpretation of the information much easier.

Ideally, a confirmatory factor analysis would have been performed to confirm the theoretical factor of the questionnaire. However, the literature in chapter 2 indicates that studies on social entrepreneurship and attitude are minimal and it also shows that studies on attitude are only on conventional entrepreneurship. Therefore, due to the lack of evidential research in nascent social entrepreneurship, confirmatory factor analysis was considered premature for the objectives of this research and instead, a principal component factor analysis seemed more appropriate.

KMO and Bartlett's test: Prior to factor analysis being performed, two tests were conducted on the data to justify the correctness of the correlation matrix for factor analysis. These tests were the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy test and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, commonly referred to as the KMO and Bartlett's test, respectively (Malhotra, 1996). The KMO values of between 0.5 and 1.0 indicate that factor analysis is appropriate, whereas values below 0.5 indicate that factor analysis may be inappropriate (Malhotra, 1996). For the Bartlett's test, statistical significance of less than 0.05 in the measure indicates that sufficient correlations exist among the variables to proceed with factor analysis (Hair, et al., 2010). Also worth bearing in mind is the average inter-item correlations of the variables, which should be greater than 0.3, however the KMO and Bartlett's tests are more frequently used in practice (Hair, et al., 2010).

Scree Plot: As part of principal component analysis, a scree plot was computed. A scree plot helps the analyst visualize the relative importance of the factors. According to Hirai (2002), a scree plot is interpreted as the number of factors appropriate for a particular analysis is the number of factors before the plotted line turns sharply right.

The sample size, as mentioned earlier, was in accordance with factor analysis strategies. It is generally suggested that there be at least 5 to 10 respondents per variable (Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Malhotra, 1996). With the research instrument measuring 2 variables, and the target sample size being 150 respondents, this satisfied sample size adequacy. Moreover, with factor analysis, the more responses obtained the increased prospect of good data (Kline, 1994).

Frequency Distributions: In addition, the data was computed (Appendix D-F) in the form of frequency distribution tables, and presented in a form of figures like histograms and bar charts. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), histograms are used when it is possible to group the variable's value into interval and frequency of two categories and in this study the researcher looked at employed and unemployed. These graphs are useful for displaying all intervals in a distribution, even those without observed values and also examining the shape of the distribution for skewness, kurtosis and modal pattern. The pie charts were used to show the percentages of descriptive statistics of the sample demographics, e.g percentage of male and female, level of education and age categories of respondents in the survey.

Pearson Chi Squared Test: Lastly, a Pearson chi-squared test was computed. The test provides the strength of association between two nominal or categorical variables (Martinez-Torres, Toral, Palacios & Barrero, 2011; Prematunga, 2012). The chi-square test for independence, also called Pearson's chi-square test or the chi-square test of association, is used to discover if there is a relationship between two categorical variables or rather to convey the existence or non-existence of the relationship between the variables. For this study, Pearson chi squared was used to discover the association and see whether there is a relationship between the attitude and demographic variables.

3.7 Limitations of the study

The research work was confined to the study of attitudes, perceptions and constraints of social entrepreneurship amongst youth in South Africa.

- The study was conducted in Diepsloot in South Africa at convenient locations.
- The findings of the survey are not generalisable at the national level or international.
- The findings may remain biased in nature as per the values, ethics and competencies of the respondents.
- The research is limited by the early stage development of social entrepreneurship as an emerging phenomenon.
- The study was reliant upon the responses from youth in Diepsloot only, and although consensus might have been achieved, there were delays in completing the questionnaire/survey.
- Social desirability bias - respondents might have a tendency to answer questions in a manner that will be viewed favorably.
- Lastly, Respondents might not be honest in answering the questions, this can influence the findings. The researcher made sure that the scale used is clear and simplified to avoid confusion.

3.8 Validity and reliability

Gravetter and Forzano (2011) define validity of the research study as the degree to which the study accurately answers the question it was intended to answer. The notions of validity and reliability related to the research study are explained below.

3.8.1 External validity

External validity is intended to determine whether results of the study would hold for other places should it be generalised (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). In other words, it is the ability and extent to generalize these research findings across populations which is limited due convenience sample method utilized.

The higher the degree of external validity, the more the research findings can be generalised to many situations and groups of people. Since research in social entrepreneurship is in its infancy stage, external validity will be considered low for this research, and therefore the research results emanating cannot be generalised to the broader population. In fact, external validity in social entrepreneurship research will only improve as the construct is further delineated and developed over time within academia. However, research into commercial entrepreneurship has been conducted for several years therefore external validity can be considered high.

For this study external validity is low and the results cannot be generalised to other times, places and persons. The socio economic development and culture artefacts in Diepsloot differ from any other places and youth in Diepsloot might have a positive or a negative attitude towards social entrepreneurship as compared to youth in other places.

3.8.2 Internal validity

The terms internal validity “describe the degree to which changes in the dependent variable are indeed due to the dependent variable rather than to something else” (Welman et al, 2010, p.107).

The questionnaire for the research was designed to measure concepts and constructs using more than one item, meaning different questions were posed to test the same concept (Wright, 1979).

For data integrity, the study used series mean method. According to Field (2005) series mean method is used to replace missing values with the mean for the entire series. The data had 4 missing values which needed to be replaced.

For this study, the researcher was not examining causal links i.e weak internal validity as the study is pure descriptive. However, the validity is also largely dependent on the truthfulness of the responses, and because attitudes and constraints were measured, the assumption was that the respondents were honest and truthful in their inputs. This means that responses were not based on wishful thinking, rather actual, attitudes and constraints felt.

3.8.3 Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which results are consistent and yield the same results on repeated trials (Neuendorf, 2002). To ensure exploited reliability, only one and the same questionnaire was managed amongst the research sample. Should the same questionnaire be repeated, it is expected to replicate the manner or the same results.

CHAPTER 4. PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The previous research methodology chapter laid the foundation for the data analysis and results obtained, and these are described in this chapter. Following a description of the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the results of the research are presented in two subsections. The three research questions are restated here for ease of reference.

Research Question 1: What are the attitudes of urban youth towards social entrepreneurial behaviour in Diepsloot?

Sub-problem 1: To describe the attitudes towards social entrepreneurship of youth in the Diepsloot in South Africa

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between attitude and demographic variables of youth towards social entrepreneurial behaviour in Diepsloot?

Sub-problem 2: Describe the relationship between attitude and demographic variables of youth in Diepsloot in South Africa

Research Question 3: *What are the main constraints that urban youth of Diepsloot perceive as barriers to engaging in social entrepreneurship?*

Sub-problem 3: To identify the constraints that urban youth in Diepsloot perceive as barriers to engaging in social entrepreneurship

For all the data analysis and results obtained, a multivariate statistical computer software programme named SPSS® developed by IBM, and in conjunction with Microsoft Excel® was used. All the results created for the research can be found in Appendices D, E and F, however only the results that formed the focal point of the analysis are included in this chapter.

4.2 Sample Demographics

The sum total of 153 completed questionnaires was collected from the respondents. The number is almost equivalent to the minimum targeted threshold of 150 questionnaires for factor analysis.

As mentioned in chapter 3, the frequency distribution is used to measure central tendency. Below is then table showing frequency distribution for the sample demographic.

As the figure 6 depicts, the study consisted of 85 (56%) female and 68 (44%) male.

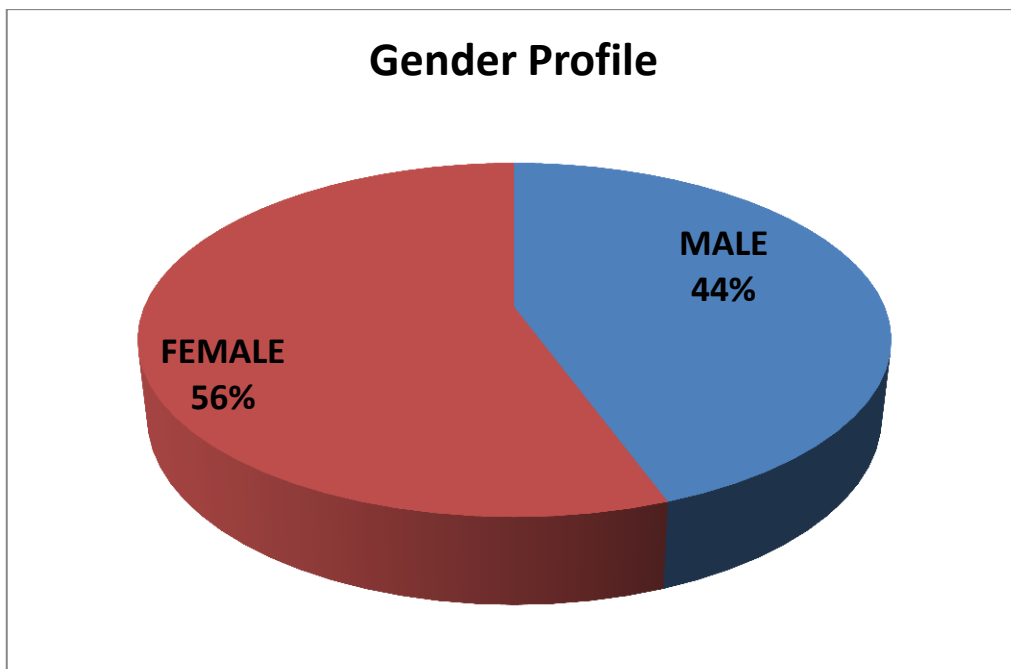


Figure 6: Gender Profile

The majority of the respondents (42%) were in the 21 to 27 years age group, followed by the less than 20 age group with (28%) and 28-35 with (27%) of the respondents, and the final age group of 36 and above had (3%) of the respondents. The figure 7 depicts the age profile of the sample.

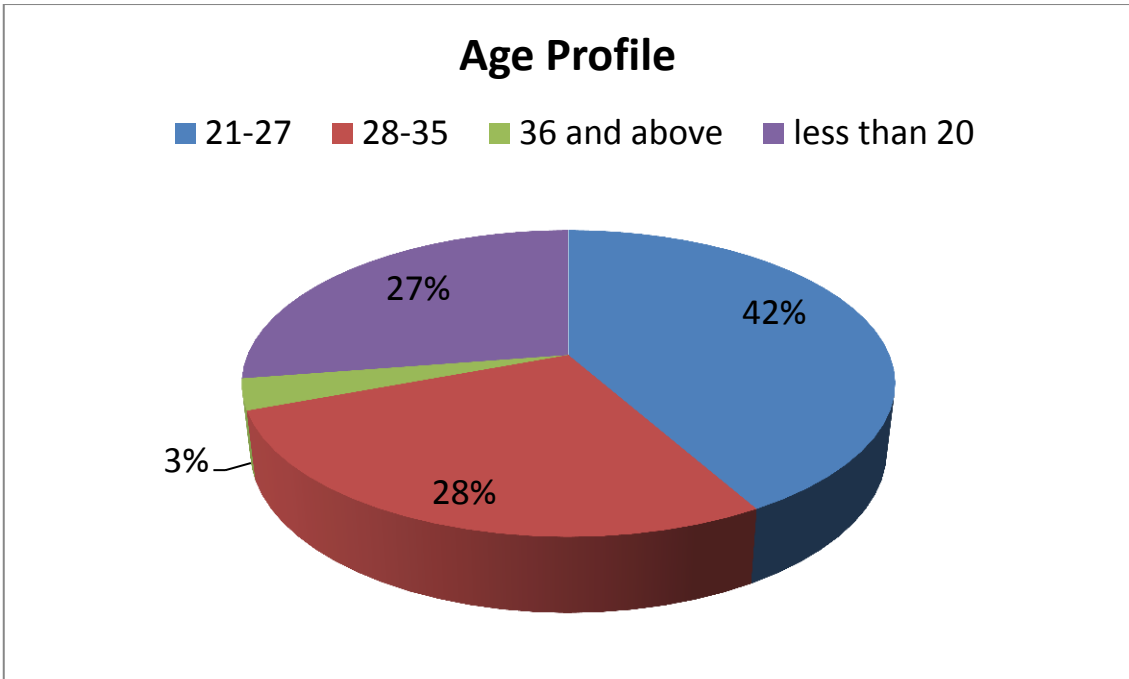


Figure 7: Age Profile

Figure 8 below depicts that the majority of the respondents had completed a high school qualification as their highest qualification, followed by those with college qualifications and followed by those with a university qualification, and last was those with no qualifications.

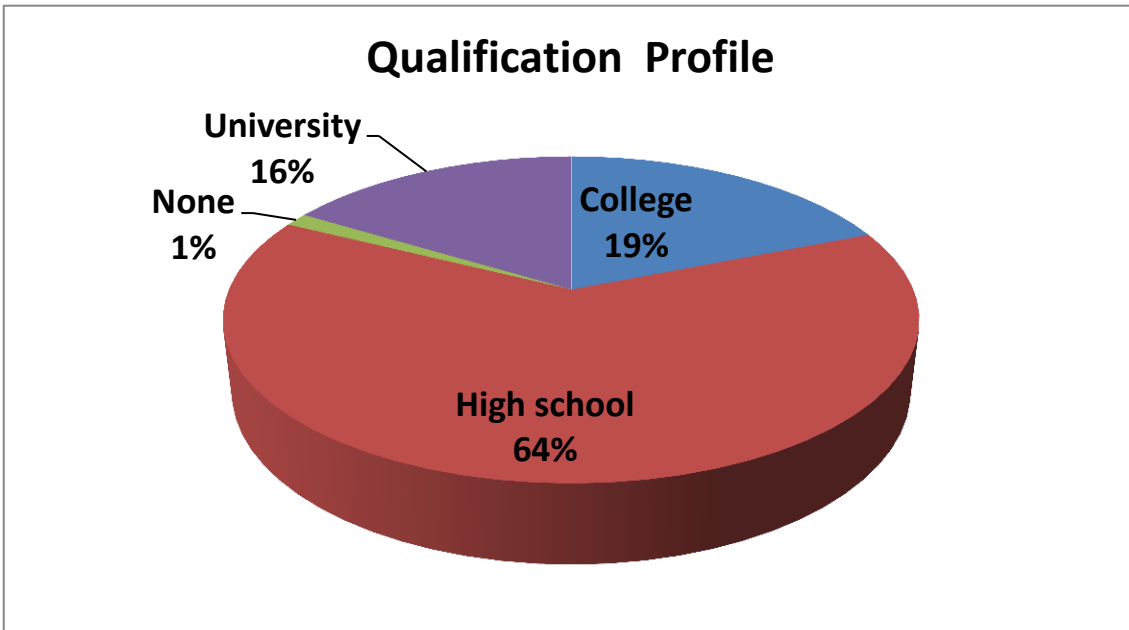


Figure 8: Qualification Profile

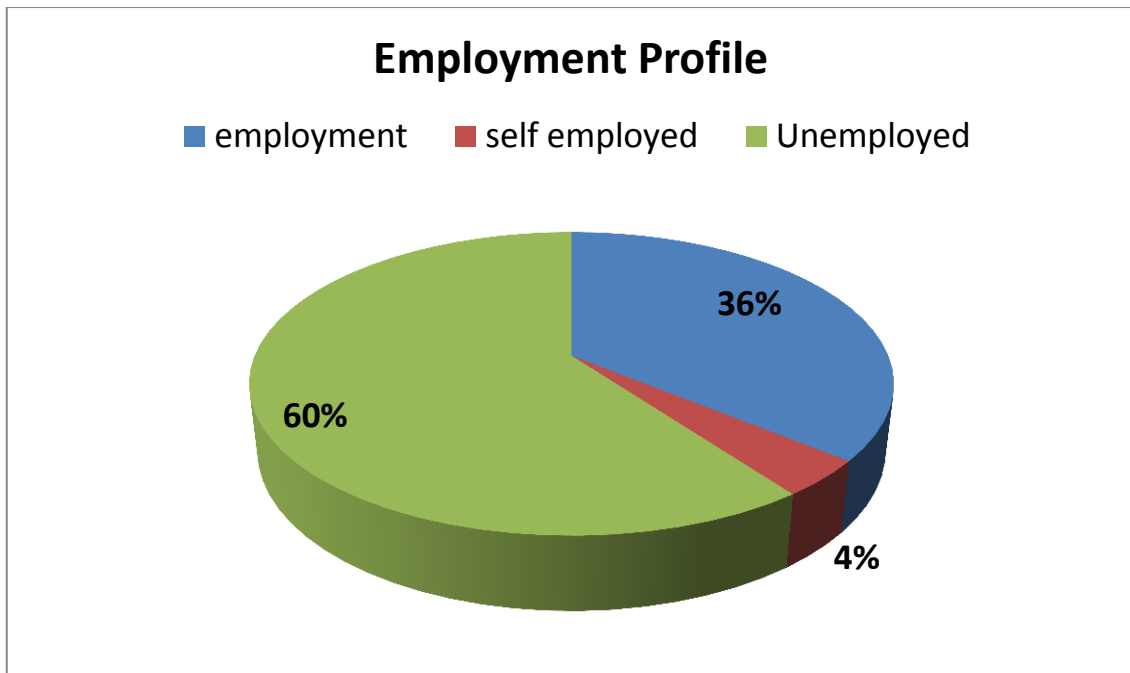


Figure 9: Employment Profile

4.3 Data Integrity

The data that was collected contained 4 missing values. The four missing values were replaced using the series mean method and therefore making all the 153 data valid.

4.4 Results pertaining to Research Question 1

Firstly, for this research question, we examined descriptive statistics to provide a summary on central tendency, variability and shape or skewness of the score distributions of the scale. Secondly, other psychometric information such as internal consistency reliability and tests of normality of score distributions are also presented.

4.4.1 *Descriptive Statistics*

The respondents in the study scored an average 3.65 on their level of social entrepreneurship intent with a standard deviation of 1.01, and skewness standard error is .20 and kurtosis error is .39. As depicted, the distributions of score are negatively skewed, taking into consideration that our minimum score is 1.0 and maximum score is 5.8.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics (SEIntent score)

Descriptive Statistics										
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SEintentscore	153	1.0	5.8	3.654	.0820	1.0139	-.344	.196	-.250	.390

The skewness and kurtosis levels are negligible relative to their standard errors and we therefore regard this distribution as normally distributed.

4.4.2 *Reliability of Scale (SEIntent)*

For this study, the 10 items scale on attitude towards social entrepreneurship showed an internal reliability of .65 based on Cronbach's alpha (see Table 5). According to the Item Total statistics showing in table 6, there was 1 item if deleted could improve the Cronbach alpha to .70. The item was deleted and the reliability tested was repeated. The results showed the reliability .70 which is acceptable for exploratory studies like this one.

Table 6: Reliability of scale first attempt (Attitude scale)

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.65	10

Appendix E “ validity result variable” shows that item labelled ‘I never search for social enterprise opportunities’ and if deleted, the reliability of our scale increases to .70.

Table 7: Reliability Scale second attempt (Attitude Scale)

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.70	9

The results show that the internal reliability of the scale has improved from .65 to .70.

4.5 Results pertaining to Research Question 2

In addressing this research question, we examined descriptive statistics to provide a summary on central tendency of attitude and demographic variables, followed by a Pearson Chi squared test. The purpose of this chi squared test was to discover the association and see if there is a relationship between the attitude and demographic variables. Lastly, the histogram was presented to group the variables' value into interval and frequency of employment profile.

4.5.1 Descriptive Statistics (Attitude and Demographic Variables)

Appendix “H” shows tables for Attitude and age, Attitude & gender, Attitude & employment and Attitude & Qualification, which are explained as follows;

Respondents who were employed had the highest level of social entrepreneurship intent (M=3.18, SD=.94), followed by the Unemployed respondents (M=3.15, SD=.70) and the unemployed people had the lowest level of intent (M=3.11).

While Respondents with no level of education had the highest level of social entrepreneurial intent (M=3.4, SD=1.29) followed by university graduates (M=3.32, SD=.98), college graduates (M=3.28, SD=.92) and high school graduates (M=3.07, SD=.70). This means that youth with no education have more positive attitudes toward social entrepreneurship than youth with high school and university qualifications.

Lastly, respondents in the age group 28-25 had the highest level of entrepreneurial intent (M=3.33, SD=.88) followed by people in the age group 36 and above (M=3.20, SD=1.12) with respondents in the less than 21-27 age group having the lowest social entrepreneurial intent (M=3.0, SD=.82).

4.5.2 Pearson Chi Squared test (attitude and Demographic variables)

As alluded to earlier, the Pearson chi squared test is to examine the strength of association or dependency between two nominal or categorical variables. This was computed to address Research question 2.

Table 9 below explains that within or among the employed and self-employed, 34% have negative attitude and 66% have positive attitude toward social entrepreneurship and within the unemployed, 27% have negative attitude while the remaining 73% have a positive attitude towards Social entrepreneurship.

In addition, and interestingly, the above output: $21/61=34\%$ which means that among the employed and self-employed 34% have a negative attitude----- However there was no statistical significance, since the p-value=0.338 is greater than 0.05 hence we fail to reject the null hypothesis which states that there is NO association between Attitude and Employment.

Table 8: Attitude and Employment

Attitude & Employment			
Employment	Negative	Positive	Total
Employment & Self employment	21	40	61
	34	66	100
	46	37	40
Unemployment	25	67	92
	27	73	100
	54	63	60
Total	46	107	153
	30	70	100
	100	100	100

Pearson $\chi^2(1) = 0.9175$ Pr = 0.338

Considering the score of 3 and below as negative attitude, and a score of 3 and above as positive attitude, the table above also explains that 30% had a negative attitude and the remaining 70% had a positive attitude toward Social entrepreneurial intent.

4.5.3 Histogram



Figure 10: Histogram

Result: The histogram displays that the unemployed have a higher social entrepreneurship intent score than the employed and the self-employed.

4.6 Results pertaining to Research Question 3

For the third research question, we examined descriptive statistics to provide a summary on central tendency, variability and shape or skewness of the score distributions of the scale for each item and lastly we performed factor analysis for the dimensional reduction of the factors.

4.6.1 Descriptive statistics (Constraints)

The descriptive statistics for constraints was computed. Please see bar chart below.

The results indicated that lack of access to finance (3.83) lack of savings to start (3.82) and weak economic environment (3.80) has the highest means while repaying school loan (3.24), future uncertainty (3.41) and I'm too young to start (2.99) had the lowest means.

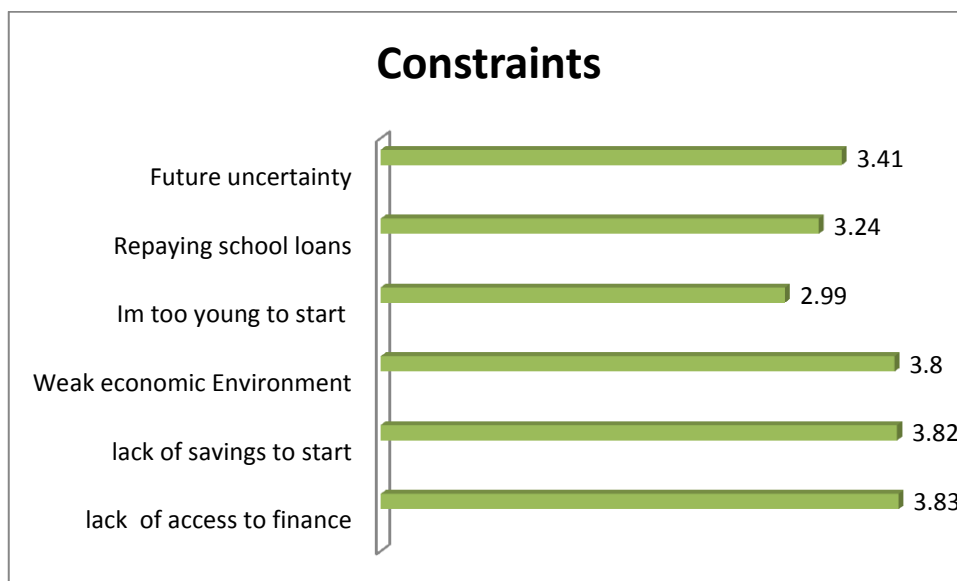


Figure 11: Constraints

The Bar chart above indicates that the lack of access to finance was a major constraint to engaging in social entrepreneurship.

4.6.2 Factor Analysis - Principal component analysis

Factor analysis for “Constraints” items, the first Principal component analysis attempt is described below

In order to investigate the factors of the questionnaire for the research, a principal component analysis was performed on all 25 items of the scale. Prior to performing the factor analysis to the scale items construct (constraints), the KMO and Bartlett’s test results were examined to check the intercorrelations of the items and thus the adequacy of the items for factor analysis, as shown below.

Table 9: Factor analysis appropriateness Statistics

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.921
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2686.107
	df	300
	Sig.	0.000

The result above in Table 9 shows that the KMO was well above 0.5 and the p-value of the Bartlett’s test was below 0.05, indicating significance, which satisfied the thresholds for factor analysis. This means that there is a strong correlation between the items.

The results of the principal component analysis with a varimax2 orthogonal rotation performed on the “constraints” scale items comprising the variables depicted in Table 10, yielded an empirically derived factor structure of the scale, and this empirical structure was then compared to the anticipated theoretical structure.

4.6.3 Factor Analysis First attempt

Table 10: Total Variance

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	12	49	49	12	49	49	7
2	1	6	55	1	6	55	4
3	1	6	61	1	6	61	6
4	1	4	65	1	4	65	7
5	1	3	69	1	3	69	7
6	1	3	72	1	3	72	5
7	1	3	75				
8	1	3	77				
9	1	3	80				
10	1	2	82				
11	1	2	85				
12	0	2	87				
13	0	2	88				
14	0	2	90				
15	0	1	91				
16	0	1	93				
17	0	1	94				
18	0	1	95				
19	0	1	96				
20	0	1	97				
21	0	1	98				
22	0	1	98				
23	0	1	99				
24	0	1	100				
25	0	0	100				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

The results explain that the first factor with an eigenvalue of 12 explain 49 % of the total variance. The first component with an above 12 eigenvalue, shows us that there are about 12 items with relatively high loadings making up component 1.

The result on the scree plot method of factor extraction yielded 12 factors with eigenvalue greater than 1 as shown in the Scree plot (Figure 12). This graphically explains the same information found in the previous table; the components' eigenvalues.

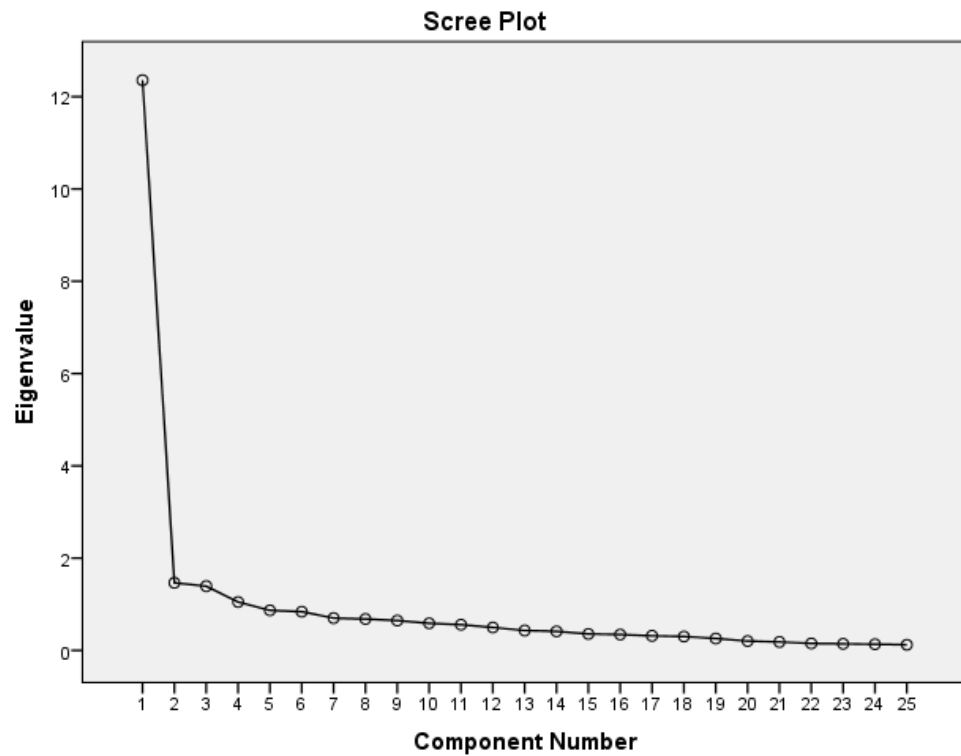


Figure 12: Scree Plot

Table 11: Component Matrix

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Lackofinformationaboutsocialepreneurship_1	.642	.008	.563	-.056	.136	-.220
Lack of skills	.693	.052	.497	-.017	.094	-.037
Lack of access to finance	.572	.103	.584	.279	-.071	.065
I can't write a business plan	.644	.345	.149	-.026	-.120	-.276
No family members did social entrepreneurship before	.735	.054	.063	-.017	-.122	-.046
Fear of crime	.612	.140	-.134	-.072	-.346	-.302
No opportunities in the community	.756	.029	.018	.165	.006	.023
Future uncertainty	.841	-.031	-.298	.124	-.040	-.037
repayingschoolloan_1	.760	.049	-.349	.261	-.118	-.040
rightpartnerdifficulty_1	.683	-.154	.198	.244	-.310	-.076
Weak economic environment	.691	-.298	-.010	.331	.180	.110
Lack of savings to start	.635	-.449	.066	.357	.134	.137
Lack of family support	.745	-.328	.091	.084	.122	.052
Lack of security or guarantee collateral	.729	-.405	-.027	.175	.004	.050
No one helping	.766	-.196	.068	.143	.006	.044
Lack of social entrepreneurship and business experience	.748	-.115	.028	.294	.012	.031
Fear of risk	.728	.030	.135	.303	.219	.003
No people encouraging me	.751	.007	.117	.279	.387	.099
nomanagementandentrepreneurialknowledge_1	.785	.003	.026	.195	.068	.025
High registration costs	.761	-.044	.041	.290	.224	.345
Don't have right contacts	.775	-.002	.079	.237	.300	.243
Don't have an idea about social entrepreneurship	.721	.228	.038	.141	-.181	-.129
Not the right time for me	.682	.352	.111	.160	.253	.096
I am too young to start a social enterprise	.515	.495	-.345	.118	.263	-.020
socialenterpriseinvolvestoomuchworkandeffort_1	.479	.495	.050	.044	.023	.594

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 6 components extracted.

Note: Factor loadings depicted in Table 11 are shown in a ten colour coding spectrum, ranging through various shades of green, yellow, orange and red. The darkest shade of green indicates one extreme of the spectrum and the most favourable loading on a particular factor, in contrast, the darkest shade of red indicates the other extreme of the spectrum and the least favourable loading on the same factor. Shades of yellow and orange indicate intermediate loadings on the factor.

4.6.4 *Principal component analysis Second Attempt*

For the new approach, Principal component analysis of the items designed to measure the dependent variable were considered separately, which constituted the second factor analysis attempt.

In the second attempt to investigate the factor structure of the items, all the items were divided into those originally intended to measure the dependent variable using the scale items of the theoretical constraint factors as distinct from the items, analysis was conducted using Principal component analysis and varimax orthogonal rotation. Once again, prior to performing the factor analyses, the KMO and Bartlett's test results were examined to check the intercorrelations of the items and thus the adequacy of the items for factor analysis, as shown in Table 10 and 11 for the six items originally intended to measure the dependent variable 'constraints'.

Table 12: Rotated Component Matrix

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
lackofsocialentrepreneurshipandbusinessexperience	.710	.265	.199	.215
High registration costs	.702	.237	.267	.218
Fear of risk	.688	.190	.339	.129
No people encouraging me	.687	.225	.331	.154
lackofsecurityorguaranteecollateral	.671	.494		.182
donthaverightcontacts	.646	.227	.276	.344
No one helping	.630	.422	.193	.193
nomanagementandentrepreneurilknowledge_1	.627	.266	.312	.305
nofamilymembersdidsocialentrepreneurshipbefore	.448	.313	.357	.348
lackofsavingstostart	.213	.780		.289
weakeconomicenvironment	.245	.722	.166	.260
lackoffamilysupport	.480	.632	.139	.173
rightpartnerdifficulty_1	.300	.622	.321	
repayingschoolloan_1	.313	.588	.572	
futureuncertainty	.474	.578	.497	
noopportunitiesinthecommunity	.337	.459	.404	.335
iamtooyoungtostartasocialenterprise	.173	.122	.773	
nottherighttimeforme	.244	.263	.667	.233
socialenterpriseinvolvestoomuchworkandeffort_1	.153		.602	.305
Don't have an idea about social entrepreneurship	.288	.310	.531	.364
I can't write a business plan	.325		.510	.429
Fear of crime	.421	.211	.424	.127
Lack of access to finance		.275	.205	.798
Lackofinformationaboutsocialentrepreneurship_1	.362	.162		.752
Lack of skills	.364	.201	.184	.724

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

The above table shows rotated component grouped, components 1-4 are visible in green.

Table 13: Grouped and renamed factors for Perceived Constraints

Factors				
	1 Support	2 Market Opportunity	3 Risk	4 Capital
Lack of social entrepreneurship and business experience	0.71			
High registration costs	0.70			
Fear of risk	0.69			
No people encouraging me	0.69			
Lack of security or guarantee collateral	0.67			
Don't have right contacts	0.65			
No one helping	0.63			
no management and entrepreneur knowledge_1	0.63			
Lack of savings to start		0.78		
Weak economic environment		0.72		
Lack of family support		0.63		
right partner difficulty_1		0.62		
repaying school loan_1		0.59	0.57	
Future uncertainty		0.58		
I am too young to start a social enterprise			0.77	
Not the right time for me			0.67	
social enterprise involves too much work and effort_1			0.60	
Don't have an idea about social entrepreneurship			0.53	
I can't write a business plan			0.51	
Lack of access to finance				0.80
Lack of information about social entrepreneurship_1				0.75
Lack of skills				0.72
Eigenvalue	4.6	3.8	3.9	2.3
Percentage of variance	66%	63%	56%	61%
Cronbach 's alpha	.92	.89	.83	.84

Conclusion to principal component analysis

In conclusion to principal component analysis which is related to factor analysis, Table 18 results indicate that Component 1 with 8 factors, labelled “***lack of support***” with eigenvalues greater than one accounts for 4.6 and accounts for 66% of the total variance. Cronbach’s alpha yielded a value of .92 indicating reliability of the factor. The factor labelled as ***lack of market opportunity***” with 6 factors with an eigenvalue of 3.8 greater than one accounts for 63% of the total variance. Cronbach’s alpha yielded a value of .89 also indicating a reliability of the factor. The third component with 6 factors labelled ***risk*** and an eigenvalue of 3.9 greater than one account 56% and Cronbach’s alpha yielded a value of .83. The component 4 labelled as ***lack of capital*** with 3 factors with an eigenvalue of 2.3 greater than one, accounts 61% of the total variance, Cronbach’s alpha yielded a value of 0.84.

4.7 Summary of the results

The preceding subsections presented a summary of the research statistical data analysis results. The descriptive statistics provided an understanding of the sample profiling, as well as their responses to the research instrument. The Pearson chi squared test provided the insight in relation to the relationship between the attitude and demographic variables while the Principal component factor analysis (dimensional reduction) has yielded insightful findings. The next chapter will interpret and discuss the above results revealed.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will demarcate the research findings that are presented in Chapter 4, the main purpose of which is to highlight these findings and to draw relevance to the literature reviewed and presented in Chapter 2. Furthermore, the research findings could provide catalyst insights into other areas of social entrepreneurship not addressed here and for interrogation into future research.

The research findings will follow the same format of Chapter 4, interpreting and discussing each research question as analysed in Chapter 4.

5.2 Demographic profile of respondents

The study concentrated on urban youth from Diepsloot, North of Johannesburg, South Africa. The study had aimed to reach 180 youth and because of non-completion and spoiled questionnaires, the number of participants ended up as 153.

The results show that there were slightly more female respondents (56%) than male (44%). About 42 per cent of the respondents were between the ages of 21 and 27 years, followed by about 28% between the ages of 28 and 35 and about 27% less than the age of 20. Guided by the South African definition of youth in terms of age, questionnaires completed by respondents who indicated that they were over the age of 35 only accounted for 1% of the respondents and in most cases, while analysing, the 1% was omitted or suppressed.

The literature mentioned that one in two young South Africans is unemployed (IMF, 2013), overall national unemployment is at 25% although there is much debate on this figure (COSATU, 2013) with a structural unemployment figure of 36% covering those 'discouraged from seeking employment' being proffered as realistic. It was very disquieting that the findings shows that 60% of

respondents were unemployed and 36% were employed and lastly 4 % were self- employed.

The findings indicated that about 64% of the respondents had a high school qualification, followed by college graduates with 19% while University graduates is 16% , and lastly 1% had no educational qualification.

5.3 Discussion pertaining to Research Question 1

The literature in chapter 2 on attitudes shows that attitude is presented as a better approach to the description of entrepreneurs than either personality characteristics or demographics of society. It plays an important role in shaping entrepreneurial intentions and activity in societies. Attitudes are the climate for social entrepreneurship in societies.

Youth need to have positive beliefs about opportunities, be willing to take risks, able to start a social business and have positive perceptions of the value of doing so. This means, positive societal perceptions about social entrepreneurship have the potential to positively influence social entrepreneurial activity.

Gird and Bagraim (2008) examined the theoretical sufficiency of theory of planned behaviour, the findings shows that the '*attitude towards entrepreneurship*' variable had the strongest effect on entrepreneurial intent, while the perceived behavioural control and subjective norm variables had weaker statistically significant effects (Gird & Bagraim, 2008: 717). Another study conducted by Byabashaija and Katono (2011) looking at the impact of college entrepreneurial education on entrepreneurial attitudes and intention to start a business in Uganda, the analyses included tests of significance of changes in the attitudes and intentions of students after the entrepreneurship course, the mediating role of attitudes and moderating role of employment expectations. The findings show small but significant changes in attitudes and a significant mediating role of attitudes — perceived feasibility, perceived desirability and self-efficacy, but non-significant moderating influence of employment expectations. .

The findings of this study showed that 70 percent of respondents indicated positive attitude towards Social entrepreneurship, taking into account both the advantage and disadvantage associated with social entrepreneurship.

Furthermore, respondents who were employed had the highest level of social entrepreneurship intent, more so than the unemployed and self-employed. Interestingly, those with no education had a higher SE intent than the college and university educated but this must be interpreted with caution, given the non-representation of the sample.

Lastly, age group 28-25 had the highest level of entrepreneurial intent, followed by people in the age group 36 and above with respondents in the less than 21-27 age group having the lowest social entrepreneurial intent.

The research specifically described the above construct against literature, especially since empirical research on social entrepreneurship is considered scant. Interestingly, given the current socio-economic context of South Africa, the above factor agree with literature's that youth have positive towards social entrepreneurship which would ultimately lead to engagement in social enterprises.

5.4 Discussion pertaining to Research Question 2

This research question investigated the relationship between attitude and demographic variables. Researchers (Díaz-García & Jiménez-Moreno, 2009) note that men tend to have higher levels of entrepreneurial intentions than women, while Chigunta (2002) finds evidence from developing countries that participation of youths varies with gender and young men are more likely to be self-employed than young women. However this study's findings showed that there is no different between male and female with regard to SE Intent.

Of interest, although the finding shows high intention to start a social enterprise it was observed that 30% per cent within or among female and male respectively had a negative attitude towards starting social enterprises.

5.5 Discussion pertaining to Research Question 3

According to the literature in Chapter 2, research studies looking at constraints, mostly on conventional entrepreneurship, show that constraints vary from psychological factors, lack of finance and lack of experience, lack of business support, limited resources, etc. This shows that not one size fits all approach would be used.

Von Broembsen et al. (2005) notes that entrepreneurship is one of the solutions to the high rate of youth “triple challenge”. However, youth entrepreneurship is very low in South Africa. Dr Herrington, the director of the UCT Centre for Innovation and Entrepreneurship, was interviewed by Business Day Live (Notten, 2012), and commented that “more concerning still, is the fact that not very many young people in SA are involved in social entrepreneurship activities. This is in contrast to what's going on in rest of the world. In the global results, people between 18 and 24 years old have a relatively higher chance of being involved in social entrepreneurship. Yet in SA, the majority of the 1,8% of people involved fall into the 25- to 40- year-old bracket”.

To this end, the South African Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) has advanced the Integrated Strategy on the Promotion of Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprises (2005). The strategy is underpinned by three strategic pillars: increasing the supply for financial and non-financial support services, creating demand for small enterprise products and services and reducing small enterprise regulatory constraints (DTI, 2005). It has gone the extra mile and has developed a draft National Youth Economic Empowerment Strategy and Implementation Framework 2009-2019. The draft framework emphasizes broad youth-related economic empowerment matters. The draft framework outlines, as part of its assignment, its aim of nurturing “human capital development with a special focus on youth entrepreneurship, business management and technical skills” (DTI, 2009, p.11). Research suggests that in South Africa, young people

regard entrepreneurship as a "stop-gap" measure while looking for formal employment (Chigunta, et al., 2005). My point is, implementing all these policies without identifying the barriers that discourage youth in engaging in Social entrepreneurship will be difficult, if not impossible, to implement.

Ekore and Okekeocha (2012) conducted a study in Nigeria on 1100 university students investigating fear of entrepreneurship and the findings confirmed core self-evaluation as influencing fear of entrepreneurship. Also, pre-entrepreneurial intention, attitude, and capacity significantly predicted fear of entrepreneurship. While a study conducted by Fakoti & Chindoga (2011) investigating the obstacles to youth entrepreneurship in South Africa, the results showed that youths perceive lack of capital, lack of skill, lack of support, lack of market opportunities and risk as the main obstacles to entrepreneurial intention.

The findings of this study indicate that youth in Diepsloot had three main constraints. Firstly, lack of access finance in starting a social enterprise. According to Pretorius and Shaw (2004, p.223) and Atieno (2009, p.33) lack of finance is one of the major constraints to the formation of new enterprises. Entrepreneurs need to access both internal and external finance to reduce the survival rate and grow. Maas and Herrington (2006) indicate that lack of financial support is the second major contributor to the low TEA rate in South Africa. Pretorius and Shaw (2004) observe that a large percentage of the failure of entrepreneurial activities in South Africa is attributed to inadequate capital structure or resource poverty.

Secondly, "lack of savings to start a social enterprise". This is also influenced by social and cultural factors. According to Aron and Muellbauer (2000), low domestic saving rates in South Africa has perpetuated a low-growth trap. The decline in government saving, a major reason for the overall decline in saving, is being reversed. However, personal saving rates have fallen since 1993.

Third constraint was "weak economic environment". This is contributed to by many factors such as a weaker rand value, high unemployment, gender inequalities. The OECD (2013, p.2) findings showed that "South Africa is advancing, but failing to fully achieve its considerable potential. Per capita

incomes are growing, public services are expanding, health indicators are improving, crime rates are falling and demographic trends are favourable. The public finances are in better shape than those of many OECD countries, the financial system is healthy and core inflation is stable and within the central bank's target zone. At the same time, an extremely high proportion of the population is out of work, as has been the case for most of the past three decades. Moreover, income inequality remains extremely high, educational outcomes are poor on average and hugely uneven, and frustration is growing with public service delivery failures and corruption. Output growth is sluggish compared to most other middle-income economies. Environmental challenges such as climate change and water scarcity threaten the sustainability of economic growth, while high current account deficits represent a point of macroeconomic vulnerability" (OECD, 2013).

Furthermore, the factors of constraints were reduced and grouped to give us a useful overall perceived constraint. The principal component analysis test was performed and indicated 4 components labelled, lack of support, risk, market opportunity and lack of capital. Interestingly, the findings indicated that the main perceived constraint for youth in Diepsloot is "lack of support". This component comprised the following factors: Lack of social entrepreneurship information, high registration costs, fear of risk, no people encouraging me, lack of security or guarantee collateral, do not have right contacts, no one helping and no management and entrepreneurship knowledge.

GEM (2009) mentioned that young people in SA have a lower social awareness than their international counterparts, it is not clear as to whether poor education or a lack of belief in their own skills is limiting the number of young people active in social organisations, and this research could yield interesting insights. With regard to support for social entrepreneurship, Dr Herrington interviewed by Business Day Live (Notten, 2012) commenting on attitudes pertaining to experts in South Africa, he said "a group of experts was asked to complete a questionnaire as part of the survey to assess the attitude to civil society organisations and government in addressing social problems in participating countries. The South African experts were highly critical of both government and civil society in tackling the overwhelming problems facing the

country (Notten, 2012). This implies that experts in this country had no faith in civic society organisations and government.

5.6 Conclusion

The results and discussion of the research attempts to offer empirical evidence of the dynamics which are revealed in the theory, and search for answers to research questions. Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour guided us to the knowledge that there is a relationship between the intention to be a social entrepreneur and the act of becoming one.

The somewhat unexpected caveat was the degree of positive attitudes present in the sample, superseded by negative attitudes. There is an evidence of positive attitudes towards social entrepreneurship among the unemployed youth but unfortunately reasons for this result were only voiced as additional information given by respondents but not asked as part of demographic characteristics. This was encouraging, considering the reports by the GEM report on low TEA and low SEA among youth in South Africa.

The theory on constraints indicated that the constraints identified by this research are gradually being recognised and receiving attention from the change makers, policy makers and researchers. Initiatives in supporting youth social enterprises in South Africa are emerging. The government has developed strategies and funding opportunities to support youth social enterprises.

Social entrepreneurship education and awareness is one of the initiatives that can be designed to enhance knowledge in this field. This sample is viewed as having the greatest potential in engaging in social entrepreneurship, given their socio-economic challenges.

CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1 Introduction

“Whenever society is stuck or has an opportunity to seize a new opportunity, it needs an entrepreneur to see the opportunity and then to turn that vision into a realistic idea and then a reality and then, indeed, the new pattern all across society. We need such entrepreneurial leadership at least as much in education and human rights as we do in communications and hotels. This is the work of social entrepreneurs.”

Bill Drayton

Founder of Ashoka: Innovators for the Public

Youth are not just future citizens of the democratic system, but they are active stakeholders in shaping democracy at a given moment. Focusing on attitudes and constraints helps us to understand important conditions for vibrant engagement with the aim of eradicating the “triple challenge” among youth. Literature has shown that the theory of planned behaviour plays an important part in explaining the role of attitudes in entrepreneurial intention or orientation and the constraints identified.

Literature has also shown that social entrepreneurship is still a badly defined paradigm and that it can provide great opportunities in dealing with socio-economic issues and also for academic enquiry. It seems to have special reverberation with South Africa as it is a developing nation and a country in transition with a relatively new democracy. In this respect, the socio-economic institutions necessary for sustainable and prosperous nation building, especially among the young population, are still in the process of being recognised.

6.2 Main findings of the research

The Three main findings of this research on attitudes towards social entrepreneurship and perceived constraints are as follows:

Youth of Diepsloot had a positive attitude towards social entrepreneurship and engaging in social enterprises.

The main constraints are (1)lack of access to finance, (2)Lack of savings to start and (3) Weak economic environment

The main limitation to social entrepreneurship is “Lack of support”

6.3 Conclusion, Challenges, Recommendations, Limitations and Suggestions for further research

Social entrepreneurship remains a relatively new and emerging phenomenon, and an under-researched domain. Youth social entrepreneurship is growing and gaining recognition. Definitional attempts of social entrepreneurship have proliferated. The results presented in this study provide an indication of the paradigm development in South Africa, and in this regard, can be seen as unique, especially for the young population.

Literature existing on social entrepreneurship is by and large theoretical in nature. The domain still needs substantial empirical enquiry and this is probably the greatest and most immediate challenge. Moreover, social entrepreneurship is not exempt from criticism and cynicism (Urban, 2008; Zahra *et al*, 2009), especially related to the scholarly and paradoxical principles associated with using private entrepreneurial means in pursuing social justice ends. This major challenge is expected since minimal empirical data exists, and the difficulty in measuring social entrepreneurial outcomes, namely, the triple bottom line (financial, social and environmental) still remains, both on a physical and psychological level (Austin *et al*, 2006; Zahra *et al*, 2009). Entrepreneurship is also a difficult subject to research since it involves psychological traits which are inherently complex to ascertain and measure (Baum, Frese & Baron, 2007).

Social entrepreneurship remains a broad and multifaceted domain, covering disciplines in politics, economics, sociology and psychology. In light of this, Johnson (2000) notes that social entrepreneurship lacks institutional mechanisms to support its work. Therefore the only manner in which to gain a deeper understanding is through further research.

While theoretical and empirical research into commercial entrepreneurship seems prevalent, similarly theoretical research into social entrepreneurship, the empirical research undertaken in this study provides some degree of support in growing the body of knowledge in social entrepreneurship. Moreover, its pedagogic value could further galvanise academic enquiry (Teise, 2012).

Teise (2012) notes that the newness of the social entrepreneurship concept does not necessarily have to act as a deterrent to its advancement; instead it can stimulate interest within society. Urban (2008) alluded that sharing of information by academia to major societal stakeholders such as government, business, community institutions and civic leaders can provide valuable impetus in the advancement of social entrepreneurship. This intervention has particular relevance to South Africa, where social entrepreneurship education, training and capacity building can assist in meeting the needs of society where previous government attempts in social redress have failed (Urban, 2008).

This study recommends an African-chapter on Social entrepreneurship. Current models and strategies are portraying social entrepreneurship as a new concept, which it is not. For example, Social entrepreneurship, in South African context, can be a combination of “Ubuntu”, empathy and leaving a legacy for stakeholders and not shareholders. Secondly, educational institutions may gradually introduce Change-making campuses. This will enhance the role modelling and championing in the field. Lastly, a roadmap to Youth Social entrepreneurship is crucial. Youth should not be measured with the same instrument as Adults. They have a different DNA, hence it is important to have programmes tailored specifically for Youth Social entrepreneurship.

The study was mainly based on the perceived constraints of youth. A limitation may arise in that possible differences may exist between “perceived” and “reality”

Another limitation of this study might be that, respondents, because of their socio economic challenges, may not be able to express themselves freely and confidently because of English language difficulties. Some terms might be difficult to comprehend especially for those with no educational qualifications.

Further studies could be conducted to investigate the attitudes and constraints of women towards social entrepreneurship i.e Women who have already started small informal NGO's, social enterprises and also engaged in philanthropy.

More studies could also be conducted to investigate youth's understanding of social entrepreneurship.

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APPENDIX A: Research instrument Pilot format

Demographics and Background

1. Male Female
2. Age (years):
14-20 21-27 28-35
3. Qualifications:
Primary School High School College University
4. Employed Unemployed

Instructions and information

Please provide the answer that comes to mind first
Please provide truthful and honest answers
Please answer using one of the following statements
1 = Strongly Disagree,
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither agree nor disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

Attitude and Social Entrepreneurship

1 2 3 4 5

6. I know what social entrepreneurship is	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I am aware of Social Enterprises operations that exists	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. I believe job creation can be used as a start for social and moral upliftment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Social Entrepreneurs must be appreciated because they contribute towards solving social problems/ ills in the society	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Social entrepreneurs provides goods or services on a not-for-personal-profit basis but are financially self-sustaining	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Social Entrepreneurial activities provide society with more benefits than disadvantages	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Social Projects are the future form of employment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. The government must support young, beginning social enterprises	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The government provides too much support for social entrepreneurs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Social Entrepreneurship is for people who want to make a change in the society	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Social Entrepreneurs take too much risks	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Social Entrepreneurs get rich on other people's work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. People who cannot adapt to conventional jobs end up as Social entrepreneurs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. Social Entrepreneurs cares enough about environmental issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Social Entrepreneurs are honest and do not pursue their own self-interest	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Social enterprises create new jobs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Social enterprises are good employers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Social enterprises do not provide enough opportunities for honest professionals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Social entrepreneurs are at the mercy of their donor or funders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. General negative opinion on social entrepreneurship	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. If I had the opportunity and funds, I'd like to start a social enterprise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Instructions and Information

To what degree do the following factors discourage/constraints you from becoming a Social entrepreneur? Use the following five-point scale

1= Absolutely not

2 = Not much,

3 = Don't know,

4= somewhat strongly

5 =very strongly

Constraints

	1	2	3	4	5
27. Insecure income	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Fear of debt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Social Entrepreneurship is extremely necessary and time-consuming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Fear of losing one's property	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. My current life situation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Does not suit my character	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Unreasonably irregular working hours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Society does not support social enterprises	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Social entrepreneurs are at the mercy of their donor or funders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. General negative opinion on social entrepreneurship	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. Procedure to registering the social enterprise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. Lack of own financial resources	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. Frequently Changing or unclear legislations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Constraints

	1	2	3	4	5
40. Corruption	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. Crime	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. Local infrastructure (e.g availability of business premises	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. South African Taxation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Variables in shaded portion will not be disclosed to respondents.

**Questions will be posed in no particular order (i.e mixed) to
maximise consistency of responses**

APPENDIX B: Actual Research Instrument

QUESTIONNAIRE

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AMONG YOUTH

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age (years): Less than 20 21-27 28-35 36 and above
3. Level of Education: High School College University NONE
4. Employment: Employed Unemployed Self Employed

Definition of terms

Social entrepreneurship is the process of following suitable solutions to social problems by social entrepreneurs.

Social entrepreneurs are individuals with new solutions to society's most pressing social problems. They attempt to tackle major social issues and offer new ideas for wide-scale change.

Social enterprise: This can be NGO, Charity or for profit organisation with a mission to eradicate social problems.

Please answer using one of the following statements;

1= Very Untrue, 2 =Untrue, 3= Slightly Untrue 4=Slightly True, 5= True 6= Very True

This set of questions (1-15) ask you about the your intention to start a social enterprise

	Very untrue	Untrue	Slightly untrue	Slightly true	True	Very true
6. I intend to set up a social enterprise in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I plan my future carefully	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I read social entrepreneurship news	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I never search for social enterprise opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I read financial planning books	1	2	3	4	5	6

11. I am saving money to start a social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I do not read books on how to set up a social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I plan my finances carefully	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I have no plans to start my "own" social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I spend time learning about starting social enterprises	1	2	3	4	5	6

This set of questions (16-40) are asking you about challenges that discourages/constrains you from a starting a social enterprise

	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
16. Lack of information about social entrepreneurship	1	2	3	4	5
17. Lack of skills	1	2	3	4	5
18. Lack of access to finance and bank finance	1	2	3	4	5
19. I can't write a business plan	1	2	3	4	5
20. No family members did social entrepreneurship before	1	2	3	4	5
21. Fear of crime	1	2	3	4	5
22. No opportunities in the community to start social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5
23. Future uncertainty	1	2	3	4	5
24. Repaying school loan	1	2	3	4	5
25. Right partner difficulty	1	2	3	4	5
26. Weak economic environment	1	2	3	4	5
27. Lack of savings to start a social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5
28. Lack of family and friends support	1	2	3	4	5
29. Lack of security or guarantee/collateral	1	2	3	4	5
30. No one helping	1	2	3	4	5

31. Lack of social entrepreneurship and business experience	1	2	3	4	5
32. Fear of risk	1	2	3	4	5
33. No people encouraging me to start a social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5
34. No management and entrepreneurial knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
35. High registration costs for social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5
36. Don't have the right contacts	1	2	3	4	5
37. Don't have an idea about social entrepreneurship	1	2	3	4	5
38. Not the right time for me , want to do other things first	1	2	3	4	5
39. I am too young to start a social enterprise	1	2	3	4	5
40. Social enterprise Involves too much work and effort	1	2	3	4	5

This is the end of the survey, thank you for participating!

APPENDIX “C” CONSISTENCY MATRIX

Social Entrepreneurship among Youth in Diepsloot					
Sub-problem	Literature Review	Hypotheses or Propositions or Research questions	Source of data	Type of data	Analysis
1. To describe the attitudes towards social entrepreneurship of urban youth in the Diepsloot in South Africa	1. Byabashaija & Katono, (2011) 2. Karhuhen and Ledyeva, (2010) 3. 4. Gnyawali and Fogel, 1994 5. Field, A (2009)	Research Question 1 What are the attitudes of urban youth towards social entrepreneurial behaviour in Diepsloot?	Structured questionnaire survey See Appendix A2,	Ordinal / Interval	Frequency validity Descriptive statistical analysis
2 To describe the relationship between attitude and demographic variables	1. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)	Research Question 2 What is the relationship between attitude and Demographic variables	Structured questionnaire survey See Appendix A2,	Ordinal / Interv	Frequency Pearson Chi Squared test
2. To identify the constraints that urban youth in Diepsloot perceive as barriers to engaging in social entrepreneurship	2. Ekore & Okekeocha, 2011; 3. Agarwal Upadhyay, 2009; 4. Ladzani and Netswera, 2005	Research Question 3 What are the main constraints that urban youth of Diepsloot perceive as barriers to engaging in social entrepreneurship?	Structured survey questionnaire Appendix A 2,	Ordinal/ Interval	KMO and Bartlett's Test Principal component analysis (Factor Analysis) Descriptive statistical analysis

APPENDIX “D” Questionnaire Cover letter

The Graduate School of Business Administration



2 St David's Place, Parktown,
Johannesburg, 2193, South Africa
PO Box 98, WITS, 2050

Dear Participant

I am busy completing my Master's degree in Entrepreneurship at the Graduate School of Business Administration, Wits Business School at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg (Wits). One of the requirements for the award of the degree is the completion of a research report.

My research topic is:

“Social Entrepreneurship among Diepsloot Youth”

Would you please be so kind as to spare 5-7 minutes of your valuable time to answer the attached questionnaire on the above topic? This questionnaire comprises of 39 questions. This would form part of the data collection for the research.

The research questionnaire is anonymous.

The aim of this questionnaire is to test young people's feelings about starting and running social enterprises.

Please feel free to contact me if you wish to receive the outcome of this research.

Your assistance is highly appreciated and thank you in advance for sharing your opinion.

Yours sincerely,

Lindy Mataboge: Person No:534211 Mobile: 073 344 0732

APPENDIX “E” Demographics Statistics Frequency Distribution Tables

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	68	44.4	44.4	44.4
	Male	85	55.6	55.6	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	21-27	64	41.8	41.8	41.8
	28-35	42	27.5	27.5	69.3
	36 and above	5	3.3	3.3	72.5
	less than 20	42	27.5	27.5	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

Qualifications

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	College	29	19.0	19.0	19.0
	High school	97	63.4	63.4	82.4
	None	2	1.3	1.3	83.7
	University	25	16.3	16.3	100.0
	Total	153	100.0	100.0	

Employment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Employed	55	35.9	35.9	35.9
	self-employed	6	3.9	3.9	39.9
	Unemployed	92	60.1	60.1	100.0
Total		153	100.0	100.0	

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Iintendtosetupasocialenterpriseinthefuture	35.50	38.791	.532	.495	.580
Iplanmyfuturecarefully	34.57	48.800	.166	.229	.654
Ireadsocialentrepreneurshipnews	35.75	39.560	.518	.402	.585
Ineversearchforsocialenterpriseopportunities	35.83	49.853	-.017	.057	.695
Ireadfinancialplanningbooks	35.87	42.285	.375	.253	.618
Iamsavingmoney	36.78	41.740	.374	.245	.617
Idonotreadbookson	35.94	45.766	.173	.143	.660
Iplanmyfinancescarefully	34.92	48.902	.082	.109	.669
Ihavenoplansatostartmyown	35.72	40.756	.419	.406	.607
Ispendtimelearningaboutstarting	36.12	38.386	.535	.404	.578

Validity result variables

Result Variables						
	Result Variable	N of Replaced Missing Values	Case Number of Non-Missing Values		N of Valid Cases	Creating Function
			First	Last		
1	Lackofinformationab outsocialentreprene urship_1	1	1	153	153	SMEAN(Lackofinformatio naboutsocialentrepreneur ship)
2	repayingschoolloan _1	1	1	153	153	SMEAN(repayingschoollo an)
3	rightpartnerdifficulty _1	1	1	153	153	SMEAN(rightpartnerdifficu lty)
4	nomanagementand entrepreneurilknowl edge_1	1	1	153	153	SMEAN(nomanagementa ndentrepreneurilknowledg e)
5	socialenterpriseinvol vestoomuchworkan deffort_1	1	1	153	153	SMEAN(socialenterprisein volvestoomuchworkandeff ort)

APPENDIX “F” Descriptive Statistics Tables

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Iintendto setupasocialenterpriseinthefuture	153	4.16	.127	1.575	-.776	.196
Iplanmyfuturecarefully	153	5.10	.073	.901	-1.942	.196
Ireadsocialentrepreneurshipnews	153	3.92	.122	1.511	-.538	.196
Ireadfinancialplanningbooks	153	3.80	.120	1.480	-.299	.196
Iamsavingmoney	153	2.89	.126	1.558	.504	.196
Idonotreadbookson	153	3.73	.124	1.531	-.173	.196
Iplanmyfinancescarefully	153	4.75	.097	1.195	-1.182	.196
Ihavenoplansatostartmyown	153	3.95	.128	1.580	-.511	.196
Ispendtimelearningaboutstarting	153	3.54	.130	1.614	-.111	.196
Valid N (listwise)	153					

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
SEintentscore	153	3.654	.0820	1.0139	-.344	.196
Valid N (listwise)	153					

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
Lackofinformationaboutsocialepreneurship_1	3.71	1.024	153
lackofskills	3.45	1.235	153
lackofaccessstofinance	3.83	1.044	153
icantwriteabusinessplan	3.45	1.235	153
nofamilymembersdidsocialepreneurshipbefore	3.50	1.283	153
fearofcrime	3.73	1.171	153
noopportunitiesinthecommunity	3.45	1.292	153
futureuncertainty	3.41	1.300	153
repayingschoolloan_1	3.24	1.39	153
rightpartnerdifficulty_1	3.72	1.15	153
weakeconomicenvironment	3.80	1.126	153
lackofsavingstostart	3.82	1.155	153
lackoffamilysupport	3.54	1.288	153
lackofsecurityorguaranteecollateral	3.75	1.167	153
noonehelping	3.58	1.316	153
lackofsocialepreneurshipandbusinessexperience	3.82	1.183	153
fearofrisk	3.70	1.283	153
nopeopleencouragingme	3.64	1.255	153
nomanagementandentrepreneurilknowledge_1	3.61	1.27	153
highregistrationcosts	3.77	1.115	153
donthaverightcontacts	3.69	1.155	153
donthaveanideaaboutsocialepreneurship	3.73	1.187	153
nottherighttimeforme	3.58	1.291	153
iamtooyoungtostartasocialenterprise	2.99	1.403	153
socialenterpriseinvolveestoomuchworkandeffort_1	3.68	1.22	153

APPENDIX “G” Factors analysis

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Lackofinformationaboutsocialepreneurship_1	1.000	.799
lackofskills	1.000	.740
lackfaccessstofinance	1.000	.766
icantwriteabusinesplan	1.000	.647
nofamilymembersdidsocialentprenuershipbefore	1.000	.565
fearofcrime	1.000	.629
noopportunitiesinthecommunity	1.000	.600
futureuncertainty	1.000	.815
repayingschoolloan_1	1.000	.786
rightpartnerdifficulty_1	1.000	.691
weakeconomicenvironment	1.000	.721
lackofsavingstostart	1.000	.774
lackoffamilysupport	1.000	.696
lackofsecurityorguaranteecollateral	1.000	.730
noonehelping	1.000	.652
lackofsocialentprenuershipandbusinessexperience	1.000	.661
fearofrisk	1.000	.690
nopeopleencourangingme	1.000	.815
nomanagementandentprenuerilknowledge_1	1.000	.660
highregistrationcosts	1.000	.836
donthaverightcontacts	1.000	.813
donthaveanideaaboutsocialepreneurship	1.000	.643
nottherighttimeforme	1.000	.700
lamtooyoungtostartasocialenterprise	1.000	.713

socialenterpriseinvolestoomuchworkandeffort_1	1.000	.832
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Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix^a

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
futureuncertainty	.841	-.031	-.298	.124	-.040	-.037
nomangementandentreprenuerilknowledge_1	.785	.003	.026	.195	.068	.025
donthaverightcontacts	.775	-.002	.079	.237	.300	.243
noonehelping	.766	-.196	-.068	.143	.006	-.044
highregistrationcosts	.761	-.044	.041	.290	.224	.345
repayingschoolloan_1	.760	.049	-.349	.261	-.118	-.040
noopportunitiesinthecommunity	.756	.029	.018	.165	.006	.023
nopeopleencourangingme	.751	.007	-.117	.279	.387	.099
lackofsocialentreprenuershipandbusinessexperience	.748	-.115	-.028	.294	.012	-.031
lackoffamilysupport	.745	-.328	.091	.084	.122	.052
nofamilymembersdidsocialentreprenuershipbefore	.735	.054	.063	-.017	-.122	.046
lackofsecurityorguaranteecollateral	.729	-.405	-.027	.175	-.004	.050
fearofrisk	.728	.030	-.135	.303	.219	.003
donthaveanideaaboutsocialetprenuership	.721	.228	.038	.141	-.181	.129
lackofskills	.693	.052	.497	-.017	.094	.037
weakeconomicenvironment	.691	-.298	.010	.331	.180	.110
rightpartnerdifficulty_1	.683	.154	.198	.244	.310	.076
nottherighttimeforme	.682	.352	.111	.160	.253	.096
icantwriteabusinessplan	.644	.345	.149	-.026	-.120	.276
Lackofinformationaboutsocialetpreneurship_1	.642	.008	.563	.056	.136	.220
lackofsavingstostart	.635	-.449	.066	.357	.134	.137
fearofcrime	.612	.140	-.134	.072	.346	.302
iamtooyoungtostartasocialenterprise	.515	.495	-.345	.118	.263	-.020
lackfaccessstofinance	.572	.103	.584	.279	-.071	.065
socialenterpriseinvolestoomuchworkandeffort_1	.479	.495	.050	.044	.023	.594

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 6 components extracted.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	.549	.446	.435	.389	.331	.224
2	-.275	-.600	.151	.174	.623	.352
3	-.117	-.116	-.256	.872	-.379	.062
4	-.756	.600	.106	.103	.211	-.038
5	.193	.158	-.759	.077	.542	-.250
6	.000	.208	-.368	-.206	-.146	.871

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	.619	.501	.463	.390
2	-	-	.782	.137
3	-	-	-	.903
4	.134	.213	.349	-
	.745	.615	.227	.122

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.357	49.429	49.429	12.357	49.429	49.429	5.407	21.627	21.627
2	1.466	5.863	55.291	1.466	5.863	55.291	4.034	16.136	37.763
3	1.394	5.574	60.866	1.394	5.574	60.866	3.772	15.087	52.850
4	1.049	4.198	65.063	1.049	4.198	65.063	3.053	12.213	65.063
5	.868	3.474	68.537						
6	.839	3.356	71.893						
7	.701	2.803	74.695						
8	.681	2.725	77.420						
9	.646	2.585	80.006						
10	.588	2.351	82.357						
11	.557	2.229	84.586						
12	.498	1.990	86.576						
13	.431	1.723	88.299						
14	.413	1.651	89.950						
15	.356	1.424	91.374						
16	.345	1.381	92.755						
17	.315	1.262	94.017						
18	.303	1.210	95.227						
19	.258	1.032	96.259						
20	.203	.810	97.070						
21	.184	.736	97.805						
22	.151	.604	98.410						
23	.142	.568	98.978						
24	.133	.533	99.511						
25	.122	.489	100.000						

APPENDIX “H” Attitude Statistics Tables

SEintent * Employment

SEintent

Employment	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Employed	3.2	55.0	0.9
self-employed	3.1	6.0	0.9
Unemployed	3.2	92.0	0.7
Total	3.2	153.0	0.8

SEintent * Qualification

SEintent

Qualification	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
College	3.3	29.0	0.9
High school	3.1	97.0	0.7
None	3.4	2.0	1.3
University	3.3	25.0	1.0

SEintent * Age

SEintent

Age	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
21-27	3.07	64	0.8
28-35	3.33	42	0.9
36 and above	3.20	5	1.1
less than 20	3.13	42	0.6

SEintent * Gender

SEintent

Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Female	3.1	68.0	0.8
Male	3.2	85.0	0.8

Attitude & Qualification

Level of education	Negative	Positive	Total
College	10	19	29
	34.48	65.52	100
	21.74	17.76	18.95
High School	29	68	97
	29.9	70.1	100
	63.04	63.55	63.4
None	1	1	2
	50	50	100
	2.17	0.93	1.31
University	6	19	25
	24	76	100
	13.04	17.76	16.34
Total	46	107	153

Attitude & Age

Age categories	Negative	Positive	Total
21-27	20	44	64
	31.25	68.75	100
	45.45	42.31	43.24
28-35	13	29	42
	30.95	69.05	100
	29.55	27.88	28.38
less than 20	11	31	42
	26.19	73.81	100
	25	29.81	28.38
Total	44	104	148
	29.73	70.27	100
	100	100	100

Attitude & Gender

Gender	Negative	Positive	Total
Female	20	48	68
	29.41	70.59	100
	43.48	44.86	44.44
Male	26	59	85
	30.59	69.41	100
	56.52	55.14	55.56
Total	46	107	153
	30.07	69.93	100
	100	100	100

Pearson chi2(1) = 0.0249 Pr = 0.875