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Influence of cross cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence to entrepreneurial mindset of international students in Johannesburg

Zothile Mabusela

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 of Management specialising in Entrepreneurship and New Venture Creation

Johannesburg, 2016

ABSTRACT

An entrepreneurial mindset has been found to be a key antecedent in the opportunity recognition process and has even been attributed to the massive turnaround of the economic fortune of some developed countries, such as Sweden. Evidence has suggested that entrepreneurially minded individuals recognise and execute opportunity, even in uncertain situations because their advanced cognitive abilities permitted them to derive meaning in complex situations. Foreign students represent a large contingent of international sojourners, faced with a multitude of uncertainties during their stay in the host country. These students are also at the centre of a knowledge transfer system embedded in focal points capable of producing novel ideas. The researcher argued that no better people are best positioned to exploit cross cultural intelligence and the cultural adjustment experience for the development of an entrepreneurial mindset. The study also explored the influence of intangibles or contextual factors in moderating the relationship cultural adjustment and intelligence respectively with entrepreneurial mindset.

For the purposes of this report, a quantitative study was undertaken with the aim of quantifying the influence of these constructs on entrepreneurial mindset. Positive correlations have been established between cultural intelligence (cognitive), cross cultural adjustment (social support) to entrepreneurial mindset. The following intangibles (Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas, Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurs, and Need for Executive Leadership) have also been found to moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset. No intangibles moderated the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset. Implications for practice and direction for future research are provided.

DECLARATION

I, Zothile Fikiswa Mabusela, 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 Management in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Zothile Mabusela

Signed at ……Johannesburg……on the 31st day of March 2016

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First and foremost may I give praise to the Lord God Almighty to whom I owe the capability to be accepted to this programme; sanity and strength to complete this research project.

I would like to thank my parents, in particular my mother, Thembisile Mkoko (to whom I singularly dedicate this project), my twin sister Zotheni and brother Teboho for your love, support and encouragement in all endeavours I pursue.

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1 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focused on topical developments in international student mobility in the tertiary education sector. The Global Education Digest (2006) produced by UNESCO defined international student mobility as the departure of individuals from their country, territory or region for the purposes of studying in another country. It is understood that a discussion on international student mobility is a prerequisite, as it sets the stage for further considerations on the linkages between international students and entrepreneurship, cross cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence and especially how it relates to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset.

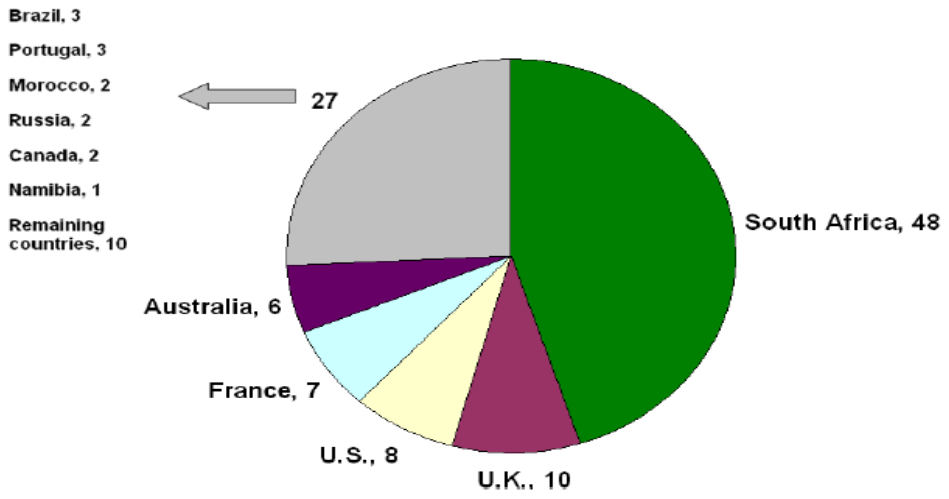
1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to empirically scrutinise how a combination of cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence, as constructs, have an effect on the entrepreneurial mindset of international students in Johannesburg. The study will also determine how the environmental factors in Johannesburg, herein referred to as the seven intangibles of Schumpeterian entrepreneurship, moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence on entrepreneurial mindset.

1.3 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

South Africa has enjoyed considerable volumes and greater diversity of human traffic since independence in 1994 (Crush & Macdonald, 2000). In fact, South Africa is a prime destination to pursue post graduate education in particular, for international students (Donald & Gatsinzi, 2005). MacGregor (2007) insisted that South Africa is Africa's number one academic choice for tertiary education and is ranked 11th globally among host countries. As a result, South Africa had to establish the International

Educational Association of South Africa (IEASA) as a mechanism to deal with the unparalleled levels of international interest from students, especially from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, in furthering higher education interests in the country.



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics database.

Figure 1 Percentage distribution of SADC student mobility by destination (UIS 2012)

Moreover, the country boasts of one of the most wide ranging and comprehensive higher education systems regionally (UIS, 2012). Steiner-Khamsi (2004) argued that an international perspective in education is requisite in the globalised world. Sehoole (2006) reinforced this when he reasoned that South Africa's success may be attributed to the country's desire to be a 'model' to be emulated by other countries in transition out of conflict situations.

To further highlight the genesis of contextual relevance in the selection of this topic, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), South Africa 2013 report has categorised South Africa as an 'efficient' economy. This refers to an economy driven by productivity and economic competitiveness. The same report revealed that in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA), South Africa showed highest levels in innovative orientation with high levels for novel products at 70% and a wide scope for unique markets at 50%. Table 1 indicated that between the years 2005-2013, businesses offering new and innovative products

grew from 15.9% to 39.5% (Herrington & Kew, 2013). It would be interesting to see whether international students would recognise these rich conditions as opportunities to be exploited for Schumpeterian entrepreneurship.

Table 1: New products or services offered to customers in SA 2005-2013 (Herrington & Kew, 2013)

	2005	2009	2010	2013	Ave SSA
All	15.9*	28.6	28.5	39.5	13.5
Some	29.9	28.9	30.1	28.5	20.1
None	54.2	42.5	41.4	32.0	66.4

With the advent of contemporary thinking that pronounces tertiary education as a commodity and not a public responsibility (Altbach and Knight, 2007), entrepreneurial forces have a legitimate, if not the foremost, place in higher education as it is also affected by the market. Therefore, South Africa has a comparative advantage to further pursue this study.

1.3.1 Business or management problem

In an ever globalising economy, countries need to trade with other nations so as to consolidate their competitiveness. While South Africa boasts better innovation and business sophistication traits in comparison to other countries in SSA (World Economic Forum Global Competitiveness Report, 2014), international business orientation is lacking, as evidenced by a lower proportion of internationally oriented entrepreneurs in the GEM Global Report (Amorós, & Bosma, 2013). An international orientation is beneficial to countries because customers will differ from country to country; for cultural or historical reasons, for instance, some may make higher demands on the entrepreneur. This benefits the enterprise through concerted efforts for better innovation and the development of focused customer alignment. SSA economies show a low proportion of internationally oriented entrepreneurs, which to an extent, feeds into the slow development of high impact enterprises.

High impact entrepreneurship is defined as companies with high growth orientation, enjoying a minimum of 20% in revenue increases or more annually, contributing to wide job creation and with a strong innovation orientation (GEM High Impact Entrepreneurship Report, 2011). The report illustrates that high impact entrepreneurs are the ones most likely to foster relationships with international customers. The majority of Africa's high impact entrepreneurs may very likely be the diverse foreign students in the country, whose cultural adjustment and active skills in cultural intelligence pose a unique opportunity for the conception of novel commercial ventures.

Studies were conducted on the influence of cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence in other contexts, such as in global business leadership or the success of expatriate success in international assignments. Limited research exclusively focuses on either construct's relationship firstly, with entrepreneurial mindset and secondly, in relation to international students.

Furthermore, this study investigated how the seven intangibles of Schumpeterian entrepreneurship, as environmental factors, moderated the relationship between cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence on entrepreneurial mindset. Venkataraman (2004) acknowledged that most authors emphasised tangibles necessary to support disruptive innovation that was advocated by Schumpeter. He suggested intangibles that would sufficiently allow for Schumpeterian entrepreneurship to succeed in an area. These intangibles are listed as follows: The Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas, Need for Gateways to Large Markets, and Need for Role Models as well as the Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurship. Other intangibles are the Need for Region Specific Ideas, the Need for Safety Nets and the Need for Executive Leadership.

Figure 2 is a visual representation of the study's conceptual framework. The initial relationship exists between cultural adjustment (anticipatory and in country) aspects and these may lead to an advancement of a business oriented mindset. The second relationship to be investigated are cultural intelligence aspects (cognitive, motivation

and behavioural) and what effect that has for entrepreneurial mindset. Lastly, the researcher investigates the seven intangibles as moderating variables between cultural adjustment/intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset.

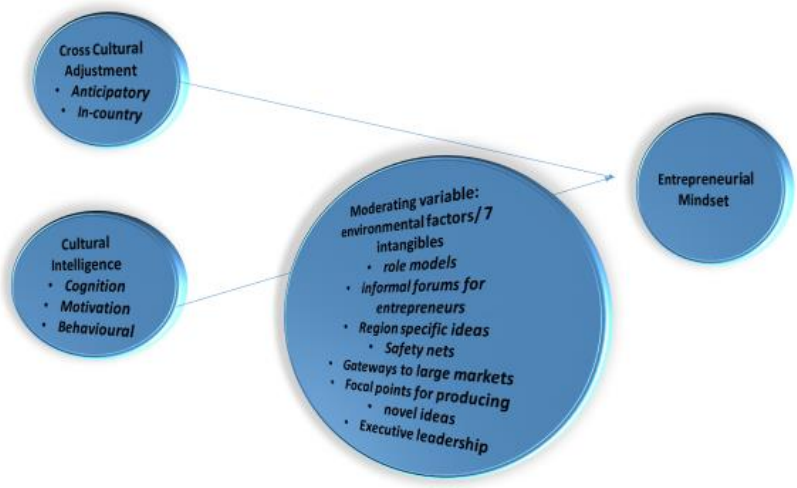


Figure 2 Research conceptual framework

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.4.1 Context to the main problem

According to the GEM SA Report (2014), entrepreneurship is widely perceived as a mechanism for sustainable commercial development, innovation and career alternatives. While that may be the case, Banerjee and Duflo (2011) explained that most people were 'reluctant' entrepreneurs because they engaged in commercial ventures in order to survive because they failed to secure employment and opted to initiate small business as they had failed to gain access to established firms. The prevalence of survivalist entrepreneurship in South Africa has begun to show a downward trend, yet the Total Early stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) and established business levels have not improved. International student mobility has received increased attention among regional and international bodies, such as the World Bank and the African Union to mention a few. International students are a source of intercultural learning, have a grasp of diversity and global issues, not to mention international and trade connections (NAFSA, 2003) and are instrumental in the promotion of foreign policy interests (Schneider, 2000).

Nowadays, globalisation not only refers to the transferring of goods and services but also to cultures, people, knowledge, technology and business. It is fundamental to examine the potential of foreign scholars, as individuals who are in a prime position to create new ventures. This is not only because extensive literature has identified foreign students as having a higher propensity for an inherent entrepreneurial mindset, but also because such students can recognise opportunities in host countries and leverage against their networks in home countries for profit maximisation. As a result, this researcher argued that a positive cultural adjustment experience and competence in cultural intelligence would be positively correlated to an entrepreneurial mindset.

1.4.2 Main problem

Determine the effect of cross cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence on the entrepreneurial mindset of international students in Johannesburg. The study also examines the moderating influence of environmental factors or the seven intangibles necessary for Schumpeterian entrepreneurship on entrepreneurial mindset

1.4.3 Sub-problems

The initial sub-problem is to determine the influence of cross cultural adjustment on entrepreneurship mindset

The second sub problem is to determine the effect of cultural intelligence on entrepreneurship mindset

The third sub problem is the assessment of environmental factors or the seven intangibles as a moderating variable on entrepreneurial mindset

1.4.4 Research Questions

- How has the cross cultural adjustment experience impacted students? Do they perceive themselves as more entrepreneurially alert, as informed by a new mindset? Do they attribute their foreign student experience (exposure to a new environment, learning orientation, social support received in a foreign country) as influencing their (entrepreneurial) behaviour in any manner or form?
- Is cultural intelligence an advantage that foreign students perceive as worth being exploited for commercial success? Is a student's embeddedness in the fabric of the locality seen as ideal in identifying opportunities and partnering with local students for entrepreneurial ventures?
- Has student's proximity to the Central Business District and the city of Johannesburg as a whole, (where several novel idea producing locations can be found) inspired the birth of an entrepreneurial mindset?

- To what extent do the intangibles/ environment factors moderate the relationship between cross cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence to an entrepreneurial mindset? Is there a basis to advocate for the provision or recognition of these intangibles to encourage and enable Schumpeterian entrepreneurship?

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

International education, (and student mobility in particular), as well as entrepreneurship, as fields of study have gained popularity. This report therefore fills a research gap, as it is important to have an understanding of the mindset of entrepreneurial individuals. In addition, there is limited study on what environmental factors or 'intangibles' contribute to Schumpeterian entrepreneurship in Johannesburg, one of the leading African economic hubs, as perceived by international students at tertiary level.

The study will provide guidance to universities, regional leadership bodies, as well as policy makers, especially in SSA on the provision of frameworks and institutional support to foster high growth entrepreneurship for innovative and bold entrepreneurial bets. The study will also benefit corporates to streamline their programmes to attract students whose products and service innovations may contribute to world class corporate entrepreneurship.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

- The term 'international students' excluded international tertiary students that are enrolled in short course programmes or student exchange programs (of one year or less) because they are not likely to have been 'immersed' in the social context like students enrolled in longer programmes.

- The study excluded all international tertiary students, enrolled in distance education (e-learning) because it is unlikely that they live and study in Johannesburg, which is critical as a context.
- The study focused on tertiary students from university whose main campuses are located in the Central Business District (CBD), which is the University of Witwatersrand.

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

- **Cultural intelligence** – a construct that encompasses cognitive, motivation and behavioural dimensions within an individual to effectively handle a situation influenced by cultural diversity (Earley & Ang 2003)
- **Cross cultural adjustment**- level of mental and emotional ease with the numerous features of a host country that an individual may face. (Black, 1988)
- **International student mobility**- the departure of individuals from their country, territory or region for the purposes of studying in another country (Global Education Digest, 2006)
- **International students** - individuals who have gone across an international border and relocated to that country (of which they are not citizens) with the intention to engage in long term study (UIS, 2012).
- **Intangibles**- refers to a collection of seven contextual factors that are considered to contribute positively to Schumpeterian entrepreneurship.
- **Entrepreneurial mindset**- a growth-oriented stance that advances creativity, flexibility, continuous innovation and renewal. It therefore allows for entrepreneurially minded individuals to recognise opportunity, even in uncertain situations, as a result of their advanced cognitive abilities that permit individuals to derive meaning in complex situations (Alvarez & Barney, 2002).
- **Entrepreneurship**- an activity that is concerned with the unearthing, appraisal and taking advantage of gaps in the market by the provision of new goods and

services, new ways of organising, processes, markets and raw materials that did not exist previously.

1.8 ASSUMPTIONS

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) declared that assumptions were so basic, that if not present, the research problem itself could not exist. Therefore the researcher acknowledged several assumptions in order to give existence to the research problem. The study assumed that:

- Only students who were comfortable with participation and consented in writing were considered as participants
- International students understood at a basic level what the major constructs cultural adjustment, cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset entailed

1.9 OUTLINE OF SUBSEQUENT CHAPTERS

Chapter 2 focused on a rich literature review ranging from all constructs in cross cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence and the seven intangibles that influence Schumpeterian entrepreneurship as moderators between variables. A detailed look at Johannesburg as a setting ripe with opportunity for unique entrepreneurial ventures is also addressed. Consequent chapters 3 focused on this researcher's paradigm approach on the study, the research design and subsequent limitations encountered. Chapter 4 is a very detailed presentation of the research results and Chapter 5 paid attention to the discussion of results respectively; and in instances where the hypotheses or propositions were not supported, credible, empirically based arguments were put forward. Chapter 6 is dedicated to the summary of literature and all relevant arguments, the implications of study findings, suggested future research and necessary recommendations.

1.10 CONCLUSION

As a result of internationalisation, international student mobility is an emerging market segment for governments, corporates and non-profit organisations alike (Altbach & Knight, 2007). The GEM Global 2013 report findings highlighted that highly competitive nations had at least 76% post-secondary school qualification and, as a result, had a higher proportion of innovative entrepreneurs. Venter, Urban and Rwigema (2008) postulated that education provides entrepreneurs with adequate knowledge and analytical problem solving skills to handle more efficiently the difficulties of commercial venturing. Instead of university graduates being beneficiaries of tertiary education through better employment opportunities, the objective of this research would like to highlight the potential of tertiary students as an emerging breed of 'new school' entrepreneurs. Should international students be suitably adjusted and can tap into the wealth of a competitive advantage through cultural intelligence, the recognition and exploitation of opportunities may very likely be the norm and not the exception. Further scrutiny of the intangibles most supportive of Schumpeterian entrepreneurship is paramount in subsequent chapters.

2 CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature addressed entrepreneurship as a concept, firstly at the individual level and then at social levels. The section further examined how cross cultural adjustment embedded itself as a critical factor in the sojourns of international students and how this influenced the onset of an entrepreneurial mindset. It progressed to cultural intelligence as a point of reference on the onset of an entrepreneurial mindset. The adjustment process should reduce anxiety about the new environment and increase the likelihood the foreigner's integration to the culture and new environment. On the other hand, cultural intelligence is critical for anticipating and explaining the prevalence of cross cultural exchanges in business settings (Thomas, 2006).

Thirdly, the interrogation of the moderating effect of prevailing environmental intangibles that contributed to the flourishing of Schumpeterian entrepreneurial activity was explored. Other authors have stressed the significance of tangibles such as infrastructure, risk capital and sound legal systems to encourage thriving business. Venkataraman (2004) however, suggested intangibles, such as access to role models, executive leadership, safety nets and informal fora for entrepreneurs among others, as sufficient prerequisites for economic growth. The chapter proceeded with a background discussion on the international student landscape, entrepreneurship and major constructs in cross cultural adjustment and intelligence.

2.2 BACKGROUND DISCUSSION

According to the United Nations Education, Social and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics (UIS 2012), cross border student enrolment is most visible in student mobility in pursuit of post graduate qualifications. Statistics on international student mobility seem to vary among different entities. The UIS reported that in 1990, the numbers were at 1.3 million, and by 2009 had tripled to 3.4 million

internationally mobile students. The Global Education Digest (2009) suggested that in 2007 there were 2.8 million internationally mobile students and that that number has increased by over 53% since 1999. Neave (1992) noted that these statistics may be grossly underrated because these numbers excluded programmes that may not necessarily lead to a degree, which included but were not limited to short learning programmes.

The definition of an internationally mobile student is critical to discuss in this report. The UIS (2009) characterised internationally mobile scholars firstly as those who pursued their studies in a foreign nation and do so in a country of which they are not permanent citizens. A second definition is the consideration of students whose entry qualification to their current level was obtained from another country. For the purposes of this report, the former definition is used.

Several reasons have been advanced for various factors that affected student choices with regard to destinations for tertiary education. The desire for globally recognised qualifications (Mpinganjira and Rugimbana, 2009), employment prospects post-graduation (Lin, 2007) scholarships available for international study, the quality of the 'student experience' in the host country, as well as social activities to enhance acclimatisation (Verbink and Lasanowski, 2007) are some of the leading reasons that prompted international student mobility.

2.2.1 International students and their premise for entrepreneurial activity

International student mobility is a particularly important topic of late because it is the hallmark of a globalised 21st century (Sam 2001; Li & Gasser 2005) and lends itself to discussions on transnational entrepreneurship. A considerable amount of literature currently exists on transnational entrepreneurship, especially in the decision model of such entrepreneurship (Yeung, 2002). Such exposure also led to a trickling flow of fragmented, yet insightful work on the role international students play with regard to ethnic or immigrant entrepreneurship. This phenomenon has been described as a growing number of people that immigrate to different countries, establish businesses

there while simultaneously maintaining networks in both countries (Portez, Guarnizo & Haller, 2002). This scenario suggested a geographically dispersed network available to international students and it is a conceivable assertion that such a network is a working advantage to support rapid flow of information, which augurs well for resource mobilisation and knowledge sharing among themselves.

Kerr and Schlosser (2007) indicated that student mobility contributed immensely to transnational entrepreneurship. They ventured to make an example of Silicon Valley as a well-known area that was changed (mainly) by foreign engineering scholars who, after the completion of their degrees, stayed on in the United States, to work and create commercial ventures. Saxenian (2005) admitted as much, but however added that that was the elementary step, a huge catalyst for this transformation was attributed to the development and nurturing of active business networks in their countries of origin.

Bramwell and Wolfe (2008) touted universities as focal areas for knowledge based entrepreneurship and these were perceived as essential for the promotion of technological innovation and new ventures. Needless to say, international students are congregated in universities as knowledge centres where Research and Development (R&D) of various innovations is a primary focus. If foreign students acclimatised to the cultural dynamics of the host country and proved themselves to be culturally perceptive of appropriate social behaviour to aid entrepreneurial opportunity recognition, then making strategic contacts for business is feasible.

It is known that foreign students may face unpleasant regulations in host countries coupled with an inability to be involved in gainful employment (Mata & Pendukar, 1999, Tsui-Auch, 2005; Mora & Davila, 2005). Despite these and other limitations, Carmichael, Drori and Honing (2010) remarked that international students accumulated a stock of resources over time through their sustained travels that served them well, especially as nascent entrepreneurs. These include their human and social capital (Davidsson & Honig, 2003), against which they could leverage in their pursuit of entrepreneurial ventures.

2.2.2 'Inherent' entrepreneurial alertness of international students

Ward, Bochner and Furnham (2001) said foreign students had a better appreciation for an entrepreneurial outlook due to higher exposure to culturally diverse contexts, than the average student. Starr and Fondas (1992) believed that by virtue of embracing high risk opportunities to study abroad and exposing themselves to new experiences, such students were therefore privy to new entrepreneur socialisation. In their opinion, that was all that was necessary to sow the first seeds to encourage transnational entrepreneurial behaviour later on in life.

They added that foreign students were international sojourners and as such, temporary contacts between cultures. They developed outside the psychological confines of their own culture and as a result, these students developed high thresholds for uncertainty, global competency and had a proficiency for conducting themselves in multicultural contexts. Interestingly, international students presented themselves as individuals with a high tolerance for ambiguity and risk taking, as they ventured into unknown territories, which was a trait that most entrepreneurs possessed. Krueger *et al.,* (2000) suggested that an entrepreneur's perception of risk and control was a key precipitating factor for entrepreneurial start-up ventures. Lewthwaite (1996) ventured to say that because international students had less support compared to local students, they were compelled to rely on self-motivation and creativity as a coping mechanism to survive in a foreign place.

Toussaint-Comeau (2005) admitted that international students were more likely to become self-employed immigrants after their studies, as they often possessed higher levels of postgraduate education which also made them attractive for managerial and professional occupations, especially in host countries that lacked the skills they possessed. Indeed, Herrington and Kew (2013) insisted that, based on all their work in South Africa, results consistently showed a correlation between high levels of education with opportunity driven entrepreneurship. With that said, it was understood that an individual's self-efficacy was heightened by a sound education system, thus

increasing the chances of business start-up interests (Rotefoss & Kolvereid, 2005; Liao & Gartner, 2007).

Often foreign students enjoyed a close proximity to their ethnic community in that host country, and this created a platform on which they could leverage resources, gain mentorship and skills transfer. Venter, Urban and Rwigema (2008) claimed that the ethnic community provided social capital that enabled the rapid sharing of information on new innovations and opportunities, especially for newly arrived immigrants - which also included international students. Tertiary graduates contributed to higher levels of human capital which is critical for vigorous functioning of the economy and government (UIS, 2009). The notion of becoming an international student is a situation that presented them with fertile conditions to venture into entrepreneurial activity. As further envisaged, when an international student invested in their schoolwork and also their cultural experiences, these investments brought a return, in the form of capital, which ensured an accrual of skills and strategic knowledge. Kerr and Schlosser (2010) added that pursuing education outside one's country was beneficial because it revealed business opportunities in the host countries that may resonate with their experiences in their countries of origin. Coupled with the opportunities and business skills to which they may be exposed in university, their competency to comprehend these prospects informed a bicultural mindset. As a result of the development and influence of international studies abroad, it was vital to consider how cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence, respectively, contributed to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset in this context.

2.3 CONNECTING THE DOTS: ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

The discussion on entrepreneurship was delineated into two parts; one that addressed the individual and the requisite personality traits that were identified as necessary for entrepreneurship to take place. The second category discussed prevailing contextual issues that encouraged the propensity of foreign students to behave entrepreneurially.

The first category needs no further explanation as it directly relates to the students as the individuals in question. The second category is imperative for purposes of investigating how the environment affects these students.

There are various definitions in existence for entrepreneurship and to date there is a myriad views on what this concept constituted. Caird (1993) referred to the 'elusive' nature of what an entrepreneur was known to be and by extension, what they did on a day to day basis. Schumpeter (1934) in his formative work, theorised that an entrepreneur was an individual whose innovation made him a rare breed and was equally not a mere manager of an existing business. According to Schumpeter, an entrepreneur is one who had done the following:

- introduced new services and goods
- introduced new methods of production
- discovered new sources of raw materials
- operated new markets
- established new organisations

In subsequent work, Schumpeter (1942) added that entrepreneurship is the sustained habit of propelling innovative ideas to come to fruition by establishing new business models while simultaneously substituting obsolete conventional methods and thereby encapsulated the idea of 'creative destruction'. It is also a value creation process because it is the commitment of large amounts of time, resources and exertion by entrepreneurs, while innately bearing the financial, social risks that were associated with such a venture with the intention of receiving economic benefit, personal gratification and independence for their efforts (Henrekson, 2007). The definition offered by Shane (2007) is especially central for this report and resonated with its intents. He described it as an activity that is concerned with the unearthing, appraisal and taking advantage of gaps in the market by the provision of new goods and services, new ways of organising, processes, markets and raw materials that did not exist previously.

2.3.1 Entrepreneurship and the individual

The entrepreneur is central to this notion of entrepreneurship. Eckhardt and Shane (2003) as well as Shane (2000) are in agreement that in the individual-opportunity realm, entrepreneurship occurred when an entrepreneur discovered, appraised and exploited commercial opportunities and he or she is the absent puzzle to convert knowledge into economically beneficial knowledge (Braunerjhelm *et al*, 2010). The entrepreneurial process is triggered by the individual's discernment that an opportunity existed and that it could be exploited for financial gain. Entrepreneurially astute individuals would see the opportunities, and develop ways to exploit them, which may be in the form of a novel product, service or process. Figure 3 illustrated that beyond the exploitation of opportunity, the individual-opportunity demanded the acquisition of resources, a tactical approach for the entrepreneurial process as well organising efforts for the reconfiguration of resources to make for an innovative venture.

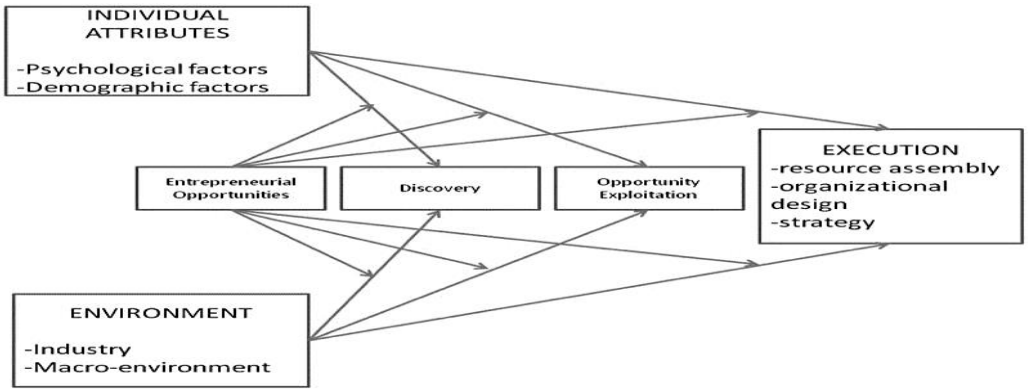


Figure 3 Shane's entrepreneurial process model

2.3.1.1 Entrepreneurial Opportunity Recognition

Shane and Venkataraman (2000) defined opportunities as a circumstance where novel products, services, raw material and organising approaches can be made available at a higher cost than that of production. Authors were in disagreement on the source and nature of an opportunity. Some scholars debated that an opportunity is a socially constructed or subjective affair, making it difficult to delineate it from the

individual, while the opposing camp contended that an opportunity is an objective construct fashioned by the knowledge to which the entrepreneur is exposed or has access to. For instance, a view that Shane (2003) held is that opportunities are independent of other players within the system, but because on their own, prospects are deficient of agency; therefore the human is vital to discovering and awakening that opportunity. Companys and McMullen (2007) developed three 'schools of thought' on the nature and foundation of opportunities. These are the economic, cultural cognitive and socio-political schools. One is the economic school that is focused on the 'objectivity' argument of opportunities and declared that opportunities were the result of the (lack of) information and knowledge distribution on available prospects. Secondly, the cultural cognitive school takes the subjective view and insisted that shared knowledge gave birth to opportunity. Lastly, the socio-political school countered that opportunity is objective as a result of social network structures yet subjective because of the individual entrepreneur's persuasion skills for successful commercialisation.

2.3.2 PERSONALITY TRAITS PERTAINING TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Robertson *et al*. (1991) said the use of traits as descriptors to distinguish entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs is a challenge, in addition to the fact that there is no consensus on the measures used to classify these characteristics. Muller and Thomas (2001, p. 51) speculated that there was no single trait in existence that explains what an entrepreneur is, nor one that is able to anticipate entrepreneurial performance. Instead they stated that: "It is a configuration of traits that separated potential entrepreneurs from those who are not predisposed or motivated to engage in new venture formation".

A litany of literature is available on the traits presupposed to affect entrepreneurial behaviour and a well-known concept is the Big five personality traits. These traits include agreeableness, extraversion, and openness to experience, emotional stability and conscientiousness. Other scholars, including Raab *et al*., (2005) considered

entrepreneurial potential and suggested the following seven traits: risk-taking propensity, tolerance for uncertainty, emotional stability, and an internal locus of control. The last three presented are a need for achievement, an ability for problem solving and a willingness to assert oneself. Other traits that have come to the fore over time from different authors are creativity, innovation, intrinsic motivation, a sensible tendency to take risks and entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Kickul & Gundry 2002; Fisher & Koch 2008 and Weitzel *et al*., 2012). What can be deduced however, in these circumstances is that some traits are a consistent feature in all literature. These include an internal locus of control, a high need for achievement, risk taking propensity with the addition of the acceptance of uncertainty and the ability to be innovative and creative (Tajeddini & Muller, 2009).

2.3.2.1 Need for achievement

McClelland (1961) did his seminal work on the need for achievement, and this phenomenon has been described as the desire to do something better or faster than any other individual or even when that individual surpasses their own expectations in terms of performance (Hansemark, 2003). McClelland (1990) noted that it may be developed based on how the individual's frame of reference was geared towards their desire to achieve superiority. Carter and Jones-Evans (2006) focused on empirical evidence that supported the linkage between the need for motivation and entrepreneurship. Their study revealed that it is the knowledge of one's prowess in their respective field that motivated them more than the accrual of wealth. As a result, an individual's locus of control is also worthy of discussion because of its centrality to entrepreneurship.

2.3.2.2 Locus of control

An internal locus of control can be said to be one's conviction that the outcome of events is dependent on their own actions or characteristics, while external locus of control is the feeling that a certain turn of events is out of that person's control or power (Rotter 1966). As a consequence of internal locus of control, an individual is more

likely to exhibit what others may perceive as risky behaviour in order to achieve that which they believe is within their control, as long as they exert the necessary effort and thus may become entrepreneurial. Conclusions by McLeod and Wainwright (2009) demonstrated the internal locus of control and an enterprising nature among students who chose to study abroad (by virtue of the unstructured and uncertain situation) than students who studied in their countries of birth. On a related note, Goldstein and Kim (2006) referred to most international students' poor disposition for prejudice and ethnocentrism, which ultimately led to an openness for new experience as well as industriousness (Dimov, 2007). McGee *et al*., (2009) submitted that internal locus of control was a good predictor of entrepreneurial intentions and by extension, entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE). Harper (1998) also noted that business start-ups were often accompanied by entrepreneurial alertness and a confidence that is spurred on by self-efficacy.

2.3.2.3 Entrepreneurial Self Efficacy

"Self-efficacy is about a person's belief in themselves to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action necessary to control events in their events." (Delmas, 2006, p. 169). Several scholars who have researched ESE indicated that individuals who possessed this trait, were most likely to start a business or be drawn to entrepreneurship (Bauhn *et al.,* 2006; Krueger *et al.,* 2000; Segal *et al.,* 2002). Locus of control is portrayed as a general form of self-efficacy that is not situation dependent. For instance, Delmas hypothesised that while an individual may be a skilled rock climber, he may be poor at business. While both activities required a certain level of risk, rock climbing demanded self-efficacy due to the nature of the situation. Bandura (1995) highlighted that ESE is closely related to confidence as it influenced an individual's aptitude to establish or devise strategies to manage probable situations in a certain way. Self-confidence is intimately linked to self-efficacy (Koh 1996). His work presented empirical evidence wherein MBA students who were more 'entrepreneurially inclined' were more self-assured and possessed higher thresholds for tolerating uncertainty. ESE can be developed further through factors

such as higher education, in particular studying abroad, as this requires high goal orientation (Florin *et al.,* 2007*).* Entrepreneurial education may also be cited as an aid for the development of ESE because of its emphasis on entrepreneurship processes and concerns. Zhao *et al.,* (2005) insisted that self-assurance and ingenuity geared up individuals for venture creation. This is the same conclusion that was reached in the study of the influence that education had on the development of self-efficacy.

2.3.2.4 Risk Taking and Tolerance for Ambiguity

Sitkin and Pablo (1992) described risk propensity to taking certain action that is considered perilous. Cromie (2000) argued that enterprising individuals often functioned and made successes of their enterprises by exploiting opportunities in uncertain environments and at times sought out those situations (without even realising it), such that the reward equalled the risk endured. He added there was a difference between entrepreneurs who blindly accepted risk that may be inherent in a venture and those entrepreneurs whose primary concern was to take 'calculated' risks and made every effort to minimise their risk by banding together with other individuals who had a vested interest in the venture. Miner (1990) offered a divergent opinion by suggesting that a true entrepreneurial trait is that of finding innovative ways to circumvent, diminish or spread risk rather than accepting it. A less controversial topic is the matter of tolerance for ambiguity. Budner (1962) described ambiguity as a situation that cannot be categorised as a result of insufficient indications or clues. In essence, the tolerance for ambiguity may refer to one's ability to respond positively and be confident of the quality of their decision making abilities, despite the lack of clarity in some areas. Schere (1982) posited that the role of an entrepreneur is actually one of an 'uncertainty bearer' and to consolidate this opinion, Tuckman (1966) found that persons more tolerant of the unknown dared to be more creative and innovative. Teoh and Foo (1997) supported the opinion when they added that the tolerance of ambiguity ought to be a standard operating feature of an entrepreneur's decisions because tolerance decisions often led to innovativeness. In the entrepreneurial

context, decisions will frequently be made with limited information and a need to tolerate doubt.

2.3.2.5 Innovation and Creativity

Two other prominent traits that are often associated with entrepreneurship are creativity and innovation. Few authors could have said it better than Timmons and Spinelli (2007, p. 55) when they wrote: “At the heart of entrepreneurship is innovation”. Burns (2010) rightly added that innovation embodied the breaking away from the mould and humdrum of what is known and normal. From a business perspective, innovation must usher in change through services, products and processes that are conducive to economic viability and sustainability. Admittedly, innovation is not a trait in the strictest of terms, but an inventive ability is necessary to transform creativity into an innovation, and yet not every creative concept is innovative. Thus these traits are separate yet interconnected.

Leung *et al.,* (2008) defined creativity as bringing into being something new and useful, a definition which is more accurate in the domain of entrepreneurship than many other disciplines. The Arts as a discipline are profoundly creative and produce novel ideas but that may not necessarily be practical for everyday life. Leung argued that creativity is the genesis of innovation and if reinforced through autonomy of the entrepreneurship went a long way in defining the entrepreneur. Pruett (2009) advocated that one of the most crucial obligations of tertiary institutions in a bid to augment entrepreneurial behaviour was to encourage the students’ confidence in their creativity and sense of independence. Creativity is the progression of creating unconventional concepts and the art of convincing others of the value of the product or service, plus it thrives within a social environment where ideas are commodities (Sternberg, 1994). Creativity is also said to be an opportunity for emerging economies to carve out a new growth path, by determining what an entrepreneurial environment should look like (De Miranda, *et al*. 2009) and it was also hailed as the one of the most significant antecedents in idea generation and implementation in the context of entrepreneurship (Bouncken, 2004). Contrarily, Hausschildt (1996) voiced his

scepticism as he proposed that although creativity was important, it only meant that the entrepreneur was midway to their success, because innovation entailed investing in a new means-end relationship and execution strategy.

With that observation in mind, it is worth appreciating that creativity is neither stagnant nor individualistic, but it's ideal development depends on it flourishing within groups and teams (Drucker, 1991). In fact, once an idea is shared within a group setting it often morphs into multiple ideas as each individual perceives and approaches it differently (Bouncken, 2004). Leung *et al.,* (2008) cited creativity as a trait that could be enriched and developed by introduction to a different cultural environment, precisely by the time spent abroad. The work done by Leung *et al* (2008) used international students pursuing their studies in the United States as the premise for enquiry. It is noteworthy that the study had limitations. For instance, it could not be proven that studying abroad caused permanent creativity or that the less creative individuals were the ones more likely to stay in their respective countries for furtherance of studies. However, it did highlight that living abroad and experience with foreign cultures certainly acted as a strong stimulus for creativity, which as defined earlier, is the elementary step towards innovation. Maddux and Galinsky (2009) summarised the argument when they argued that the interplay between multicultural encounters and creativity bore critical consequences in business, education and government policy.

2.3.3 ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECT ON ENTREPRENEURSHIP

This section addressed the second category of 'environment' and how students perceived their abilities or propensity to be entrepreneurial. This section aimed to address the effect of setting on behaviour.

Entrepreneurship is undoubtedly a value propositioning process, which suggested it did not unfold only in an economic domain; the social context was also equally important (Jack & Anderson, 2002). The entrepreneurial process is both dynamic and complex, but inherently is influenced by the entrepreneur and the prevalent context

(Anderson, 2000). Clarke (2004) referred to the environment as a double-edged sword. On one hand, the cultural setting served as a negative or positive influence on entrepreneurial behaviour and on the other hand (flowing from the initial reaction), it triggered a cultural reaction and what bearing this may have on the concerned student.

Young (1998) confirmed that entrepreneurship did not occur within a vacuum but it was also affected by the enduring structural social dealings at the time. Several scholars also made similar findings. For instance, Aldrich and Zimmer (1986) commented that entrepreneurship was expedited or frustrated by the person's position in the social network and the entrepreneur was heavily dependent on the information, knowledge and resources provided by the network (Carsrud & Johnson 1989). For the purposes of this study, it was prudent to explore the international students' social embeddedness and risk orientation, and how it lent itself to their inclination to venture into entrepreneurial behaviour.

According to Jack and Anderson (2002), embeddedness is the mechanism by which an entrepreneur (agent) becomes part of the local structure (context) and this helped them create opportunities for partnership and also exploited the resources availed to them. It may also be defined as an element that aided the configuration of entrepreneurship and is measured by the nature, extent and depth of an entrepreneur's engagement in their local environment (Dacin *et al.,* 1999). Embeddedness created a competitive advantage for the entrepreneur because it opened corridors for social relevance, which is attributed to more than just local social network structure. At its best, social networks developed entrepreneurial credibility and knowledge on how business was conducted, which contributed immensely to the establishment, perception, the management of their business. So pertinent is social embeddedness to entrepreneurship it encouraged garnering resources, which is attributable for most entrepreneurs who founded organisations (Hansen, 1995).

To better understand this, the application of structuration in the study of entrepreneurship is fundamental. Structuration dealt with the two-pronged matters of agency and structure and explained the effect of social interactions on the

performance of commercial activity (Giddens 1997). This point of view is further supported by Saranson *et al*., (2006) as a lens through which to perceive entrepreneurship. Structuration theory also demanded that the entrepreneur be familiar with the 'rules' of engagement so as to shape their interactions. These rules are a means of initiation and also give structure to the relationship between the entrepreneur as well as the locality. Rules also represent social contracts and standards that inform interaction (Mole & Mole, 2010).

The work of Bourdieu (1990; 1998) on social practice theory, reinforced the structuration model through its acknowledgement of one's individual action and the social structure in which individuals are embedded. Bourdieu's theory made reference to three critical components in his theory; field, capital (cultural and symbolic) and habitus to initiate the process by which newcomers gained legitimacy. For the purposes of the report, the field represented any industry that a newcomer attempted to enter. Capital was operationalised as the goods and material that is perceived as rare and worthy of being sought in a certain social proximity (Bourdieu 1977) and habitus is a specific environment in which a degree of consistency of people's actions is defined. Following this theory, a newcomer's entrepreneurial activity is connected to that individual's social embeddedness in the field based on their capital (Everett 2002). De Clercq and Voronov (2009) also perceived entrepreneurship as an essentially socially embedded process. The duo argued that an individual's entrance into the field of commercial activity did not necessarily make them an entrepreneur, but that rather the 'legitimisation' of that individual is what endorsed their entrepreneurial habitus. By legitimisation they referred to the principle where entrepreneurs had the ability to both 'fit in with field rules yet stand out as rule breakers' (p. 395). As a result the conclusion reached by De Clercq and Voronov was that entrepreneurial social embeddedness was a direct result of everyday practices and social context and not so much deliberate planning on the part of the entrepreneur.

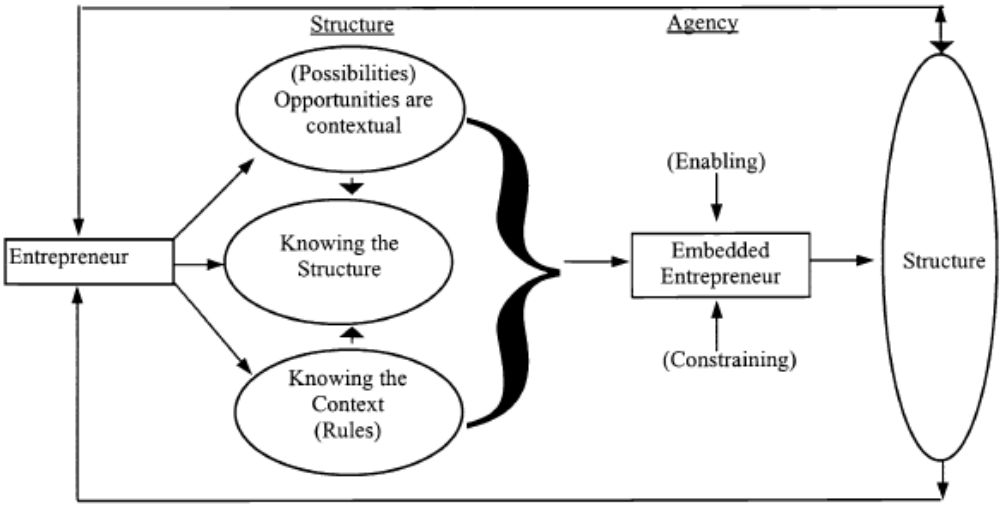


Figure 4: **Structuration of entrepreneurship model: structure and agency in a dynamic relationship (Jack & Anderson, 2002)**

Therefore it is this researcher's argument that if international students are embedded within the social context in which they find themselves, it was imperative on their part, to draw on the society around them for better perception of entrepreneurial opportunities as well as resource availability to aid the inception of a commercial venture. The findings in research undertaken by Jack and Anderson (2002) established that value was unearthed through the ways in which the entrepreneur drew on the environment in the institution and execution of a business. Conversely, value is also produced by the establishment of the endeavour and grounded in its contribution to the locale. The structuration of entrepreneurship model (figure 4 above) illustrated that international students may 'connect' with opportunities within their context. However, in order for these to resonate with the entrepreneur concerned, he or she needed to have interacted with and understood the context. A discussion about the environment, without additional reference to the cultural diversity would be incomplete.

2.3.4 Cultural diversity

Jacobs (1969) postulated over forty years ago, that cultural diversity encouraged divergent valuation of ideas and this triggered the establishment of new ventures, as a result of the varied manner in which the same set of information could be interpreted and internalised by different people. Bouncken (2004) suggested that in work teams cultural diversity could lead to the weakening of internalised norms, thereby reducing groupthink and therefore increasing creative thinking. Culturally diverse settings, which are also historical trading centres, are more likely to nurture an entrepreneurial culture, as the historical trade encouraged the formation of formal and informal channels by which economic exchanges took place and it is also where cultural diversity was exploited for economic gain, because of creative innovations (Nikolova & Simroth, 2013). Vibhakar and Smith (2004) advised that experience abound with cultural diversity was good for international business, because it built one's ability for objective situation analysis. They added that the capacity to evaluate events and recognise one's own prejudices and ethnocentrism (within this setting) was invaluable for business relations.

In summary, it is concluded that cultural diversity and its assorted dimensions had an impact on entrepreneurship and growth. Wennekers and Thurik (1999) noted it affected traits such as risk acceptance and failure, competitiveness, curiosity and open mindedness towards other cultures.

2.4 ENTREPRENEURIAL MINDSET

A mindset has been described as a cognitive operation with specific characteristics that facilitate the execution of a specific task (Torelli & Kaikat 2009). The concept of mindset was first discussed in the 19th Century at the Würzburg School of Psychological Research which was established by Oswald Külpe. The Würzburgers focused their efforts on an experimental study of human motivation and advanced mental functioning. The research revealed how subjects focused on individual specific tasks and rejected insignificant items from their attention and as such, mindset is

perceived as an automated stimulus and a product of experience based on exposure to specific tasks (Humphrey 1951). Mathisen and Arnulf (2014) postulated that the word ‘set’ in mindset is a description of how an individual is prepared or ‘set’ to recognise specific aspects of stimulation.

It has been established that entrepreneurship is difficult to define, but opportunity recognition has been cited as a critical component in the entrepreneurial process (Short *et al.,* 2010). Entrepreneurial mindset has been found to also be a key antecedent in the opportunity recognition process (Munoz *et al*., 2011). McMullen and Shepherd (2006) noted how several researchers have conducted studies in order to determine how a person recognised opportunities and acted upon them. Krueger (2007) said an entrepreneurial mindset addressed the essence of being ‘entrepreneurial’. Haynie *et al*., (2010) explained that an entrepreneurial mindset is an entrepreneur’s advanced mental strategy informed by their motivations and environment adopted when in pursuit of entrepreneurial outcomes. Covin and Slevin (2002) equally reiterated that it is simultaneously an individual and collective phenomenon that was fundamental to have for both entrepreneur and managers in firms to think entrepreneurially. Evidence has suggested that the economic growth of a prosperous nation such as Sweden can be directly attributed to entrepreneurial mindset (Jury 1999). It is therefore imperative that entrepreneurial mindset is rightfully understood as a growth-oriented stance that is fuelled by creativity, flexibility, continuous innovation and renewal. It therefore allows for entrepreneurially minded individuals to recognise opportunity, even in uncertain situations, as a result of their advanced cognitive abilities that permit individuals to derive meaning in complex situations (Alvarez & Barney, 2002).

The components that make up entrepreneurial mindset were developed by Gollwitzer (1990). These traits are the intensity of elaborating and implementing mindsets respectively, and compulsiveness for business. To explain briefly, the elaborating mindset takes into consideration the initial steps towards embarking on entrepreneurial activities and is a representation of reflective thinking where the individual weighs their

options for entrepreneurial activity. The implementing mindset, in contrast, addressed the narrow or specific elements necessary for initiating entrepreneurial behaviour. Lastly, the last dimension of compulsiveness tested the intense, almost obsessive tendencies for entrepreneurial behaviour.

In the subsequent sections, relationship between the major constructs in the research and entrepreneurial mindset was investigated and synthesised.

2.5 CROSS CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT AND ITS RELATION TO ENTREPRENEURIAL MINDSET

An international student's attempts to adjust and adapt to a new environment is fraught with many challenges of which the average local student is unaware. It is true that both groups are concerned about their academic progress and language abilities (Hayes & Lin 1994, Ying & Liese, 1994). However, foreign students also need to manage emotional matters such as homesickness, isolation, feelings of loss of a support network and anxiety that may be brought about by a new cultural experience (Yang & Clum, 1995).

Cross cultural adjustment is a phenomenon that international students experienced significantly. Cross cultural adjustment is defined as the level of psychological ease with the various aspects of a host country that an individual may have (Black, 1988). Lauermann (2012) posited that international students not only faced the prospects of a new education system, but also had to handle a sociocultural transition into a new and unfamiliar environment as well as an alteration of one's psyche to expect new challenges and norms. Adjustment represented an intricate and lively process that could culminate in the attainment of suitable person-to-environment fit and it is also a variety of adverse experiences that lent themselves to a continuous learning cycle (Anderson 1994; Kim 1995). The cross cultural adjustment process is about reducing uncertainty in terms of understanding what behaviour is acceptable in the new culture and what is not, and when certain behaviour is appropriate and when it is not (Lee,

2006). Such knowledge would increase the individual's adjustment, and in the same breath, the aspects that would increase uncertainty are also likely to hinder adjustment (Black, 1991).

2.5.1 The Psychological and Socio-cultural aspects of adjustment

Indeed, adjustment may present itself in the two distinct, yet closely related dimensions namely in psychological and socio-cultural dimensions. Searle and Ward (1990) described the former as feelings of comfort and fulfilment, while the latter represented a sense that one had successfully adapted to a new environment and had learnt how to negotiate the interactive aspects of a new culture. Li and Gasser (2005) noted that psychological aspects were represented by the amount of social support available, interaction with the locals and hosts. In the case of socio-cultural adjustment, it was influenced by cross cultural experiences, training and the length of time in the new culture. The authors confirmed that individuals who were socio-culturally astute had better chances to adjust to the new environment and also applied this new cultural knowledge for their goal attainment, whether academic or entrepreneurial.

2.5.2 U-Curve

Several scholars have used the U-Curve Framework to describe cross cultural adjustment further (Black & Mendehall 1990, Usunier, 1998; Ward, 1998). It is the most dominant model used to describe the adjustment process.

The curve is representative of several stages of adjustment. Stage one is the 'honeymoon' phase where sojourners are fascinated by their new surroundings and is the highest point of positive emotions. The second stage is when students were confronted with frustrations when dealing with real situations and culture shock set in. The third stage represented adjustment to the norms and values of the host country and individuals behaved more appropriately in the new social context. The final stages

of mastery can interpreted as when individuals responded to social cues as expected and thus had adequately adjusted.

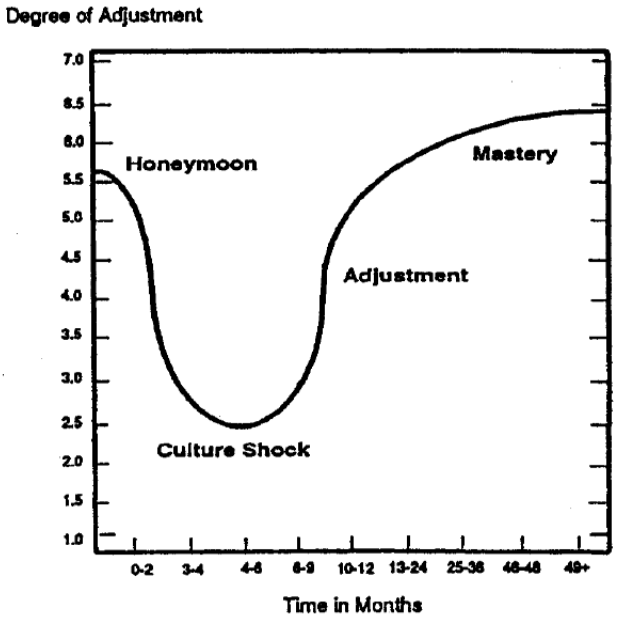


Figure 5 U-Curve (Framework of Cultural Adjustment, Lee 2006)

Adler (1987) pointed out that cultural adjustment is a necessary 'disruption' in the psyche of foreign students to trigger temperament improvement and personal evolution through the development of an integrated and transcultural citizen. Supporting this opinion, Lewthwaite (1996) remarked that the intent of a strange culture is to strip away familiarities and move individuals to a place where they worked through their identity crisis and embrace their old and new self.

For the purposes of this study, three variables in cross cultural adjustment will be investigated. These are anticipatory adjustment, in-country adjustment, and learning orientation which will be discussed further. International exposure and pre-move visits will be considered anticipatory adjustment factors. Support from Host Country Nationals (HCNs) will be an in-country adjustment factor.

2.5.3 International Exposure

International exposure augurs well for individuals whether in their capacities as students or as a labour force and it is an experience highly rated by employers. According to Bracht *et al.,* (2006), internationally exposed employees have demonstrated superior performance across a broad spectrum of aptitudes required by employers, while Dwyer (2004) insisted that an individual's experience abroad enhanced the quality of their career choices and paths. Anecdotal evidence existed to prove that a student's willingness to live and study abroad had a positive effect on producing an entrepreneurial outlook. Fernandez (2012) conversed with five entrepreneurs who originated from the United States who all credited their empire-building endeavours to the time spent abroad as international scholars. Governments of first world economies, such as the United Kingdom, have recognised the necessity for a stronger international influence in universities. The Higher Ambitions Report (2009) in the then Department of Labour (Department for Business, Innovation and Skills) stated that universities need to be dedicated to internationalism and appealing to the needs of international students so that they may contribute their expertise to international issues. "…they should instil a sense of internationalism by teaching them European and global perspectives and encouraging learning and studying abroad." (Higher Ambitions Report, 2009, p. 93).

Previous experience with living in foreign countries is a competitive advantage, especially towards the reduction of uncertainty of individuals in new cultural settings, as they already had some idea of what to expect in adapting to a new culture. Kerr and Schlosser (2007) highlighted that an international student's experiences and investment in education is often converted into capital with which they exposed themselves to business opportunities and perhaps also complemented their experiences in their home countries. It is the very same exposure that contributed to intercultural sensitivity. As the intensity of work and society shifted and the globalisation of commercial interests merged, an individual's aptitude to be culturally sensitive and adaptable is a real asset to possess (Anderson *et al*., 2006). This is

especially important to enable cohesion as people from various backgrounds lived and worked together (Landis & Bhagat, 1996).

Kirzner (1997) postulated that opportunity recognition is not static and information about opportunities is often unevenly distributed, according to one's international exposure. The author added that entrepreneurs operated in a constantly changing landscape of available resources and technologies.

Zhang *et al*., (2009) highlighted that theorists in the born global literature pointed to the international experience of founders as one of the contributory factors to the establishment of international firms. Authors such as Madsen and Servais (1997) and McKinsey & Co. (1993) suggested that the profiles of most born global founders could be traced back to their international education or experience in living abroad. Furthermore, prior international experience increased the chances of individual and firm learning (Oviatt & McDougall 1997) and acceptance of an entrepreneurial mindset poised for business internationalisation. Another perspective on the entrepreneurial mindset emanated from how international entrepreneurship was viewed as an opportunity. Proponents of this view were concerned with the ability to create future goods and services and how these would be discovered, evaluated and exploited (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). If that is the case, they argued the entrepreneurial mindset is the preparation for these opportunities and creating future value.

Hypothesis 1a: Previous international experience or exposure will be related positively to the development of entrepreneurial mindset

2.5.4 Pre-move visits as an aid of anticipatory adjustment

Previous research found that pre-move visits to the country of destination reduced uncertainty and encouraged some sort of familiarity with the new culture. Starr and Fondas (1992) also advocated for anticipatory adjustment because international students were exposed to new entrepreneurial socialisation as a result of living outside their countries. Eckhardt and Ciuchta (2008) mentioned that prior knowledge about

one's environment fostered differences in how individuals perceived entrepreneurial opportunities, by developing knowledge corridors for entrepreneurial alertness in specific areas. Shane (2000) presented evidence that suggestions on how to resolve these, increased the likelihood of entrepreneurial speculations to solve a problem. To further illustrate, Piroli and Anderson (1985) discovered that by visiting a location prior to moving there, an individual gained accumulated knowledge, which created unique knowledge corridors for an entrepreneurial mindset and by extension, an existence of new opportunities.

McGrath and MacMillan (2000) perceived entrepreneurial mindset as a way of thinking about business that specifically focused on managing uncertainty and thus gave credence to the supposition that pre-move visits developed an entrepreneurial mindset because it presented entrepreneurs an opportunity to impart meaning to uncertain and disjointed situations. As a result, a pre-move visit coupled with the benefits of an entrepreneurial mindset could be competitively advantageous (Miles *et al*., 2000).

Hypothesis1b: Pre-move visits to the country of destination in cultural adjustment will be positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

2.5.5 Social support from Host Country Nationals (HCNs)

Social support from the HCNs or locals is seen as an important factor for in-country adjustment, as this provided an opportunity to gain insight into the host culture and establish a close network of trusted associates. Generally speaking, positive feelings of adjustment are important and valid for student wellbeing (Grayson, 2003). The most common reasons international students often stayed on in a host country after graduation in the pursuit of opportunities is heavily influenced by the adjustment process and social support locally from family or friends (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2007). Ramsay *et al*., (2007) argued that support was often thought of in shallow terms and yet it represented a critical multi-dimensional perspective. The authors counted

down four items operationalised as emotional (communication in which it is demonstrated to foreign students that they are valued), applied (material or tangible assistance), informational (perceptive or rational leadership and guidance) and social companionship support (spending time with students in leisure and formal activities to increase embeddedness).

Negative perceptions, stereotypes and often unjustified stereotypes were often the most common aspects that undermined intercultural relations (Stening 1979), therefore first-hand experience about one another is critical. This is why Masson and Verkuyten (1993) held the view that rigorous intercultural interaction between local and foreign students provided all parties with the occasion to reconsider their misinformed opinions of each other, reassess what common values did exist that could be exploited to increase magnetism, fondness and mutual respect. Moreover, international students would most likely have a richer social interaction experience with locals that may facilitate a better proficiency in cultural knowledge, language and in the creation of a local support system (Toyokawa & Toyokawa, 2002).

It is documented that student groups experienced minimal integration and that there was little evidence of bonds between international and local students (Brown & Peacock, 2007), however friendship with locals had been labelled a critical catalyst for student adjustment (Wiseman, 1997; Brown 2009). To further illustrate, other studies have acknowledged support that international students enjoyed within their own cultural groupings, however any inability to foster relationships with local students led to poor stability and support within and beyond the university. It also undermined the acquisition of culturally relevant and specific information that may negatively affect adjustment (Volet & Ang, 1998; Furnham 2004).

Quite often newcomers in business environments lacked credibility and familiarity (Aldrich & Fiol 1994) and as a result the viability of the business venture may be compromised as they were not perceived as sufficiently legitimised, for locals to engage in business transactions with them. Lounsbury and Glynn (2001) noted that in order to gain legitimacy and acceptance, newcomers framed the unfamiliar in such a

way that it became familiar. The locals were the ones who had the capability to make newcomers feel 'human among humans' (Kohut 1984, p. 200) by forming social bonds with them thus creating a sense of social connectedness. Hendrickson *et al* (2011) said host national friendships were a healthy contribution to host communication competence (Kim 2001). This is described as the ability to gain insight into the cognition and behaviour of the locals and as a result, previously unexplained behaviour can be contextualised and readily interpreted. If international students enjoyed social support from locals they had an advantage as Neck and Houghton (2006) argued that an entrepreneurial mindset was a flexible strategy that evolved in tandem with an individual's social interaction and the prevailing environment.

Hypothesis 1c: Social support from the Host Country Nationals (HNCs) in cultural adjustment will be positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

2.5.6 Learning orientation as a bridge towards the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

Learning orientation as a theory also had implications and is a somewhat overlapping concept with cross cultural adjustment. At the beginning of the adjustment process international students are uninformed about appropriate cultural behaviour in their new surroundings and geared themselves to learn its attributes and how they could successfully participate in it. Collier (1989) emphasised that the importance of understanding a host culture could not be overemphasised. It was easier to converse and be culturally appropriate, sensitive and empathetic, while also having a multi-perspective on many issues. The unanticipated jolts taught the individuals to be more tolerant of ambiguity (Taylor, 1994) and as such, one moved from the edges of a culture to the epicentre; from a place of antipathy and unawareness to one of empathy and understanding (Lewthwaite, 1996).

Individuals with a learning orientation had a greater tendency to embrace overseas learning opportunities and often sought out opportunities that maximised their

competencies (Gong, 2003). Attentiveness to information, feedback and receptiveness of struggles in the learning process were good marks of a high learning orientation (Palthe, 2004). Redmond and Bunyi (1993) said a learning orientation was effective to facilitate social de-centering. It involved being accepting and acclimatising to others, developing others and providing a supportive environment, thus encouraging maximum productivity. Entrepreneurship is fundamentally linked to learning, therefore the extent to which an entrepreneur is able to learn and adapt within a cultural context often demonstrated their entrepreneurial potential (Callaghan, 2012). Cope and Watts (2000) said a learning orientation focused on the entrepreneur's ability to adapt to changing circumstances, because they were flexible to 'learning as they went' (Gartner, 1988), thus altering their conduct and business tactics as the environment demanded. A learning orientation trained individuals to adopt critical entrepreneurial traits, such as emotional exposure, to help them cope with uncertainty, learning how to fail and recovering from it (Deakins & Freel, 1998).

Hypothesis 1d: Learning orientation will be positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

2.6 CROSS CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE

Cultural intelligence (CQ) is described as a multidimensional construct that is composed of a 'loci' of intelligence within an individual (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2006). These constructs were described as cognitive, motivation and behavioural dimensions within an individual to effectively handle a situation characterised by cultural diversity. Earley and Ang (2003) discussed their in-depth knowledge of the constructs. Cognition acknowledged the norms and practices within different cultural settings learnt from education and prior experience. This also included an understanding of the economic, legal and social systems of various cultures. Motivational CQ facilitated goal achievement by focusing an individual's actions on learning about and functioning in situations defined by cultural differences. Lastly, behavioural CQ reflects the capability

to demonstrate situationally appropriate non-verbal and verbal responses within the context of specific cultural values.

Kim, Kirkman and Chen (2008) advanced that culturally intelligent individuals were mindful and well-informed about local cultures and as such were inspired to behave in a culturally sensitive manner. It made them content and productive, therefore more adept to studying or working abroad. Ang and Van Dyne (2008) said when an individual is capable of operating and managing effectively in a diverse cultural context, they were seen to be culturally intelligent. In essence, cultural intelligence demanded a balance between creative and practical dimensions. Ng, Van Dyne and Ang (2012) commented that cultural intelligence was society's fascination with 'real-world intelligence'. It is useful to note that there is some truth to this as cultural intelligence has gained momentum in terms of it being consolidated as a sound body of knowledge and real-life application. The U.S military has recently invested in cultural intelligence research to meet development, training and selection needs. The Department of the Army (2006) conceded that cultural intelligence was a pivotal skill that ensures the success of overseas operations, especially that which pertained to the war waged on insurgency. Furthermore, the US Army (2014) understood that while cultural intelligence was previously primarily used for operational purposes, a more strategic stance became necessary. An understanding of cultural knowledge informed the development of a programme called Human Terrain System (HTS), in order to aid combat leaders weigh the effect of military operations among a local constituency and engage local leaders to build trust, collaboration and understanding.

2.6.1 The relationship between cultural intelligence and an entrepreneurial mindset

Aspects of cultural intelligence are critical to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset, which contributed to entrepreneurial action of innovating and commercialising business ideas (Sternberg, 1997). In fact, Sternberg and Grigorenko (2006) hypothesised that students who had pursued international academic

opportunities had the capability to operationalise their cultural intelligence and develop a tacit knowledge base as informed by their country of origin and the host country experience.

Ellis (2011) advanced that an entrepreneur's cultural intelligence was a key component that contributed to the quality of global business transactions. Building on this logic, Brislin *et al*., (2006) suggested that cultural intelligence had a symbiotic relationship to entrepreneurial mindset because it taught the entrepreneur to recognise and respect cultural differences in business dealings that could be exploited for securing entrepreneurial opportunity. It also dictated means and tactics and which individuals could be involved in the establishment of an intricate web of networks and resources for business. Since entrepreneurship is fundamentally linked to learning, the extent to which an entrepreneur is able to learn and adapt within a cultural context often demonstrated their entrepreneurial potential (Callaghan, 2012). The extent to which entrepreneurs understood foreign business protocols in each of which they were engaged, sent a signal that they were credible and thus equal to the task. Furthermore, the entrepreneur's willingness to adjust their business practices in favour of foreign clients, engendered goodwill in business (Nguyen *et al*., 2004).

While the various aspects have been alluded to above, it is useful to understand how each sub construct lends itself to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset**.**

2.6.1.1 Cognitive

Ang and Van Dyne (2008) described cognition as a collection of knowledge, practices and norms in their environment, reinforced by their education and personal experience. This is the most 'tangible' of aspects that individuals were exposed to when they encountered a new environment through the prevailing political, legal, social and economic systems and general 'rules' that the concerned society lived by or accepted as normal. Earley, Ang and Tan (2006) noted that the cognitive dimension is the window by which an individual gained access and understood the complexities of a specific culture. In this way, individuals compared and contrasted the dissimilarities of different cultures and subsequently directed appropriate behaviour as

expected in that setting. Such behaviour then lent itself to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset by aiding the individual to anticipate the society's thresholds for acceptance of ambiguity in a new environment. When this occurred, the entrepreneur had a sustained higher tolerance for uncertainty and risk and therefore increased the quality of judgement in the opportunity recognition process.

Ericsson and Charness (1994) said successful entrepreneurs were noted for an expert entrepreneurial mindset and as a result of certain cognitive structures, some individuals graduated from novice to expert entrepreneurs. It is critical to note that Ericsson's research supported the argument that entrepreneurs were made and not born. Research studies have indicated that the feats of expert entrepreneurs can be attributed to them adhering to consistent cognitive processes (Mitchell 2005; Baron & Henry, 2006). Krueger (2007) said the deep beliefs held by entrepreneurs were important to analyse because they influenced stimuli processing, information and knowledge. He added that understanding deep feelings was helpful to entrepreneurship for the following reasons:

- Entrepreneurial intentions are influenced by entrepreneurial actions
- Behind entrepreneurial intentions are known entrepreneurial attitudes
- Entrepreneurial attitudes are informed by deep cognitive structures
- Cognitive structures are the result of deep beliefs

Krueger (2007) also offered that a basic premise for the movement of an individual from novice to expert is critical cognitive changes in their entrepreneurial mindset, punctuated by developmental experiences.

Hypothesis 2a: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (cognitive) and an entrepreneurial mindset

2.6.1.2 Motivation

The expectancy value theory of achievement motivation (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002) has influenced the motivation concept. The theory explained the direction and degree

of energy invested in a certain task as a result of two items: self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. Ang and Dyne (2008) explored the importance of the motivation aspect as it measured an individual's intrinsic interest and effort exerted towards effectiveness in cross cultural conditions. Self-efficacy is a central mechanism to personal agency (Zhao, Seibert & Hills, 2005) and affected the drive for risk-taking propensity and commitment to a specific course of action. Specifically, motivational intelligence has been described as the level of drive that others possessed in relation to fraternising with foreigners. As an example, in the case of the international students, it was imperative to verify if they were motivated to venture out of their comfort zones and interact with other students from a diverse background, for instance. Chen *et al*., (2012) emphasised the motivational intelligence represented the willingness or the level of one's self efficacy to overcome challenges encountered in intercultural learnings. Several studies found positive correlations between self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions (Chen *et al.*, 1998; Wilson *et al*., 2007).

Haynie *et al*., (2007) noted that an entrepreneur's motivations often influenced the attention an entrepreneur paid to contextual cues that could signal new opportunities in the market. They added that depending on the entrepreneur's motivation, the desirability of an entrepreneurial outcome was subject to variation and as such, the strategies used to enhance entrepreneurial action. Kanfer and Heggestad (1997) confirmed that motivational intelligence contributed to the entrepreneurial mindset by reinforcing a strong sense of agency and effectiveness in intercultural negotiation (Imai & Gelfand, 2010) to ensure the attainment of goals in business venturing.

Hypothesis 2b: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (motivational) and an entrepreneurial mindset

2.6.1.3 Behavioural

Essentially, behavioural intelligence is a representation of an individual's conformance of their verbal and non-verbal behaviour to what is culturally appropriate and acceptable in a foreign culture (Charoensukmongkol 2015). Individuals who

possessed a high behavioural dimension are comfortable with showing flexibility in the range of behaviour they exhibited in cross cultural intentions. These included verbal and the tricky non-verbal cues such as facial expressions, body language as demanded by various socio-cultural encounters (Lustig & Koekster, 1999).The ability to demonstrate conduct that is considered acceptable and appropriate in cross cultural interactions (Earley & Ang 2003) was often the deciding factor for whether further business networking meetings would be forthcoming. Ang *et al*., (2007) added that the display of appropriate behaviour created an entrance for entrepreneurs into inner business circles because of the good impression it created. The importance of behavioural intelligence is further emphasised by Rockstuhl and Ng (2008) when they said it enhanced a sense of understanding and similarity and it diminished the differences between counterparts.

Literature has suggested that the most successful business strategists would utilise entrepreneurial mindset. This would be embodied by the ability to sense, act and mobilise even in situations of ambiguity (Ireland *et al*., 2003) as most cross cultural interactions tend to be. Hansen *et al*., (2011) argued that the culturally acceptable behaviour of sales people was already being in tune with an entrepreneurial mindset as they reported a higher cross cultural selling than those who did not. In summary, building relationships across cross cultural lines is harder than doing the same within one's own culture as a result of differing values, modes of operation, however in the global business domain, survival is limited if entrepreneurs would not make an effort.

Hypothesis 2c: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (behavioural) and an entrepreneurial mindset

2.7 LIKE MOTHS TO A FLAME: DESTINATION SOUTH AFRICA

This section focused on key issues highlighting the choice of South Africa, in particular, Johannesburg, as a prime destination for post graduate study by international students and how this presented a unique opportunity and responsibility on stakeholders to both exploit and to gear themselves in the pursuit of entrepreneurial activity. In fact, the

UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS, 2012) report on student mobility patterns in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) revealed that South Africa is the most popular destination in Africa for tertiary education.

Ferguson (2006) highlighted how countries in the global North viewed Africa as one of those obscure places that are synonymous with 'failure and poverty'. South Africa has won for herself a reputation as a country that rose 'like a phoenix' out of the dark apartheid days to a new hope-filled anticipation for advancement and pioneering spirit. In fact, she has invariably positioned herself as the gateway to Africa's economy and the 'go-to-country' for economic development. Since the demise of apartheid, throngs of people have travelled to South Africa to take advantage of the relative stability (in comparison to other African states) and to participate in a productive economy. (Thompson, 2012). Hamilton (2006) ventured that post-apartheid South Africa stood as one of Africa's biggest economic contenders and is one of the countries that has successfully embraced its role as a regional bridge to the global economy.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) SA Report (2013) confirmed that South Africa looked very attractive to the global economy as a result of its positive strides; a fact that is also not lost on foreign nationals in pursuit of advanced educational alternatives. These include how the country Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita has risen by 40% between 1995 and 2012, the black African middle class population has doubled, leading to an increase of 3.1 million people in that bracket. It is also worth noting that the Living Standards Measure (LSM) of 10 million people has upgraded to the middle upper band, as it moved from 48% to 69% (Herrington & Kew, 2013).

2.7.1 JOHANNESBURG: CITY OF GOLD

Several scholars have proposed that cities behaved similarly to 'incubators' where innovation and creativity is nurtured. (Park *et al*., 1925; Thompson 1965; Lucas 1988; Nathan & Lee, 2013). Jacobs (1961) commented that modern cities emulated open systems which caught the attention of talented people who congregated in these metropolises and the ambience helped to stimulate their creativity. In following this

scholarly thread, Yoon (1997) proposed that migrants had a higher propensity to engage in commercial behaviour since discrimination and marginalisation from main stream society, (which also included existing businesses) forced them to resort to self-employment. Chen and Tan (2009) argued that an immigrant's familiarity with culture and a market in their country of origin that was often neglected, encouraged foreigners to take a risk to apply the idea to a new host country, which often achieved a new competitive advantage. Carter and Jones (2006) also offered reasons why migrants pursued entrepreneurial activity:

- It satisfied a purely capitalist decision as with other members of society
- The establishment of new businesses may be attributed to cultural aspects, as some cultures tended to be more motivated by entrepreneurial achievement than others
- It is a response to the 'exclusion' they endured. Entrepreneurship is a response to the prevailing inability to fit, personified through racism, discrimination or in the case of South Africa, xenophobia.

Indeed, immigrants represented a sector of the Johannesburg population, who embodied a high tolerance for ambiguity, were risk takers and often sold their services and products in innovative ways, especially through established networks.

The city of Johannesburg as a setting is one of Africa's biggest economic hubs, attracted large numbers of human capital, including culturally diverse international students. Despite South Africa's impressive strides post-apartheid, she has her fair share of challenges which dramatically played themselves out in the economic hub of the country, Johannesburg.

Home to at least 3.9 million people, Johannesburg, is South Africa's most densely populated city and is 'one of the largest conurbations' on the continent of Africa (Czeglédy, 2012). Drawn by dreams of an elusive income, hordes of hopefuls descend on the city in search of better fortunes and converge at *Egoli* which is a Nguni

derivative of the root word for ‘gold,’ an apt description to explain the allure of the metropolis.

2.7.1.1 The intricacies of a dual city

Johannesburg is a complex, restless place that may be very well enduring an identity crisis. Urban sociologist, Murray (2011) juxtaposed it as both ‘disorderly’ and a city of ‘extremes’. He also described it as paradoxically being a picture of an urban spectacle and squalor, manifested in excessive affluence and utter poverty (Murray, 2008). Rogerson (2004a) observed that Johannesburg was sometimes referred to as the ‘New York of Africa’ with its impressive financial services industry, culture as well as corporate vibrancy. Also boasting as Africa’s 3rd largest city after Cairo and Lagos (Statistics South Africa, 2001), Johannesburg houses one of the continent’s most sophisticated stock exchanges, represents a thriving urban epicentre and thus offers lucrative prospects for competitiveness. However, the developmentalist lens through which the city is often examined, revealed inequality, high levels of unemployment and crime, as well as poor housing (Hamilton, 2006).

Just as any nation demanded that those who live within it imagine themselves as citizens, in the same way in order for a city to thrive, its inhabitants need to be able to identify with it too. The complexity with Johannesburg is that both the black and white population encountered her begrudgingly. Murray (2008) mentioned how previously the city had a predominantly White European face and by 2001, the city almost became wholly black, with the addition of ‘foreigners’. He added how the white population fled the city, along with their formalised retail businesses. They held the perception that Johannesburg had gone from an area of white supremacy to a declining city of crime and grime (Tomlinson *et al*, 2003). Consequently, the African population perceived Johannesburg as a ‘city left behind’, while in the past they identified with Johannesburg as a place of employment and opportunistic entrepreneurship instead of the survivalist mode they now faced. More recently, even they are disillusioned, because as Tomlinson *et al* (2003) described it, she is an empty shell that does not belong to them either but now has to be shared with other Africans.

2.7.1.2 Pandora's Box

As it has already been established, Johannesburg is attractive to members of the diaspora, the city's openness lends itself to diversity and density, as well as another unintended consequence - tension. O'Shaughnessy (2008, p. 4) noted, "Density and heterogeneity makes the inner city a site where competition for the right to belong is that much more fierce." The city is said to be a prototypically migrant hub, but in the same vein, is one of the least welcoming cities for foreign nationals (Crush, 2008) and from the perspective of the foreign national, the city's 'hospitality' certainly leaves a lot to be desired (Tomlinson *et al*, 2003). Thompson (2012) emphasised that Johannesburg's transition post-apartheid has been interesting to observe; especially the influx of foreign nationals that have contributed to the metropolitan's economic landscape to the present moment. In 2008, widespread xenophobic attacks were reported in the media (Mosselson, 2010), and more recently anti-foreign migrant sentiments once again came to the fore in the xenophobic attacks witnessed in June 2015.

According to Statistics South Africa (2001), 65% of the foreign born population resident in Johannesburg, are originally from the other thirteen countries in the SADC region. These migrants view themselves as temporary fixtures in South Africa and hence maintain strong ties with family members and business associates in their countries of birth. Specifically, 60% of migrant owned business owners surveyed in Johannesburg confirmed that they also operated businesses in their home countries and kept solid ties, particularly in North and West Africa, as well as Europe (Rogerson, 2002). The maintenance of such ties with one's home countries, in the researcher's opinion, presents a unique opportunity for the formation of 'glocalised' networks. Glocalisation is a term coined to describe the phenomenon where one's networks are a combination of local and global as a result of new communication technologies and diverse social networks (Hampton, 2001; Wellman, 2002). Chen and Tan (2008) added that glocalization focused on social capital's ability to facilitate the process of opportunity recognition, discovery and implementation.

While not oblivious to the odds stacked against entrepreneurs (whether potential or early start), *Jo'burg* or *Joz*i as fondly coined by the locals, still represented an oasis of opportunity for inclusive entrepreneurial activity. To this day, the name of the city and citizens, almost by default, embodied the commercial spirit about town (Czeglédy, 2012). Worth noting though, is the salient matter of connectivity through the entrepreneur's networks and the fertile ground for global and trans-border connections. In fact, the dense number of informal traders also presents a unique opportunity to tap into the value chain of their enterprises. Hamilton (2006) concurred when he said Johannesburg's connectivity presented a competitive advantage because entrepreneurs could offer services and products that were unavailable in less connected areas.

Based on the premise outlined above, the researcher is convinced that there are varied business opportunities that have been insufficiently explored in this intricate web of networks. Venter, Urban and Rwigema (2008) described opportunity as a chance to improve an existing situation or to generate fresh options or perhaps a gap that in the market that is not being adequately served by the current competitors or service providers (Wickham, 1998). Johannesburg inner city is home to several institutions of higher learning and city landmarks, which the author considers as prime areas for connectivity, especially in the vicinity of intense commercial activity. For instance, these include the Wits Art Museum, the University of Johannesburg Doornfontein campus, and University of Witwatersrand main campus, among others. Koellinger (2008) underlined that higher education was allied with ideas of evolving intelligence, inquisitiveness, abstract thought processing, a sense of discipline and troubleshooting and it was these same skills that aided the development of and execution of business ideas.

International students are a productive source of connectivity who can capitalise on their environment, such as the Braamfontein streetscape, which is literally 'around the corner'. If the findings of Herrington and Kew (2013) are anything to go by, the Total Early Stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) in Gauteng is 15.4%, while the rest of the country has rate of 9.5%. Not surprisingly the TEA rate in Johannesburg is at 19.6%,

Durban is at 14% and Cape Town is firm at 7.4%. This rate indicated that Johannesburg is a prime location - only if exploited purposefully.

2.7.2 Re engineering the Inner city for economic development: Braamfontein

As a city desperate to attract tourists and business investment, Johannesburg has embraced varying labels in the recent past, including ‘world class city’ to the phrase ‘Golden Heartbeat of Africa’ and finally to ‘a world class African city’. The inner city is undergoing several structural changes to improve residential spaces, reinforce community enterprise and bolster the overall economies in the area, under the City of Johannesburg’s 2010 Urban Renewal projects.

O’Shaughnessy (2008) claimed that the African urban discourse addressed the innumerable invisible ways the inhabitants of cities could influence the larger municipal system. She added by saying the city needed be perceived as an open plain in which a resident had the ability to shape, mould and be empowered through their action and choices. This perspective drew attention to the notion that the urban dweller had the personal power to change the landscape through their endeavours. Okome (2002) suggested that cities had dual effects on its inhabitants. While, on one hand, it could ‘consume’, the citizens also had the capacity to imprint themselves on it with their own impulses and crazes.

No one could argue that inner city areas such as Braamfontein were not faced with multifaceted challenges. However, as mentioned before, opportunity exists in adversity. The Johannesburg inner city Urban Design Implementation Plan earmarked Braamfontein and Newtown as mixed use districts for commercial use in the fields of technology advancements, information and communication (JDA, 2009). That said, it presented fertile ground for students pursuing higher education at universities as well as the smaller institutions to carve out for themselves student led niche areas in the mentioned disciplines. Of pivotal importance is the fact that no opportunities can be recognised and exploited by students in the inner city, unless they are cognisant of

their sense of agency. “To be an agent is to deliberately act to ensure that things happen” (Bandura 2001, p.3).

Burocco (2013) noted that the Braamfontein project represented urban renewal that would signal a lucrative vision for the city. She added that while the private business and public agencies were actively pursuing this sentiment, the fact may have been lost on residents, small business owners and other consumers. Badenhorst (2012) advocated for the renewal project because of its potential to establish a more cohesive metropolitan fabric that would foster an ease of a ‘cross-pollination’ of people, activities and ideas between Braamfontein and Newtown, specifically as key starting points. The other areas scheduled for renewal projects include Yeoville, Bertrams, Jeppestown, Hillbrow, Berea, Pageview, as well as Fordsburg (Inner City Position Paper, 2011).

2.7.2.1 Place Branding

Zenker and Braun (2010) described place branding as a system of prevalent connotations based on a consumer’s perception in relation to verbal, visual and behavioural assertions of a place. These are often represented through the messages relayed, objectives, standards and philosophy of the area’s stakeholders and design. The place becomes a ‘product’ because of the combination of its ambience, culture, scenery, facilities as well as amenities (Cakmak, Isaac, & Hankinson, 2009). Kavaratzis (2004), as cited by Zenker (2011), explained the three-pronged communication models to expose the citizenry’s expression of a particular place:

- City architecture and real place offerings and the behaviour of a city are referred to as place physics
- Official messages relayed via public relations initiatives and advertising are called place communication
- Prevalent word of mouth tendencies via the media or the residents themselves is referred to as place word of mouth

Place communication is ongoing as the Development Framework for Braamfontein. JDA (2002) has gone to great lengths to communicate new developments such as Pocket parks and street planting to contribute to the infusion of 'green' elements and the precincts' aesthetic needs. Braamfontein may be perceived as an area that epitomised the cosmopolitan aspirations of the residents, especially those of the multitude of students in the district. Badenhorst (2012) expressed excitement that *'Braam'* as affectionately referred to by locals extended from the Constitutional Hill to Newtown, now both areas that have earned their stripes as cultural epicentres for the arts, diversity and youth expression.

2.8 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS/ SEVEN INTANGIBLES AS A MODERATING VARIABLE

A moderating variable alters the direction or the strength of the relationship between the predictor variable and the outcome (James & Brett 1984; Baron & Kenny 1986; Holmbeck 1997). As such the moderating variable serves as an interaction point, where the level or degree of one thing depends on another. The study of moderation effects has been deemed as insightful in social sciences because it enhanced the sophistication and maturity of a field (Aguinis, Boik & Pierce 2001). For the purposes of this research, the seven intangibles will be positioned as moderators per central construct; cross cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence. For this reason, after the discussion of each intangible, two propositions will be anticipated.

While it has already been mentioned that South Africa's low levels of entrepreneurial activity is a cause for concern, the government has acknowledged its role and has introduced several strategies to contribute to the stimulation of new ventures (South African Yearbook 2004/2005 (2005). Venkataraman (2004) described such as some of the scenarios of the' tangibles' that can be put in place to encourage entrepreneurial activity. He also mentioned others such as infrastructural developments, transportation systems and institutions as worthy additions for Schumpeterian entrepreneurship to flourish in an area.

This section sought to address in-depth the environmental factors, herein referred to as the seven intangibles by which Schumpeterian entrepreneurship, according to Venkataraman, could blossom and transform the economic development prospects of an area. These were positioned as moderating variables between the major constructs, cross adjustment and cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset.

2.8.1 What is Schumpeterian Entrepreneurship?

Schumpeter (1942) made reference to the concept of 'Creative Destruction' that not only transfigured the economic structure *from within*, it also relentlessly destroyed the old and continuously generated a new one. Wong *et al.,* (2005) explained that the creative destruction process was produced by innovative activity, which ultimately caused unpredictability in the economic structure. These chains of events thus created room for new entrepreneurs to enter and dominate the economic space and took advantage of the uncertainty and volatility by the provision of novel products and services. Creative destruction predominantly divorced itself from the notion that entrepreneurs operated under conditions of rationality. Mintrom (2000) discussed this fact and said rationality could not make up the profile of a pioneer because they purely relied on their instinct and resourcefulness in their way of decision making. Kuhnert (2001), who favoured the Schumpeterian type of entrepreneur, said these were individuals who had an entrepreneurial spirit and whose primary focus was to deviate from the adaptive setting; saw beyond the facade of the situational factors in which they found themselves and sought to actively shape the attributes of the situation itself.

2.8.2 Need for focal points capable of producing novel ideas

A special affinity exists between pulsating, economic areas and the knowledgeable people that are drawn to them. Lee *et al* (2004) argued that open diverse cities attracted the most talented people, thus spurring creation and innovation, which are cornerstones for entrepreneurship. It is common knowledge that expert individuals

are often in the vicinity of the region's great institutions; this is where the 'gifted and able' converge and their ideas are produced and shared (Venkataraman, 2004).

2.8.2.1 Leading Universities: More than just hallowed corridors

The focal role that universities play in enhancing the innovation system has been extensively reported on (Van Looy *et al* 2003; Drucker & Goldstein, 2007). Universities contributed to innovation dynamics firstly through the grooming and development of scientists and engineers who contributed significantly to Research and Development (R&D) initiatives (Salter & Martin, 2001; Rothaermel & Ku, 2008) resulting in the 'unusual combinations' that Schumpeter (1934) referred to. Secondly, universities provide environments for scientific research to be conducted where knowledge may be unearthed for a firm's innovation activities (Bercovitz & Feldman, 2007). It is common knowledge that South Africa has an acute shortage in the output of young people skilled in the mathematics and sciences disciplines, as reported in the GEM South Africa report (2013). Institutions of higher learning provide students, including international students, with an opportunity to contribute to the skilled labour force of the country, prepare their mindsets for knowledge intensive jobs, not to mention creating novel enterprises (Cohen *et al*, 2000).

Of the firms that are committed to the sciences (and the subsequent innovations), the now indelible marriage between technology and science presented firms with a dilemma. Due to the extended spells of uncertainty during the 'trial and error' phase of research with the addition of drawn out timeframes before a product can be commercialised, firms are loathe to invest too heavily.

2.8.2.2 Universities and Proximity: an old formula that still works

As a means to provide insight into matters of proximity, the concept was addressed in a two-pronged fashion. Firstly, proximity was codified in relation to the closeness of universities to innovative organisations, where it is hoped all these unconventional ideas can be unleashed within industries. Secondly, it is important to tackle the proximity of students to one another in universities as well as their academic support

system and how those subtleties influenced the solidification of ideas and tenacity to see them to fruition.

Glasson (2003) recorded that innovative firms situated within the vicinity of research intensive universities enjoyed a sizeable advantage, as they had premier access to top students in necessary fields seeking employment. Recent research undertaken (O'Shea *et al*., 2005; Van Looy *et al.,* 2011) showed that the prominence of universities in terms of research in science and technology had a positive impact on the entrepreneurial performance of firms. On that note, it is very plausible to hypothesise that the same is true for the technological performance of firms within close range. A good guess which is supported (Audretsch *et al*., 2008) is that it is because the cost of accessing and absorbing knowledge spill overs is reduced. Geographical proximity has a huge bearing on the value derived by nearby entities in the complexities of knowledge spill overs. According to Audretsch, Keilbach and Lehmann (2006), the essence of knowledge spillover is anchored in the supposition that areas with more pronounced innovation efforts or higher knowledge creation endeavours, should naturally have greater levels of start-up activity in the Information Communication Technology (ICT) and science disciplines. Much of the knowledge that resided in universities is said to be 'tacit' and existed in the minds of the scientists and researchers. As that is the case, experts travelled with it and most likely shared it in face-to face encounters (Laursen *et al*., 2011) and such organisations 'cashed in' on the unsolicited sharing of ground breaking technology (Massad & Mehier, 2010) that would bolster firm performance.

The social proximity of learners at the university to academic faculty personnel is worth exploring, particularly if one is to consolidate a spin off organisation (Hayter, 2016). Such an organisation is established to transfer research knowledge and possibly commercialise it. University staff involved in such work are referred to as academic entrepreneurs (Shane, 2004). Emerging literature about spin offs supported this deliberation by confirming networks could impede or enhance commercial success (Wright *et al*., 2007; O'Gorman et al., 2008; Hayter, 2013a). From this perspective, such proximity acted as an intellectual bridge that should justify the spillover and

subsequent economic impact (Acs *et al*., 2009; Hayter, 2013b). In addition, Venkataraman (2004) hoped universities would bring out in learners a scepticism, inspired by a longing for venturing on the less travelled path. For emphasis, he added, 'Scepticism is a prerequisite for change and since young people are inherently sceptical of a status quo their presence in such large numbers creates such an environment" (Venkataraman 2004, p. 163).

2.8.2.3 Proposition 3a: Contextual factors (Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas) moderates the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Cross cultural adjustment has a lot to do with transitions, changes and surprises within the context of a newcomer. Places such as universities, which are central points at which novel ideas are produced are highly influential in terms of the sense-making abilities of students. Foreign students have attributed the university as the prime area in which the most trustworthy members of their network grid have been met (Kudo & Simkin, 2003; Ying, 2002). In a business context, it is these weak ties that give foreign students access to information asymmetry that would trigger their reservoir of knowledge, skills and expertise for entrepreneurial recognition. Adjustment has contributed to foreign nationals making plans to stay further in a country after graduation to seek employment at the university or the surrounding highly sought after firms in close proximity to the university. For instance, Glasson (2003) found that 65% of sufficiently adjusted students of the University of Sunderland consciously ensured that six months after their degrees were conferred to them they still lived within close proximity of the university. Prolonged residence in an area has been proven to be a good predictor of social connectedness. As a result, those networks were part of social bridging capital (Nerri & Ville 2008) that led directly to the access of novel information, access to scarce resources (Hendrickson *et al*., 2011) that were fundamental to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset.

2.8.2.4 Proposition 4a: Contextual factors (Need for Focal points Producing Novel ideas) moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

In the context of this research, universities will be considered the prime areas for novel idea production. Bercovitz and Feldman (2007) said universities provided an environment for scientific research to be conducted, the encouragement of innovativeness and unearthing of new knowledge was unearthed in R&D activities. Alon and Higgins (2005) cautioned that the poor entrenchment of cultural intelligence led to failed leadership, stereotyping as well needless delays and conflict. Therefore such challenges had the potential to deviate from the university's objective to create innovative and bold ideas. Culturally intelligent learning models (Earley & Peterson 2004) are critical for universities as central areas for novel idea generation. The authors proposed a three-pronged model consisting of meta-cognitive (cultural sense-making and learning approaches), motivation (self-efficacy and cultural responsiveness) and behavioural (culturally acceptable imitation). All central areas for the production of novel ideas such as universities and the theatre for the arts are most adept to the enablement of an entrepreneurial mindset through cultural intelligence education. As Alon and Higgins (2005) put it, this is because it instilled in the student a motivation to keep learning, experimenting and making bold bets.

2.8.3 Need for access to role models

The issue of role models has in the recent past enjoyed wide media attention and career theory has also suggested it as the new panacea for professional and personal development. Wide ranging reports can be quoted where achievement in one's career is attributed to 'being in the company of a decent role model' and a lacklustre career performance to 'the lack of role models' (Girona 2002; McQuillan 2002; Ross, 2002).Considering the fanfare that has been enjoyed by the concept, Gibson (2004) lamented how the term had been inconsistently used and vaguely defined. Previously a role model had been linked to the traditional role where a person of influence (such

as a teacher) was the prime example to which others would aspire, and was the embodiment of a developmental relationship. It was where novices were given guidance by hierarchically superior individuals and has been substituted by an era where people create their own network of 'developers' to augment their opportunities in the corporate or business world (Higgins & Kram, 2001).

Gibson (2004) said a role model is an individual formed by one's intellectual creation based as a result of the qualities that the individual perceived they share with the person and with whom they yearned for increased similarity through emulation of their attributes. For the purposes of this report, role models were distinguished from mentors as it is also a term that lacked uniformity in its application and definition. Mentors were taken to mean individuals who gave instruction and backing to a protégé by means of a shared relationship (Higgins & Kram, 2001).

Pruetter *et al* (2006) publicised that the likelihood of most individuals to start their own commercial entities is as a result of having at least one family member with a business. Feldman *et al* (1991) also emphasised that entrepreneurs were often descendants of entrepreneurially inclined families This is applicable not only to people of blood relations, but also to close family and relatives. Schindehutte *et al* (2003) declared that children born to entrepreneurial mothers and who they considered as positive role models were most likely to venture into business than they were to opt for employment. Other authors such as Van Auken and Stephens (2003) added their voice in their study with students who were requested to rank the influence of their role models (as entrepreneurs) on their career intentions. It was found that the specific professional activities in which the role model and student engaged, led to a significant interest in venturing into the business world. Fayolle *et al.,* (2006) also mentioned that with the presence of growing self-efficacy, role models would be a positive influence on the intention to start businesses, especially if this took place in the proximity of close relatives.

Fornahl (2003) attested that social exposure lent itself to an individual's greater persuasion to become an entrepreneur, because of the sense of familiarity and access

to insight, mentorship and positive reinforcement. The same author concluded that similar opportunities were easier to venture into if references already existed. Therefore an individual's entrepreneurial intention is increased by helping to overcome the fear, inexperience and the setbacks, such as market inefficiencies, sourcing labour, forming and maintenance stakeholder relationships with suppliers, regulators and governments. Thus the implication in this regard is that if international students had access to role models who owned and ran their own successful enterprises, they themselves may be inspired to see opportunities and start their own ventures.

2.8.3.1 Proposition 3b: Contextual factors (Need for Role Models) moderates the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Prior to adjustment, international students are often on the periphery of society and have limited learning opportunities (Searle & Ward 1990). Ward and colleagues have argued that cross-cultural adjustment is best predicted by psychological outcomes (emotional/affective) and socio-cultural (behavioural) adjustment. The former is demonstrated by life changes, coping styles, satisfaction/ identification with co-nationals, and social support from co/host nationals. The latter dimension was underscored by social/learning cognitive models and emphasised the ability to ''fit in'' and the skill to deal with interactive aspects of host cultural context (Yang *et al*., 2006). Self-construal is one of the most pertinent aspects of cultural adjustment. Markus and Kitayama (1991) differentiated between two types of self-construal, based on broad cultural variations. The first type is the one most relevant to access to role models. Independent self-construal, is categorised by the expression of constructive and unique attributes, an achievement orientation and being in control of and responsible for one's behaviour and its outcomes. When adjusted foreign students have access to role models in business settings it gives them an opportunity to real life experience from planning to execution. Adjustment reinforced self-efficacy (Harrison *et al.,* 1996) and, as a result, Mueller (2006) emphasised role models made entrepreneurship a self-reinforcing phenomenon. Furthermore, an abundance of entrepreneurial role

models legitimise entrepreneurial mindset, aspirations and the actions thereof (Davidsson & Wiklund 1997).

2.8.3.2 Proposition 4b: Contextual factors (Need for Role Models) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Cultural intelligence requires the commitment of attuned and sensitive individuals to respond appropriately to foreign environments and interpersonal interactions (Alon & Higgins 2005). Earley and Ang (2003) said cultural intelligence compelled individuals to 'forget' their national contexts and rely on their ability to learn new patterns and responses in social interactions that would ultimately lead to goal achievement. The duo argued that this invariably meant newcomers in an unfamiliar setting had to find common understanding from available persons for information. Role models are consistent with aspects of social learning and role identification (Gibson 2004). The social learning theory or cognitive theory (Bandura 1986) advanced that role models could assist individuals to learn new skills. Since role models already held a favourable position in the cognition of the individual, they are best positioned to increase self-efficacy to transform entrepreneurial ambitions into reality (Mueller 2006).

2.8.4 Need for informal fora for entrepreneurship

There is no doubt how potent the contribution of role models to entrepreneurship is, however the question very few people have asked is where unfettered access to role models is to be found. Where can these individuals, who captured the imagination of so many people as they created novel, disruptive land life changing concepts be encountered, without the pressure to be measured and controlled in their demeanour? Venkataraman (2004) suggested that informal fora such as bars and restaurants were ideal places at which to engage with entrepreneurs, because their inhibition was at its lowest because these are the places they frequented to unwind. These were the places at which they comfortably spoke of their feats, anecdotes of entrepreneurial success and mistakes. He referred to these as 'trench wisdom' to exploit circumstances for the execution of ideas. Indeed children's parties, restaurants, kid's

soccer, and birthday parties are places where an entrepreneurially inclined individual discovered who they ought to meet, who was working with whom and who to avoid. This is also true for information about opportunities, acquisitions and business developments. He also added that this trench wisdom is often 'up in the air' and flowed unrestricted.

Venkataraman (2004) also emphasised informal venues were overlooked as meccas for entrepreneurial action; which was unfortunate because young people were most likely to frequent these places for face-to-face interaction with role models, field specialists and like-minded peers, with whom ideas would be exchanged freely. Venkataraman and Sarasvathy (2008) volunteered that informal forum locations are idea centres that normally attracted young people. In their opinion, idea centres are what wind is to fire, and by extension, what young people's unbridled innovative ideas are to entrepreneurship. These centres became a catalyst for a steady flow of completely fresh ideas to be birthed, because of the perceived low opportunity cost to young people. As far as most young people were concerned they had time, which should things not work, they had more time to recoup their losses. "Young people have no preconceived notions of what is right or wrong, what is a good or bad idea and what safe or risky." (Venkataraman & Saravasthy, 2008: 10). As a result, they were more dedicated to creating their own legacy, rather than being burdened with history from entrepreneurs and parents.

2.8.4.1 Entrepreneurial specialisation

Learning how to execute entrepreneurial ideas does not occur in a classroom and the availability of informal fora cannot be impressed more. Such venues also opened up new doors for entrepreneurial opportunities and also insight into a fairly new concept of entrepreneurial specialisation.

Entrepreneurial specialisation is defined as the specialisation that occurs after taking an embryonic, intellectual concept from an 'original mind' through different phases until it reached the stage of creating and developing a new market (Venkataraman & Sarasvathy, 2008). Entrepreneurial specialisation is concerned with developing a

market (for the first time) and is different from the usual functional or value chain specialisation and any other maintenance activity once the market has been established. Florida (2002) explained that informal fora had in their own right, managed new market categories steeped in novelty all along its life cycle. He drew attention to the nouveau cuisine eateries, boutique tattoo and hairdressing parlours all over the Silicon Valley.

Venkataraman and Sarasvathy (2008) hypothesised that entrepreneurial specialisation would occur in locations where (a) 'aberrant' entrepreneurial behaviour was appreciated and encouraged due to the prevailing culture, (b) areas that had urban, cultural, professional or technological hotspots, (c) where locations had idea producing centres and (d) a location where entrepreneurial education supported entrepreneurial specialisation and not just producing entrepreneurs. What this implies is that once these informal fora gain maturity and become well-established, they become idea producing focal points that feed entrepreneurial opportunities.

2.8.4.2 Proposition 3c: Contextual factors (Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurship) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

The informal fora for sharing knowledge about entrepreneurs is a plausible moderator in cultural adjustment because these fora are designed to become 'communities of practice' (Venkataraman & Sarasvathy 2008). The authors advanced that information flows were more fluid in communities of practice compared to organised structures, that highlighted often became specialised silos. Cultural adjustment, as a principle, is influenced by one's self concept (Yang *et al*, 2006) and their behaviour formed by the primary culture. In tandem with this theory, Markus and Kitayama (1998) said an individual's behaviour and its oddities were understood within a sociocultural context. The adaptation process is determined by cultural fit between the transitioning individual and the host country norms (Searle & Ward 1990; Ward & Chang 1997). It can be deduced that since informal fora are crucibles for entrepreneurial opportunities,

an adjusted newcomer will feel legitimatised to frequent these areas to develop an entrepreneurial mindset, if not make strategic ties for business.

2.8.4.3 Proposition 4c: Contextual factors (Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurship) moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

The purpose of investing in informal fora for entrepreneurship is to have access to the trench wisdom, business strategies and advice that is freely available in these places (Venkataraman, 2004). The author alluded to the fact informal fora play the same role as a safe haven for others to entertain bold and unheard of ideas. Venkataraman and Sarasvathy (2008, p. 9) expressed it as an 'interdependent ecology that could sustain and nourish a variety of ventures and markets'. Informal fora are idea centres that have embodied the notion of an open society where pluralistic knowledge is freely shared. According to Thomas *et al*, (2008), a good indicator of cultural intelligence is the initiation, development and maintenance of relationships with culturally diverse individuals. That being said, cultural intelligence is a critical competency that has favoured many a small business as it afforded the owners an opportunity to garner foreign network ties (Charoensukmongol 2015). The entrepreneurial mindset is augmented in these relationships because the businesses in the region develop from a nascent entrepreneurial stage to a more sophisticated one. In this manner, varied entrepreneurial activity would be activated from functional business to business development specialists as market ventures evolved (Venkataraman & Sarasvathy 2008).

2.8.5 Need for development of region specific ideas

In our globalised economy, regional competitiveness is considered one of the significant hallmarks of economic development (Werker & Athreye 2004; Malecki, 2007). Prosperous and economically viable local economies can be attributed to a common thing in that region - vigorous and resilient commercial activity. Malecki further highlighted that regional competitiveness had to be met by the 'high road for

competitiveness' characterised by high levels of innovativeness, 'out of the box thinking' and growth, rather than low competition prospects and a need to contain labour and capital costs. This opinion tied in with that of Venkataraman (1997) whose mentioned that most regions found themselves in a state of a 'weak entrepreneurial force' instead of one adopting a posture of transformative entrepreneurial activity. Venkataraman (2004) pointed out the importance of each region acknowledging and taking responsibility for idiosyncratic value; that which had become a core competence for the success of a region, either as a natural resource or other resource. The author argued that building region specific regions by developing idiosyncratic attributes was essential, for purposes of competitive advantage and reinforcing entrepreneurship capital should they keep at it over a period of time (Muller 2006; Parker 2004; Audretsch & Fritsch 2002).

Sustained success often comes when the region is offering the world a distinctive characteristic product or service. The Silicon Valley in the United States comes to mind as a mecca of technological entrepreneurship and innovativeness. A fledgling example in the South African context is the country's potential to utilise bio-entrepreneurship as a bridge between science and business by developing itself as a regional leader in the biotechnology space. Fick (2002) argued that African states needed to be more organised into more meaningful entities that could transform SSA into a regional hub. He further claimed that a heathy sense of homogeneity was necessary and this would facilitate a dialogue on country comparisons of conditions affecting regional entrepreneurship. Richards (2001) reasoned that for region specific ideas to be generated, there had to be an existence of shared mental nodes. Richards described the phenomenon as one's internal mental representation and interpretation of their environment that affected their decision making. Experiences reinforced or altered an individual's view of the world or their mental mode, but most importantly the shape of the mental node is moulded by the people around the individual. It is therefore this researcher's argument that the entrepreneurial culture of international students can be referred to as a shared mental node. Mantzavinos *et al*., (2004) indicated that a shared mental node was strengthened between individuals within certain socio-cultural

environments as they continuously negotiated their place in a setting, while attempting to resolve their challenges. The outcome of this process is such that individuals would bear a common interpretation of their reality, which informed further social interaction. Even through an evolving shared mental node, a continuous process of shared or collective learning endured within the groups of students (reinforced by families, neighbourhoods and fora), that allowed for systematic dissemination of knowledge capabilities.

2.8.5.1 Innovation Clusters

The creation of an environment where region specific ideas thrived through high economic performance is best implemented in the development of innovation clusters. These are defined as groups of closely related companies organised within a region presenting employment and growth of innovation in individual sectors (Delgado *et al*., (2014) or geographically close industries, sectors and companies that, because of their interrelation, enjoy shared benefits and complementarities (Porter & Stern, 1999). Porter (1998) said it is an interconnected congregation of industries that maintained an interactive relationship through support systems and production efficiencies and externalities formed in a clear division of labour. Clusters are most relevant for purposes of competitiveness and harnessing an innovation inclination that is reinforced by knowledge flows to strengthen entrepreneurial pursuits in new business formation (Fundeanu & Badele, 2014).

Delgado *et al*. (2014) noted that even though clusters bolstered economic performance in regions, it was fundamental to take cognisance of two economic forces in convergence and agglomeration. The former is described as a declining effect in the potential growth of economic activity of a region due to diminishing returns. Agglomeration on the other hand is when growth is increasing in the level of economic activity, often due to existing complementary activities that raise returns. If both convergence and agglomeration exist at regional level, it will be indicated by a balancing effect.

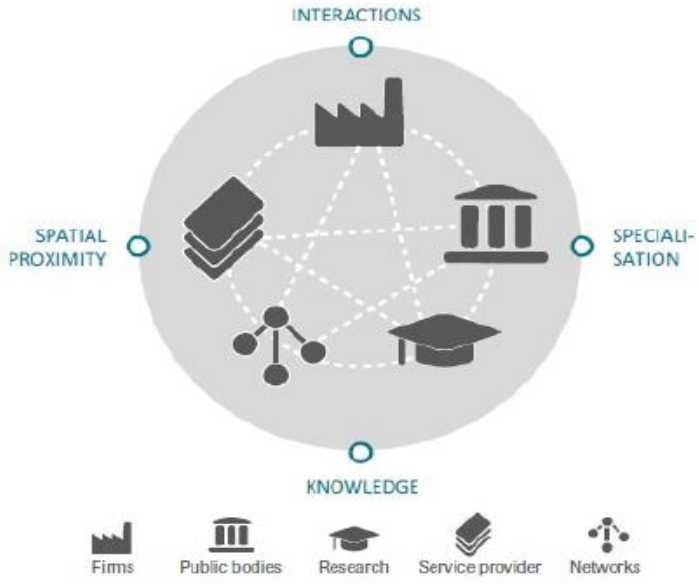


Figure 6 Cluster element (Dhewano *et al*., 2002 adapted from Terstriep & Luhthje, 2009)

Porter (1990) developed a theory about competitive advantage, founded on the 'diamond' principle. It provided a framework that illustrated the networking and collaborative relationship between government and industry through clusters.

2.8.5.2 Triple Helix Model

The diamond concept supported the Triple Helix model of technology transfer and innovation. Etckowitz (1993) first wrote about it as an interrelationship between Academia (R&D), Business and Public entities. Guth and Cosnita (2010) reported that the Triple Helix model now has a fourth component, Partnership, which addressed the issue of consulting firms, chambers of commerce and industry, as well as catalytic firms with experience in innovation transfer. The adapted Triple Helix model provides a conceptual framework that provides clarity in regional development of niche ideas, by harnessing continuous innovation and mutually beneficial relations for all stakeholders.

The catalyst organisations are responsible for co-ordination of activities within this ecosystem, such as formalising partnerships and also fostering liaison relationships

with local and regional bodies. The eminence of research universities is exploited in order to develop and commercialise new innovations. The individual players within relevant industries provided a technical platform to execute solutions in order to advance research outcomes. And this would be a win-win situation because research is based on scientific acumen, which in the case of the students in Johannesburg is recent. Hiring that crop of talented students would introduce the element of freshness in a defined industrial landscape at problem definition and solving stage (Chi & Qian, 2010; Gumbau-Albert & Maudos, 2009). Lastly, the public administration is necessary for peaks in investor confidence through local economic investment and the provision of sound infrastructure and utilities by local and regional authorities.

2.8.5.3 Proposition 3d: Contextual factors (Need for Region Specific Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Richard (2001) highlighted the importance of shared mental nodes for the creation of idiosyncratic needs in a region. This drew attention to the role played by socialisation as a variable in cross cultural adjustment (Palthe 2004). The shared mental notes are reinforced, because the adjustment encouraged the individual to develop an appreciation for the values, norms and knowledge of the area in which they found themselves. Research on cross cultural adjustment has revealed that self-efficacy is one of the indicators for general adjustment (Black *et al* 1991). Self-efficacy has been defined as the level of self-confidence that an individual has in their ability to finish a task. Earley (2002) added that an individual who did not believe in their own capability to understand people from novel cultures was most likely to disengage after experiencing early failures. Without self-efficacy in their abilities and an acceptance by the local people contributing to the development of idiosyncrasies would be limited.

2.8.5.4 Proposition 4d: Contextual factors (Need for Region Specific Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Virtuous equilibrium is the state of a region that is characterised by predictability and comfortability in its approach to economic and cultural activities (Venkataraman 2004). The same author advanced that the formulation of idiosyncratic ideas is critical for revived economic performance and novel entrepreneurial endeavours. For newcomers, cultural intelligence is related to completion of task related goals as it is related to decision making and leadership (Thomas *et al*., 2006), wherein the development of innovative area/ region specific ideas is encompassed. In this context, the entrepreneurial mindset is embraced when the individual developed and selected specific cognitive strategies that were informed by the belief that specific changes were necessary in order to secure a worthwhile opportunity (Shepherd *et al*, 2007).

2.8.6 Need for safety nets

Kabeer (2002) stated that safety nets were narrowly targeted protective measures to provide relief from deprivation to the extent that preventive steps had failed. Speaking in entrepreneurship terms, a safety net is described as a similar protection measure. For an entrepreneur, a safety net is of paramount importance, especially in the technopreneurship realm, as any attempts at newness would result in failure at one stage or another. Wonglimpiyarat (2006) reported that the prevailing culture in Silicon Valley was not to shun ‘failed’ entrepreneurs. Instead the private sector embodied an opportunistic corporate culture where ‘failed’ entrepreneurs were given opportunities in incubators and technology parks to create and bolster intellectual and networking connections.

Avnimelech *et al*., (2007) reported on an Israeli safety net mechanism based on building a competitive venture capitalist (VC) industry that invested early in high technology start-ups. This decision was taken after it became clear that many entrepreneurs failed to grow after product development phase. Despite massive

government support in the R&D phase, a deliberate policy shift was implemented because businesses still failed. Start-up formation, development and growth was made a priority and this led to the creation of the Yozma programme. Its primary objective was to solidify a comprehensive VC industry that both invested in local techno start-ups and partnered with reputable foreign firms. Senor and Singer (2009) articulated how Yozma gave entrepreneurs a lifeline because the programme took on all the risk on their behalf. Yozma would invest significantly in the company if a foreign investor also did the same. In the event the enterprise failed, Yozma would buy it back. This created a win-win situation for all stakeholders, especially the entrepreneurs, who kept pushing boundaries. Israel is one of the most recent economic miracles and the most vital place for entrepreneurship. In fact, in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Israel boasted 1.2% per cent more (than the United States) in venture capital investments (Haour, 2005). Brooks (2010) added his weight when he explained that Tel Aviv is one of the world's most formidable entrepreneurial hotspots and has acquired bragging rights to the largest number of techno-start-ups per capita, superseding that of any other nation.

In other developing nations, the social climate for entrepreneurship was stifled for a long time, thus making no room for the discussion of safety nets for entrepreneurs. In China, Liao and Sohmen (2001) detailed how the communist government had control over production and distribution. Occurrences such as what they referred to as the *Iron Rice Bowl* of lifelong employment - a system of housing and benefits provided for by enterprises discouraged living outside of the system. As a result, those Chinese entrepreneurs were forced to come up with their own safety nets; which came in the form of green cards, dual citizenship as well as separation from one's spouse and children in North America to return to work in China.

The relevance of providing innovative safety nets for entrepreneurs is a fundamental discussion. Without it, the fear of failure to create new ventures (and its far reaching consequences) as alluded to below, are most likely to increase.

2.8.6.1 The Fear Factor: Failure and Stigma

The fear of failure is described as a multidimensional construct that is perceived as hostile and feared by persons who have associated it with adverse consequences. Conroy *et al*., (2002) designed the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory (PFAI) which demonstrated five levels of failure. These are categorised as fear of experiencing shame and embarrassment, fear of lessening one's self estimate, fear of upsetting significant others, fear of ambiguity and the fear of important others losing interest. Olufunso (2010) asserted that the fear of failure and the perception of the embarrassment that came with it, is a common source of many entrepreneur's unwillingness to initiate a new venture. The prevalent social environment is an influential factor in terms of the extent to which entrepreneurs would be risk averse (Kazela, 2009).

Indeed, failure is a common concern for human beings in general, but there is an additional pressure for foreign students from sponsors, governments as well as families to do well and make them proud (Lewthwaite, 1996). Martin and Marshall (2003) conducted research on students on whether fear of failure was a friend or foe. His findings revealed that for some students, fear of failure was a 'friend' because it served as a motivational factor that forced them to try harder and persevere even in the face of difficulty. And of those students, fear of failure eventually led to setbacks and it ultimately became a source of excessive emotional upheaval. In the case of other students, fear of failure was a foe in that students made a conscious effort to be underachievers, had reduced resilience and eventually a learned helplessness. As McGregor and Elliot (2007) put it, the most undesirable thing about fear of failure and the shame, is that the individual internalised it and felt that they as a person were substandard and inept. More than that, the individual seemed to think that their flaws had been exposed to an audience and therefore felt judged and unworthy of love or respect (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

2.8.6.2 Only fools fear failure: a page from the Israeli chapter

A persistent culture of trying out new things is good for entrepreneurship because individuals and institutions stopped fearing failure; accepted and learned from it, if it came to that (Venkatarman, 2004). In Israeli culture, failure is not only normal, it is perceived as necessary for innovative and entrepreneurial behaviour to thrive. Entrepreneurs both expected and welcomed failure as an understanding that success would prove elusive without these setbacks. As a result, a non-hierarchical, high tolerance for failure culture thrived in the public sector, corporate firms as well as the military (MacAllister, 2007). Senor and Singer (2009) identified these characteristics as one of the country's idiosyncrasies to which their innovation prowess may be accredited. As an example, the authors quoted the work of a Jewish scholar, Leo Rosten, who spoke about '*Chutzpah*'. This is a Yiddish phrase that connotes brazenness, incredible guts, gall or effrontery. Guggeinheim (1998) noted that no English substitute word existed to equate the depth of audacity or the meaning of the 'willingness to dare' that the word carries. Needless to say, the entrenchment of this devil-may-care attitude and lack of restraint is the reason Israel has widened its economic gap between its regional counterparts and now competes with the best global players in the business. "Places like Silicon Valley and Tel Aviv are built by a confluence of cultural forces and not money. Surrounding nations do not have the tradition of free intellectual exchange and technical creativity" (Brooks 2010, p. 12).

2.8.6.3 Proposition 3e: Contextual factors (Need for Safety Nets) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

According to GEM SA Report (2013), South Africa was dominated by large companies, which constrained the small business development sector. The implication here is that there was a reduction in the number of intentional entrepreneurs, as many were discouraged from entering several sectors. Herrington and Kew (2013) added that the over-representation of big firms also discouraged opportunity recognition in potential entrepreneurs. In such circumstances, entrepreneurial behaviour is perceived as risky, as no social nets are provided, a rarely explored aspect in cross cultural adjustment

self-monitoring. Snyder (1974) defined it as an individual's ability to adjust his or her behaviour to external, situational factors. High self-monitors adapted their behaviour to meet the behavioural requirements for a certain situation, therefore they reactively adjusted to the situation. On the other hand, low self-monitors maintained their behaviour and did not change their actions to meet the needs of the situation. They actively tried to change the environment in order to maintain their standards of behaviour (Snyder, 1974). The argument is that most newcomers fell in the category of high self-monitors, in order to shorten the adjustment process and make it as smooth as possible. It also gave credence by Toussaint-Comeau, (2005) that international students were more likely to become self-employed immigrants after their studies, as they often possessed higher levels of postgraduate education which also made them attractive for managerial and professional occupations, thereby limiting opportunity entrepreneurship.

2.8.6.4 Proposition 4e: Contextual factors (Need for Safety Nets) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Venkataraman (2004) posited that the availability of safety nets is necessary to embolden entrepreneurs to pursue bold bets and entrench a culture of trying new things. He further made an example of such a safety net in the form of the provision of jobs after start-up failure. Nguyen *et al*., (2004) was of the opinion that cultural intelligence was contingent with cultural sensitivity to the foreign newcomer's culture and customs in order to achieve long term successful business relations. In order to ensure that the formulation of safety nets resonated with entrepreneurs, Elango and Pattnaik (2007) observed that firms needed to adopt a keen interest and knowledge of their foreign networks to develop the critical capabilities required to successfully expand internationally. The authors added with that kind of entrepreneurial mindset, foreign ties also helped firms discover business opportunities, gain access to critical resources and overcome barriers in international markets.

2.8.7 Need for gateways to large markets

According to Venkataraman (2004), entrepreneurs who plied their trade in heavily populated areas enjoyed a distinct advantage over others as the location is transformed into a testing ground for breaking innovations with a wide customer base at a low cost. In the past, literature was heavily influenced by the works of Friedman (1995) who postured cities as hierarchical elements, where world cities were at the top of the table of influence. Robinson (2002) critiqued literature on world cities, saying that Southern cities were side-lined and the conceptual maps of global cities were narrowly defined according to the dictates of the Northern cities.

In more recent history, several authors have shown an interest in referring to global cities as locations where transnational entrepreneurship took place and finance networks thrived (Beaverstock *et al*., 1999; Morshidi 2000). The emphasis is now on the connections in the city as opposed to the attributes of the city. Venkataraman (2004) was adamant that the quality and density of social and economic connections held by governments and entrepreneurs with front-runners in the gateway cities and their preparedness to use it on behalf of the citizenry would decide how successful that locale is. Sassen (2001) called to focus the fact that the new 'global cities' were spatially dispersed and whose economic development was heavily dependent on local establishments yet had global integration and organisation. Sassen added that transnational corporations were no longer the sole providers of innovations, but that these functions resided in small parts of different cities. The proximity of new business owners and business service firms was the new conduit by which access to markets is achieved. Not surprisingly, Drbohlav and Sykora (1997) described gateway cities as large urban areas situated in the periphery of economic development centres where a free flow of information, labour and capital with the surrounding regions or areas exists.

Rossi *et al.,* (2007) defended their position that accessing markets would be easier and more efficient if there was an understanding on whether cities are decision or service cities. Decision cities have been described as those in which the company headquarters is established and where decisions and instructions for outsourcing are

made. Service cities on the other hand represent centres where the servicing happens. She argued that such knowledge influenced the entrepreneur's ability to position themselves to exploit the requisite value chains.

According to GEM South Africa Report (2014), levels of established business in South Africa are very low, particularly when compared to regional counterparts in SSA. These statistics are disconcerting because these are the businesses that have progressed from the nascent phase and as a result, are responsible for job creation. The same report described how other efficiency driven economies similar to South Africa had more than three times the levels recorded in South Africa at 8.5%, compared to a bleak 2.7%. These results may very well be indicators pointing towards poor access to markets, although other factors may be at play as well. In addition to access to markets, access to exit options for entrepreneurs in risky situations, are very important. Should these alternatives not be available, the risk capital is likely to dry up and be much less forthcoming. It is necessary that policy makers investigate factors relating to business discontinuance in the country. GEM South Africa Report (2014)'s statistics recorded that business discontinuance indicated only 9% of positive reasons, whereas positive reasons for discontinuance in the SSA region is at 16%. Positive reasons may include an opportunity to sell that availed itself, selling the venture for better opportunities or planned retirement. Table 4 painted a grim picture where the indicator '*business not being profitable'* for local business increased annually.

Table 2: Reasons for business exit (GEM SA Report 2014)

	2006	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Ave SSA
Opportunity to sell	11,8	6,7	3,5	1,4	2,0	1,3	2,8	5,3	5,8
Business not profitable	11,4	31,3	26,0	24,4	32,6	28,7	36,4	42,5	27,7
Problems getting finance	32,1	29,0	27,2	39,1	24,0	28,2	28,9	19,4	20,8
Another job or business opportunity	4,3	6,8	6,0	0,9	6,0	5,4	2,9	3,2	6,9
Exit was planned in advance	2,7	1,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,8	1,8	0,5	3,4
Retirement	23,1	0,0	0,0	2,1	1,9	0,0	0,1	0	1,2
Personal reasons	14,7	21,7	21,0	15,5	15,6	19,8	23,2	19,9	16,9
Incident	0,9	3,5	6,4	1,9	0,4	0,6	3,9	9,21	7,08

* 2001-2005 not available

2.8.7.1 Proposition 3f: Contextual factors (Need for Gateways to Large Markets) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Thomas (2006) explained that the knowledge content of cultures was an invaluable asset as it formed the foundation for comprehending and dissecting our behaviour and that of others. Such knowledge also made it easier to understand the internal logic of that particular people. The social support gained from locals as part of adjustment can leverage entrepreneurial intentions while inroads are being made to access gateways to markets. Gaining access to gateways to large markets provided an opportunity for contacts in developed areas to be mediated by those from less established areas and it also meant that labour migration was attracted to the gateway because of better employment opportunities.

2.8.7.2 Proposition 4f: Contextual factors (Need for access to large markets) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Venkataraman (2004) postulated that access to large markets is fundamental to avoid a stagnant economy, which makes it easier for novel ideas to be diffused quicker and made popular because of the population density. He emphasised that access to large markets was critical as this has an effect on the quality of the enterprises that are founded. 48% of women entrepreneurs revealed that their businesses were run from home and the unintended consequence is the limited market reach (GEM SA Report 2013). E- Commerce is an equally viable platform to access large markets, however the same report revealed that almost 63% of South African youth have no or limited use of the internet for business. Venkataraman (2004) also stated that beyond the density of people in gateway cities, the social connections were equally critical for entrepreneurial activity. Earley and Ang (2002) cited cognitive flexibility as one of the most important adaptations to ensure the ease of integration in new settings.

2.8.8 Need for executive leadership

Leadership scholars have written on the evolution of the inconsistency in the conceptualisation and eventual application of leadership theory. There has been lack of consensus on definitional issues (Avolio, Sosik & Jung, 2003; Yukl 2002), challenges with measurement (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003) and model specification (Villa, Dowell, Horfman, & Daniel, 2003; Jarvis, MacKenzie & Podaskoff, 2003) among other issues. Leadership theory is now considered to be in its maturity phase (Hunt & Dodge, 2000), however the journey has not been without its own challenges.

2.8.8.1 Conceptual overlap between leadership and entrepreneurship

In the past, other scholars have debated that leadership is entrepreneurship in a distinct circumstance (Vecchio, 2003). To others, this is a unique context, where traits

and abilities may be similar to leadership but is not the same as entrepreneurship. To provide clarity, for the purposes of this work, the definition ventured by Shane and Venkataraman (2000) will suffice, that being the detection, appraisal and exploitation of opportunity for the creation of future goods and services for commercial gain.

There are several conceptual overlaps between entrepreneurship and leadership in the arenas of vision, influence, planning and leading in the context of creativity and innovation. Cogler and Brigham (2004) contrasted these attributes extensively. For example, in leadership, being a visionary is a requisite component to achieve goal directed behaviour and organisational performance (Kikpatrick, Wofford & Baum 2002), while in entrepreneurship, it suggested having attributes such as future orientation and clarity of purpose and growth imagery in relation to venture creation (Baum *et al*., 1998). Leaders used rational persuasion as a mode of influence (Hunt 2004) and entrepreneurs exerted their influence by not just recognising opportunities but also planning ways and means to execute plans. Leadership in a creative or innovative context demanded technical know-how (Mumford *et al*., 2002b). On the other hand, entrepreneurial leadership focused on generating, structuring and promoting ideas.

2.8.8.2 Executive Leadership: A call to action

Venkataraman (2004) commented that often when leadership was spoken about the first idea that came to mind was the idea of visionaries. This is a noble concept, but is of no use, if no tangible, well considered actions follow. In fact, he illustrated that when most political leaders were meant to solve vicious cycle problems, they climbed on a pedestal and pointed at the hill that had to be conquered, made grandiose promises and asserted: “this is the route we will take”. He juxtaposed such leadership from executive leadership; he described it as that type of leadership where the leader actively led people and ‘actually rolled up her sleeves and did the grunt work (p. 165)’ He decried that there were not that many entrepreneurs who were committed to ensuring that talented young people started companies, oversaw the creation of

prototypes and also ensured that the products were developed and released into a competitive product market.

Morrisette (2007) volunteered that most business had failed because of leadership ignorance and not corporate complacency or arrogance, as was commonly believed. He argued that business executives lacked opportunity obsession, which he believed was evident in imagination, intuition and innovation. To make his point, he recounted how in 1980, IBM joined the world of personal computers, needed an operating system and made contact with Bill Gates and Paul Allen. Microsoft was also in need of an operating system and fortunately the duo knew another that had one. Microsoft bought and improved with the intention to resell it to IBM. Gates 'saw around the corner' instead of selling it to IBM, he proposed to rather lease the software to the company. Morisette reported that IBM management probably saw Gates as incompetent and could not fathom building an empire on computer software sales. Microsoft is one of the largest software developers of all time and IBM is out of the computer business. The moral of the story is that Microsoft and Gates were never the innovators of that technology, but the latter was able to see and anticipate the future, and as such, show executive leadership.

2.8.8.3 Executive Leadership: A classic example

It is worth noting that limited literature exists on exactly what is executive leadership to foster technopreneurship, however, there is a classic example that embodied the meaning in context, referred to by Venkataraman (2004). Hampden-Turner (2010) chronicled the actions of Professor Tan Teng-Kee, the head of the Technology and Innovation Programme (TIP) at the university. Professor Teng-Kee is an entrepreneur and a corporate executive who obtained his Doctorate degree from the University of Cambridge in 2002. He is an alumnus of the Nanyang Technological University (NTU) and he designed the TI programme with a strong emphasis on Dilemmas Methodology.

‘Prof Tan’ as he was affectionately known designed a programme superior than the average graduate school programme in the technopreneurship field in Singapore. He achieved this by creating an ‘innovation ecosystem’ stretching from Singapore, China and finally ending in the United States. The ecosystem began with an intense Outward Bound exercise where individuals would be taught to be productive in teams as they learned to recognise new prospects in predicaments. The journey proceeded to China to the Chinese Heritage Centre. As NTU is a bona fide Chinese university, Prof Tan engineered the programme to ensure that students understood it was not solely built through the efforts of entrepreneurs, but also on the backs of impoverished Chinese peasants. This experience helped concretise in the minds of students the ‘redline’ concept. It is an idea that helped learners connect the dots between their heritage and the legacies they should leave behind in the technology space. Students also participated in visits to Shanghai to experience the techno-incubators and universities near Beijing. The American experience included a trip to Seattle to visit firms such as Starbucks and Google. Furthermore, students learned about and championed inventions unveiled at the Bioengineering School at the University of Washington; where a multidisciplinary approach to medicine, biology and science was encouraged. Students were expected to write business plans on these inventions and how they would commercialise them. They also pitched them to actual venture capitalists, who were not merely there to share information with students, but also came in their capacities as active practitioners in the field of entrepreneurship. Finally, throughout the duration of the programme, students engaged in simulations of reality and in ‘serious play’ of running a business. This approach accelerated the trial and error period, allowed creativity, innovative flair and also the experience of business failure.

The purpose was to ensure that learners were confronted with an environment that was filled with conflicting stimuli such as great optimism, great distress, great riches and disparaging poverty as well as a strong sense of heritage and anticipating future prospects through legacy.

It is clear from this example that developing this kind of executive leadership requires a great investment in time and resource allocation and is critical to nurture promising talent and cultivate them into such executive leaders.

2.8.8.4 Proposition 3g: Contextual factors (Need for Executive Leadership) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

As mentioned earlier, executive leadership is critical for the recognition, appraisal and exploitation of opportunity for the creation of future goods and services for commercial gain (Shane & Venkataraman 2000). Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) hypothesised that intercultural stress, communication, and relationship skills are positively related to cross-cultural general adjustment. Black and Mendenhall (1990) suggested a three-dimensional typology of cross-cultural competencies, self-maintenance dimension, the relationship dimension, and the perception dimension. Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) said a leader's emotional stability is the stability component of self-maintenance dimension, while dynamic competencies are cultural knowledge and stress management skills. Extraversion and agreeableness are the stable competencies of the relationship dimension, and the dynamic competencies of this dimension are cultural knowledge, relationship self-efficacy, and conflict resolution skills. Finally, the perceptual dimension consists of the stable competencies openness to experience and conscientiousness, as well as the dynamic competencies cultural knowledge and perceptual questioning skills. An executive leader lacking in these aspects is most likely to struggle to inspire the activation of bold, novel bets.

2.8.8.5 Proposition 4g: Contextual factors (Need for Executive Leadership) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

While international business is a foremost force in daily business, several deficiencies exist in the calibre of leadership in most firms (Sutaari 2002). Manning (2003) summarised the leadership studies of several scholars concluded the following:

- One-third of executives in the Fortune 500 firms underperformed in their international assignments based on their supervisor evaluations
- Technical and organisational skills are the erroneous premise on which executives have been promoted to international assignments

As a result, customised global leadership development needs be a priority for business and firms that operate across cultural cultures. Alon and Higgins (2005) touted the importance of cultural intelligence for executive leadership. House *et al*., (2002) promoted the augmentation of cultural intelligence in business and added that successful enterprises were dependent on the leader's ability to understand the regional and cultural diversity of the business environment. Zakak and Douvas (1999) also said cultural intelligence was the key to business intelligence. To further demonstrate the point, Manning (2003) said the need for cross-cultural executive leadership was urgent for global effectiveness, especially for entrepreneurial firms.

2.9 CONCLUSION OF LITERATURE REVIEW

This review discussed the cross cultural adjustment of international students from the perspective of anticipatory (international exposure and pre-move visits) and in-country adjustment (learning orientation and social support) with the understanding that these will ease the student into the life and culture of the local environment. Cultural intelligence embraced the appreciation for appropriate social cues so as to understand society's norms and practices and addresses the intrinsic motivation to exhibit behaviour to elicit entrepreneurial activity. The attractiveness of South Africa, and that of its commercial hub as the cradle in which the seven intangibles of Schumpeterian entrepreneurship, is also explored. The review lessons learned by developed countries regarding the environment exposes benefits and equally the complexities that require further scrutiny should these be implemented.

3 CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This segment outlined the procedure used to conduct this research. It began with a deliberation on quantitative research followed by an appraisal of the research design and research instrument used. The section also addressed the research paradigm from which the researcher undertook the study and why the chosen methods were most appropriate. Matters relating to data collection and analysis in relation to the work were provided, accompanied by a discussion on the validity and reliability of the research. Finally the ethical considerations in this research were considered.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

A theoretical paradigm has been cited as crucial to appreciating the overall perspective form which research is considered and implemented. In keeping with this train of thought, Krauss (2005) defined it as the foundational basis on which a scientific analysis is made or a bundle of plausibly held conventions and conjectures that influences research (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982).

Research philosophy is often categorised between two extremes; that of positivism and interpretivism. Kim (2003) said positivism is based on the supposition that certain universal laws directed social events and once a researcher understood these laws, they could anticipate, define and control social occurrences. Saunders *et al* (2000) theorised that investigators were independent of the research or that they were not affected nor were they part of the inquiry. At the extreme end of the continuum, the interpretivist stance is concerned with a need to comprehend the belief and value system and connotation attached to social marvels. With regard to interpretivism, it is important to note that the investigator is not external to the study, in fact, they may be part of it, whether directly or indirectly.

This research report conformed to the positivist paradigm because it allowed for deductive reasoning (Hyde, 2000) and the work output is independent of researchers as discoveries were made and proven through open observations and measurements of the events (Krauss, 2005). Wilson (2014) confirmed that if one took a positivist epistemological position, it was most likely because of the objectivity it offered the researcher.

The focus for the research strategy for the study is quantitative research. Quantitative research allowed for enumeration of collected data and it was exposed to statistical handling in order to support or contest different knowledge claims (Creswell, 2003). Quantitative research is an investigation aimed at testing hypotheses through numerical values rather than using words as a description for complicated events or phenomena (Newton Suter, 2006). It is also useful to get a representative sample from the population so as to make it generalisable to the greater population. Quantitative data collection is beneficial to allow for a methodical and uniform method for evaluating disparities. The author also added that examination of patterns of association between variables was possible but the biggest drawback was the establishment of the direction of influence between variables seeing that collection was done simultaneously. This makes for diminished manipulation by the researcher (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

It is important to acknowledge the reflexivity that influenced this research. Finlay (2002) described reflexivity as an examination of the researcher‘s inter-subjectivity and its influence on the study. Finlay (1998) recommended that reflexivity should not be exploited as a wilful focus on the researcher’s subjectivity. Rather it should be used as a springboard for interpretation and deeper insight. This study was particularly important to me because throughout my pursuit of higher education, from undergraduate degree to this very moment, I have been an international student. I have first-hand experience on studying outside of one’s country and the richness of that experience. I have been an international student for over 6 years and I am the first to admit that in all that time I have not been concerned with the development of an entrepreneurial mindset until I was exposed to entrepreneurial education in my

current degree. My cross cultural adjustment journey was never an arduous one and my cultural intelligence was passable at best, and I paid little regard to environmental factors that may have impeded or enhanced any entrepreneurial outlook. An objective outlook was definitely necessary with regard to this report to gain insight into the matter.

3.2.1 Epistemological and ontological considerations

Krauss (2005) defined epistemology is a derivative of the Greek word ‘episteme; which means knowledge. Epistemology is referred to as the nature and scope of knowledge and the manner in which it can be acquired (Symon & Cassell, 2012). Put simply, epistemology is how one comes to know or the viewpoint of knowledge (Trochim, 2000). Epistemology is intimately related to another concept of ontology. Ontology is the philosophy of reality and the state of being (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Studies have been conducted by various authors on international students and transnational migration (Altbach 2004; Terjersen 2009; Liu-Farrer 2011) and more on transnational networks (in Silicon Valley) and regional development (Saxenian 2004). Therefore this study took into cognisance these scholarly backgrounds that have shaped real time events. As a result, this study focused on closing a gap where international students in Johannesburg were proficient individuals in cultural intelligence and were aware of the contextual factors that influenced the development of an entrepreneurial mindset.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The methodological approach used is the cross sectional method. It was the most appropriate, taking into consideration the time and resource constraints attached to the study. Cross sectional design is concerned with the collection of data on more than one case at a single point in time for the collection of quantitative data (in this case) and usually with two or more variables in order to detect a pattern of association (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This was achieved by way of a self-administered electronic questionnaire format on the University of Witwatersrand Qualtrics data collection

portal. Surveys in questionnaire format are best suited to a quantitative research. The advantages are that there is reduced artificial influence in day to day activities and the disadvantage may be that this method lacks random sampling and often leans towards convenience or purpose sampling. Another disadvantage is that internal validity is often difficult to prove.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

3.4.1 Population

According to correspondence from the university's International Student's Office 2 662 international students were registered for the year 2015. This was considered the population. The figure excluded all those enrolled for non-degree purposes (such as cultural exchange programmes) and students enrolled for e-learning or any forms of distance learning as it defeated the purpose of social embeddedness or community interaction required in the study.

3.4.2 Sample and sampling method

The sample comprised 134 international students who have been studying towards the following disciplines a) Finance, Accounting, Business, Management and Economics) (FAME) b) Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM). This is an appropriate sample because these are the top two subject areas in which international students enrol (QS World Graduate School Survey, 2013). The sampling approach used was one of convenience with the hope that large numbers could be accessed as a result of ease of access to international students. As an international student, this researcher enjoyed fewer barriers in terms of accessing fellow contemporaries based on the main campus. In addition to that, the main campus of the university is where the majority of international students are registered and where the largest international student residences are situated.

Table 3: Profile of respondents

University	FACULTY	LOCATION	DEMOGRAPHIC
University of Witwatersrand	FAME, STEM,	Johannesburg	Studying towards a minimum 3 year degree

3.5 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Cross cultural adjustment is the first variable to be operationalised by eight items adapted from Black (1988). Respondents were requested to indicate their anticipatory (C2 A-B) and in-country adjustment (C3 A-C).These were designed as Yes/No response questions, with Yes coded as 1 and No coded as 2. Further questions on the respondent's learning orientation (C4 A-D) were adopted for the study. These were adapted from Porter and Tansky (1999)'s four item learning scale. Examples of questions is 'the opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me' to which a 7-point Likert scale was attached, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, which allowed the researcher to get a nuanced approach by acknowledging that feelings of extremism may be permissible. Cronbach alpha for that scale in previous studies was 0.75 (Palthe, 2004).

Cultural Intelligence was operationalised using a nine item scale, divided into three sub-sections namely cognitive, behavioural and motivational aspects of cultural intelligence. Scales were adapted from Earley and Ang (2003), based on the theories of Sternberg (1986). In this case, a 7-point Likert scale was also used to indicate degrees to which respondents agreed with the questions. It ranged from strongly

disagree to strongly agree. The Cronbach alphas were recorded at 0.85 (cognitive), motivational (0.71) and behavioural (0.83) (Ang *et al*, 2007).

The environmental variable was a moderating variable in Question E1 –E7 for all seven intangibles. The questions were created from the issues raised by Venkataraman (2004) in his seminal paper, where this matter is concerned. It is worth noting that there were no developed scales for this construct and as a result, no reliability scales. Where entrepreneurial mindset is concerned, the twenty four item scale developed by Gollwitzer (1990) was adapted to a six item template. This section was operationalised through six items between F1-F3, wherein each sub section was addressed by *elaborating mindset*, *implementing mindset* and *compulsiveness about business ideas* respectively. It was also designed on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from very rarely to very frequently. The Cronbach alpha yielded 0.80, 0.92 and 0.88 respectively for previous studies (Mathisen & Arnulf 2014).

3.6 PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

The original plan was to administer the questionnaire with the help of class representatives from the selected faculties as well as research assistants. In mid-October, the first of #FeesMustFall protests began in several higher education institutions in the country. By the 21st of October, they had gained momentum and the Wits main campus was shut down until the end of the month. The university opened its doors in early November for classes to resume, however most students were off campus to prepare for their exams. As a result, the questionnaire was handed out mostly within residences on campus with the help of research assistants. A consent form was attached to the hard copies to explain the purpose of the study and all necessary ethical considerations. The tense situation of looming exams hampered rapid data collection, at which point to complement the process, the researcher created an online questionnaire on Wits Qualtrics. After which assistance was also requested from the International Student Office to send the questionnaire directly to students' Wits email addresses. The researcher also made special arrangements with

residence clusters to circulate questionnaires on the intranet to encourage participation. Strict care was taken to not disrupt any academic programmes during the study.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Data was scrutinised statistically using SPSS programme version 22.0

3.7.1 Descriptive Statistics

Black (1999) said descriptive statistics were simply the collation of data that could provide various insights, although causal relationships could not be established. Descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation and frequencies were used to summarise data. Frequencies were mainly used for categorical and ordinal data.

3.7.2 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis refers to several statistical techniques that are aimed at simplifying complex data sets (Kline 2014). It was carried out to assess the validity on the various constructs. Validity refers to the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Kline 2014). The convergent validity was shown by factor loadings provided. Factor analysis output refers to the amount of weight assigned to the factor. Here we are interested in significant factor loadings. Factor loadings less than 0.4 were considered to be insignificant and hence removed from the model.

3.7.3 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results

According to Brown (2015), confirmatory analysis is a variation of Structured Equation Modelling (SEM) that specifically tackled relationships between measured indicators and latent variables. The purpose of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is to represent

the existing structure of correlations among measures and variables in a fairly small set of latent variables (Fabrigar *et al*, 1999). This analysis was conducted to assess the structure of the observed measures based on the items that were retained after the initial exploratory factor analysis. The CFA was carried out with using Amos 21.

3.7.4 Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the internal consistency (reliability) of all multiple item scales. Internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a multiple item scale measure the same concept or construct (Hair *et al*., 2006). The value of the Cronbach's Alpha ranges from zero to one and the closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale (Gliem & Gliem 2003).

3.7.5 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is a procedure used to predict the variance in a dependent variable based on linear combinations of interval, dichotomous, or dummy independent variables (Cohen *et al*., 2013). It was used to assess the causal relationship between environmental factors, cross cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset.

3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study presented results in a cross sectional context and thus removed the insight that a longitudinal study may have presented (Callaghan 2009). For instance, this may have included a representation of the sequential advances in stages of development in international students and a result, a potential for differing responses. Another challenge is that causality is often not established, at best an association can be verified but causality cannot be implied (Bryman, 2004).

A major critique was that as with most entrepreneurship based studies the sample size was too limited (Levie *et al.,* 2009; Athayde, 2012) and the results could not be generalised. Another drawback is the lack of having control groups and an over reliance on cross-sectional study.

Short *et al.* (2010) mentioned that research in entrepreneurship conducted from a management perspective is more helpful for practitioners than for academics, because of its practicality. This research may prove lacking in its philosophical underpinnings and be worthwhile in terms of its practicality, which has unintended consequences, because it watered down entrepreneurial research and as a result, potentially inhibited the development of the subject as a credible academic discipline (Leitch *et al.*, 2010). Similar to most entrepreneurship studies, this study used one distinct methodology of quantitative research and the lack of mixed methods methodology may have robbed the study of further perception and understanding.

3.9 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) said all research needed to be defensible to the research stakeholders as well as the communities that would benefit the most, especially with regard to the way in which it was conducted, construed and distributed. Where quantitative research is concerned, issues of research integrity and defensibility are addressed through reliability and validity.

3.9.1 External validity

The external validity of research allowed data to be extrapolated across persons, settings, and times (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Easterby-Smith *et al.,* 2008). The researcher attempted to achieve external validity by sampling respondents through a pilot study. The researcher administered a printed questionnaire to a sample of 40 respondents, which had at least 60 items via the International Students' Organisation (ISO) at the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT). International students who

studied at the Pretoria West campus were sampled. The piloting process helped the researcher to understand respondents as well as the specific context and therefore strengthen the validity process in preparation for the actual research (Callaghan, 2009). All ethical obligations on the researcher's part were taken into consideration.

3.9.2 Internal validity

To enhance internal validity, the researcher took measures as far as possible to ensure that the actual research instrument measured that which was meant to be measured (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2008). The questionnaire was edited post pilot stage to avoid ambiguity, thereby confusing respondents. The questions were kept short yet comprehendible thereby preventing the respondent from becoming fatigued or uninterested. Care was taken not to disrupt classes or any official academic activities.

3.9.3 Reliability

Reliability is concerned with estimates of the degree to which a measurement is free from random error. A measure is said to be reliable to the degree that it produces consistent results (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Other authors defined it as the consistency with which a concept is measured (Bryman & Bell 2007; Saunders *et al.,* 2000). Internal consistency reliability indicated the consistency with which the respondents responded to the questions on the scale. The researcher made an effort to keep the items in the instrument as homogeneous as possible per section such that it reflected the same underlying construct.

3.9.3.1 Piloting the questionnaire

Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002) described 'pilot studies' as referring to smaller varieties of a full-scale study and are useful for the pre-testing of a certain research instrument, such as a questionnaire or interview schedule. The authors acknowledged that piloting is recommended for a good study design. While it may not guarantee success in the main study, it did increase chances of success. The piloting exercise

was conducted at the TUT Pretoria West campus in September 2015. The researcher made arrangements with the International Student's Organisation (ISO) Executive Committee officials to hand out questions at the end of lessons, during breaks and at extracurricular sites. A total of 45 were returned but only 40 could be used for assessment. To test the reliability of the items, the coefficient alpha tested consistency among items. These Cronbach's Alpha (CAs) are fundamental because they are an indication of the internal reliability that has been ascertained, because of how closely related the items are to one another, per construct. While different authors differed on what they deem as acceptable CAs, Hair *et al*., (2006) offered that 0.7 was ideal although 0.6 could be accepted in exploratory inquiries. Items showed strong correlations with the exception of items such as *the need for safety needs*, (0.188) the *Need for Executive Leadership (0.322)* and *the Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurship (0.321)*. The items were retained in the questionnaire, however in a bid to improve the levels of the CA's, questions were simplified and grammar was revised to improve the responses for the actual research. The length of the questionnaire was also revised.

3.10 RESEARCH ETHICS

The first port of call for researchers is to protect the rights of respondents and all those who may be involved in research activities. A secondary responsibility is to ensure accountability to the wider members of society. Bryman and Bell (2007) have categorised four areas as critical for researchers to pay attention to:

- If research poses harm to respondents
- If any acts of deception have been involved
- If a lack of informed consent exists
- If there has been an invasion of privacy

Guillemin and Gillam (2004) mentioned two types of ethical matters to be taken into consideration. These are procedural ethics that are more concerned with the request for approval from all appropriate structures and then there is ethics-in-practice which

are the everyday decisions that researchers need to be cognisant of. This researcher respected ethical obligations as she made a request to the office of the Registrar for permission to conduct research at any of the campuses, for which approval was granted. The researcher also received approval and support from the International Office who sent out the questionnaire from their offices. It is also noteworthy to mention that support was received from residence cluster managers for local circulation within residences in attempt to increase participation. These documents are marked as Annexures B and C respectively.

3.11 CONCLUSION

The researcher used a quantitative, descriptive survey design. Initially questionnaires were administered by the researcher and subsequently, electronically administered, to collect the data from a convenient sample of 134 subjects. The questionnaires had both closed and open-ended questions.

Permission was sought and obtained from the university Registrar, the International Student's Office and residence cluster managers. Informed consent was obtained from the subjects themselves. The researcher went to great lengths to afford and ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of subjects during administration of the questionnaires and report writing. Questionnaires were distributed to subjects to ensure validity. Reliability and validity were further increased by pre-testing the questionnaire. This chapter described the research methodology, including the population, sample, data collection instruments as well as strategies used to ensure the ethical standards, reliability and validity of the study.

4 CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This section addressed the presentation and description of results and from the outset, the focus was on high level illustration of the demographic sample and the reasons why students chose South Africa as the destination of choice at which to pursue their degrees. The researcher presented findings on major constructs of cross cultural adjustment, cross cultural intelligence and the environmental factors are subsequently explored.

4.2 DEMORAPHICS PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

The sample consisted of 134 respondents, of which 55% were male and 45% female. Close to half of the respondents were 18 – 24 years old (48%), 29% were 25 - 29 years old, 11% were 30 – 34 years old while the rest were 35 years and older (12%).

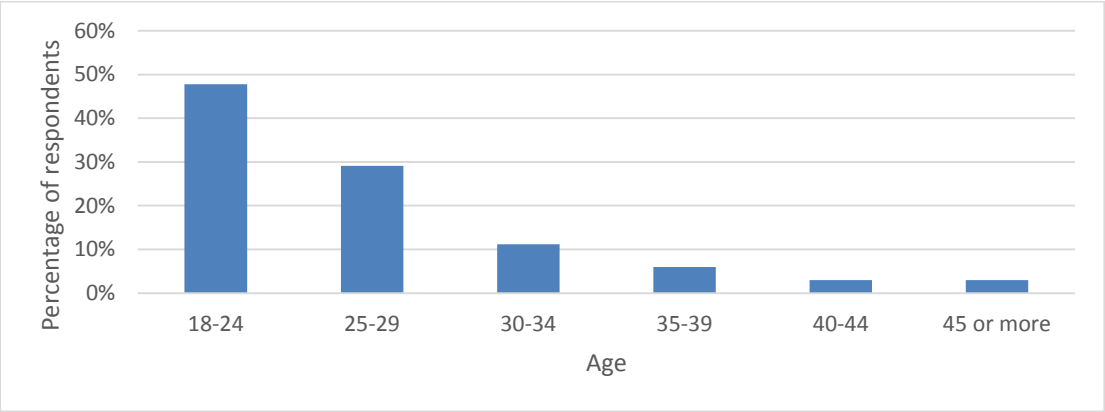


Figure 7 Age profile of survey respondents

The reasons provided for studying in South Africa are mainly international recognition of qualifications (58%) followed by availability of scholarship (17%) and prospect of gaining employment after graduation (16%). More than half of the students (55%) had

organised a pre-move visit, prior to enrolment and 43% have lived in South Africa or another foreign country before enrolling.

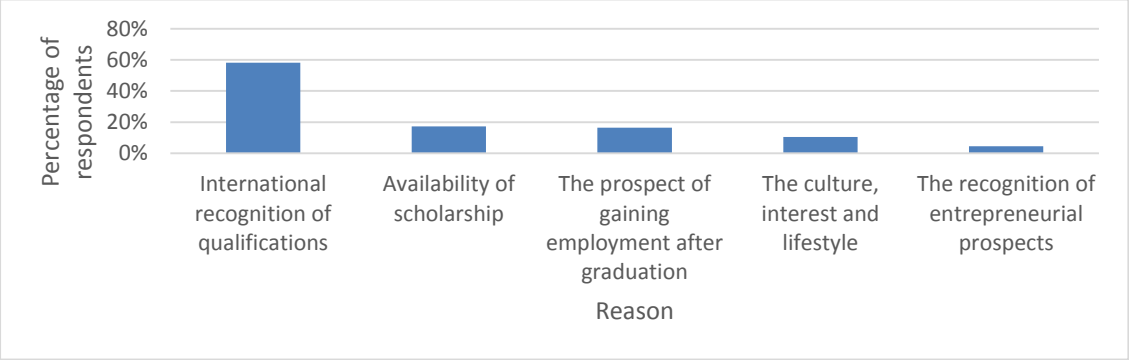


Figure 8 Reasons provided for studying in South Africa

Nearly two in every three students (64%) indicated that they have received social support while in the host country. It can however be noted that about one in every three respondents indicated that they faced difficulty in formulating a social network with Home Country Nationals (HCNs) or locals they trusted (38%).The foreign students indicated that they received social support from their family or friends to increase social integration with HCNs (64%).

Only 35% of the students in the sample indicated that they were familiar with Cultural intelligence as a principle and only 12% received cultural intelligence training prior to departure from their country.

Table 4: Sample Demographics

Variable		**Frequency**	**Percent**
Gender	Male	74	55%
	Female	60	45%
Age	18-24	64	48%
	25-29	39	29%
	30-34	15	11%
	35-39	8	6%
	40-44	4	3%

	45 or more	4	3%
Reason for Studying in South Africa	International recognition of qualifications	78	58%
	Availability of scholarship	23	17%
	The prospect of gaining employment after graduation	22	16%
	The culture, interest and lifestyle	14	10%
	The recognition of entrepreneurial prospects	6	4%
Pre-move Visit	Yes	74	55%
	No	60	45%
Lived in South Africa or another Country	Yes	57	43%
	No	77	57%
Social support	Yes	88	66%
	No	46	34%
Difficulty in formulating a social network with HCNs you trust	Yes	51	38%
	No	83	62%
Support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals	Yes	86	64%
	No	48	36%
Familiar with Cultural Intelligence as a principle	Yes	47	35%
	No	87	65%
Had Cultural Intelligence training prior to departure	Yes	16	12%
	No	118	88%

4.2.1 Measurement scales

The constructs Cross Cultural Adjustment (Learning orientation) was measured using a five item multi scale with each item measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from

strongly disagree to strongly agree. Cultural Intelligence, which had three sub-constructs namely; Motivational, Behavioural, Cognitive, was measured using a nine item multi-scale with each sub-construct having three items.

The construct Environmental Factors was measured using a fourteen item scale with seven sub-constructs while Entrepreneurial Mindset was measured using a six item scale. All the attributes within the various constructs were measured using the same 7-point Likert scale that also ranged from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Factor analysis was conducted to assess the scale validity for each construct and Cronbach's Alpha was used to assess reliability of the scale for each of the constructs. The results are shown in Table 5. Variables which were not highly correlated to the other attributes within the same construct were removed from the construct. This was assessed by checking variables with low factor loading (<0.4) and those that resulted in the reduction of the Cronbach's Alpha. The results for Cronbach's Alpha and Factor analysis are shown below;

Table 5: Reliability and Validity

Construct	**Sub-construct**	**Item**	**Factor Loading**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Cross Cultural Adjustment	Learning orientation	The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me	0.962	0.950
		When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I do it	0.954	
		I seek opportunities to work on tasks that force me to learn new things	0.910	
		The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me	0.906	
Cultural Intelligence	Motivational	I am sure that I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me	0.877	0.876

		I am motivated to interact with people from other cultures	0.875	
		I am confident that I can socialize with the locals	0.866	
	Behavioral	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross cultural situation requires it	0.857	0.763
		I change my verbal behavior (e.g. accent, tone) when a cross cultural interaction requires it	0.855	
		I alter my facial expressions when a cross cultural interaction requires it	0.720	
	Cognitive	I know the legal and economic system of SA	0.849	0.742
		I know the arts and crafts of cultures in SA	0.824	
		I know the rules e.g. (grammar) of the languages in SA	0.702	
Contextual factors/ Environmental	Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas	I consider my institution a top university	0.911	0.786
		My university produces innovative ideas	0.911	
	Need for Role Models	I am aware of several entrepreneurs who can access funds for high risk/ high reward ventures	0.904	0.775
		I am aware and/ or have access to young role models who have initiated successful innovative entrepreneurial projects	0.904	
	The Need for Region Specific Ideas	I know tertiary students are exposed to programs to generate region-specific knowledge to create competitive advantage	0.902	0.763
		Tertiary students in Johannesburg are exposed to programs to develop entrepreneurial solutions	0.902	

	The Need for Gateways to Large Markets	Living in Jhb as an international student is ideal because the uptake of innovative entrepreneurial ideas is quicker	0.922	0.821
		I consider Jhb a gateway city to business as the quality and density of social network will assist me to gain access to entrepreneurial opportunities	0.922	
	The Need for Safety Nets	Safety nets (e.g. providing jobs for entrepreneurs after start up failure) reduces fear of failure, encourages trying new things	0.768	0.301
		I know institutions that value start- up experience, even if the company failed	0.768	
	The Need for Executive Leadership	I am interested in gaining access to leaders who ensure young people produce innovative ideas and establish companies	0.767	0.283
		I am exposed to mentorship programmes that will groom me to find competitive markets and develop products	0.767	
	Need For Informal Forums For Entrepreneurs	I have access to role models to exchange ideas face to face because of various informal platforms in Jhb	0.786	0.366
		I believe informal settings like restaurants are appropriate for conversation about entrepreneurship	0.786	
Entrepreneurial Mindset		I often focus on information that appears relevant to becoming engaged in entrepreneurial activities.	0.923	0.905
		I'm thinking about possible business ideas, and consider becoming engaged in entrepreneurial activities.	0.907	

		I often think that I have or can obtain the necessary know-how to become engaged in entrepreneurial activities.	0.857	
		I'm considering whether I have the opportunity financially to become engaged in entrepreneurial activities	0.856	
		My friends have stated that I seem to be excessively interested in business ideas.	0.734	
		In conversations with others I become distracted by business ideas that pop up which I cannot talk about right then.	0.683	

All the variables had a very high factor loading onto their respective constructs with a minimum of 0.683 and values as high as 0.962. This implies that the constructs were valid. The Cronbach's Alpha values were very high for all constructs and/ or sub-constructs except for The Need for Safety Nets (0.301), The Need for Executive Leadership (0.283) and Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurs (0.366) which had Cronbach's Alpha values less than the minimum acceptable value of 0.7.

The item 'Safety nets (e.g. providing jobs for entrepreneurs after start up failure) reduces fear of failure, encourages trying new things' was used to represent the construct. 'The Need for Safety Nets', 'I am exposed to mentorship programmes that will groom me to find competitive markets and develop products' was used to represent 'The Need for Executive Leadership' and 'I have access to role models to exchange ideas face to face because of various informal platforms in Jhb' was used to represent 'Need For Informal Forums For Entrepreneurs'. For all these constructs, the stated questions were operationalised by the degree of access respondents had to each.

Cross Cultural Adjustment (0.950), Cultural Intelligence: Motivation (0.876), Cultural Intelligence: Behavioural (0.763), Cultural Intelligence: Cognitive (0.742),

Environmental Factors: Need for Role Models (0.822), Environmental Factors: The Need for Safety Nets and gateways to large markets (0.754), Environmental Factors: Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas (0.786) and Entrepreneurial Mindset (0.905). These values were very high, implying that there was very high reliability (internal consistency). Thus the items in each scale can be combined to form a summated scale for that construct.

4.2.2 Summated scale

The summated scale for each construct/ sub-construct was computed by calculating the average of the items within that particular construct / sub-construct. The descriptive statistics for the resultant scales are shown below;

Table 6: Descriptive statistics for constructs

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Environmental Factors: Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas	134	2.5	7	6.16	0.953
Cross Cultural Adjustment: Learning orientation	134	1	7	5.88	1.499
Cultural Intelligence: Motivational	134	1	7	5.73	1.182
Environmental Factors: The Need for Safety Nets	134	1	7	5.27	1.467
Environmental Factors: The Need for Gateways to Large Markets	134	1	7	5.02	1.393
Entrepreneurial Mindset	134	1	7	4.67	1.486
Environmental Factors: The Need for Region Specific Ideas	134	1	7	4.56	1.426
Cultural Intelligence: Cognitive	134	1	7	4.36	1.379
Cultural Intelligence: Behavioral	134	1	7	4.34	1.543
Environmental Factors: Need for Role Models	134	1	7	4.07	1.623
Environmental Factors: The Need for Executive Leadership	134	1	7	3.95	1.837
Environmental Factors: Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurs	134	1	7	3.84	1.807

The results revealed that the respondents agreed the most with Environmental Factors: Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas (mean = 6.16), followed by Cross Cultural Adjustment: Learning orientation (mean = 5.88) then Cultural Intelligence: Motivational (mean = 5.73). The lowest rated construct was Environmental Factors: Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurs (mean = 3.84).

4.2.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the structure of the observed measures based on the items that were retained after the initial exploratory factor analysis. The CFA was carried out with using Amos 21. The results are shown below

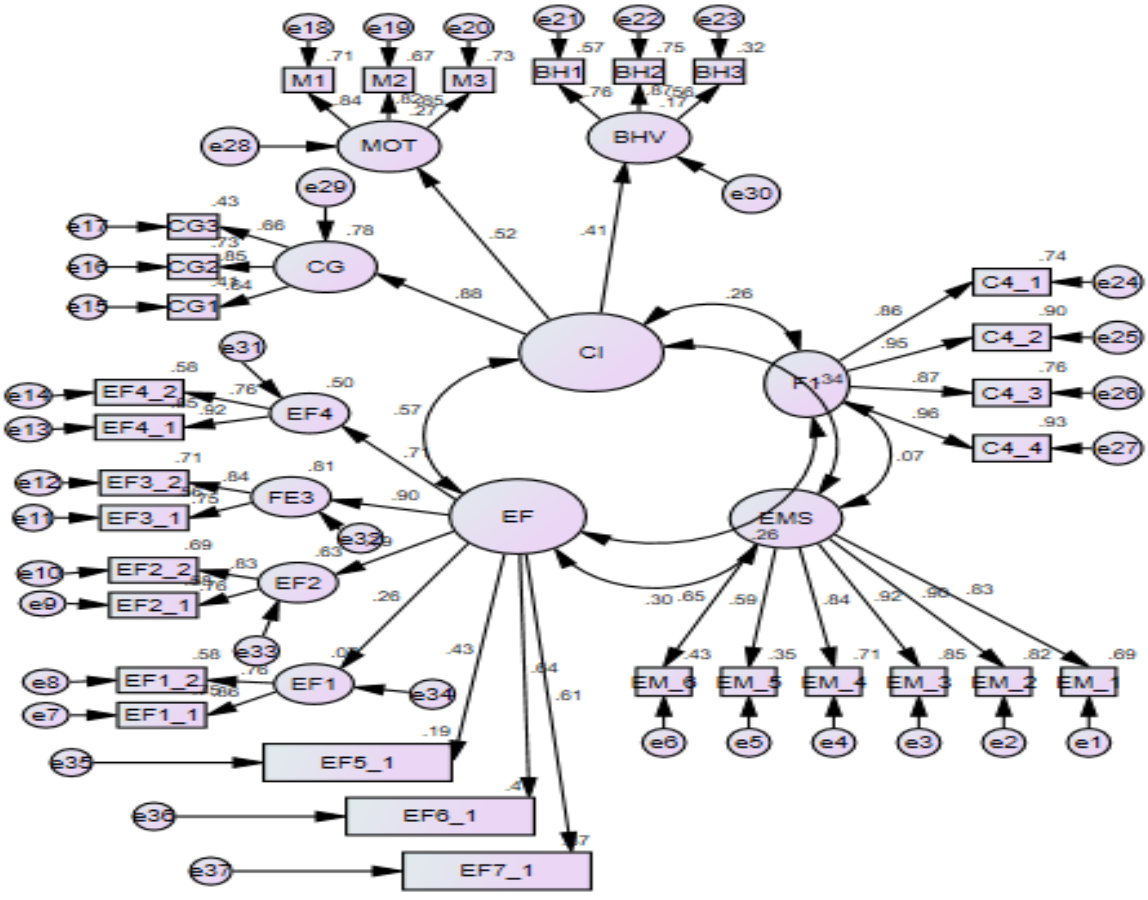


Figure 9 Standardised Estimates

4.2.4 Model Fit Summary

The chi-square, χ^2 value was 594.577 with a p-value of 0.000. This is an indication of poor fit because the χ^2 tests whether there are significant differences between the actual and predicted covariances. The ideal will be to have an insignificant χ^2 (p-value > 0.05) but with large sample sizes, the value becomes significant regardless of fit.

The Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (CFI) value was 0.913 while the Non-Normed Fit index (NNFI) also referred to as the TLI was 0.903. Both the NNFI and the TLI statistics show a good fit since they are above the cut-off point of > 0.9 for a good fit. The Root Mean square error approximation (RMSEA) was 0.062 (90% CI = 0.052 – 0.072) which is below 0.08 as required for good fit. Thus, all the statistics shows that the data is good fit for the hypothesised constructs.

Table 7: Model Fit Summary

CMIN					
Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	73	594.577	392	.000	1.517
Saturated model	465	.000	0		
Independence model	30	2758.846	435	.000	6.342
RMR, GFI					
Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI	
Default model	.205	.778	.737	.656	

Saturated model	.000	1.000			
Independence model	.710	.326	.279	.305	
Baseline Comparisons					
Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.784	.761	.914	.903	.913
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
RMSEA					
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
Default model	.062	.052	.072	.026	
Independence model	.200	.193	.208	.000	

4.3 RESULTS PERTAININGTO HYPOTHESIS 1

To test hypothesis one, a multiple linear regression model was fitted with the variable entrepreneurial mindset as the dependent variable and the variables experience or exposure in cross cultural adjustment, Pre-move visits, Social support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals as independent variables. The

yes and no variables were coded as (yes = 1 and no = 0). The results are shown below.

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.212[a]	.045	.015	1.47465
a. Predictors: (Constant), Cross Cultural Adjustment, Support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals?, You have lived in South Africa or any other foreign country (except your country of origin):, Pre-move Visit				

The model summary shows that experience or exposure in cross cultural adjustment, Pre-move visits and Social support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals explains only 4.5% of variation in entrepreneurial mindset.

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13.140	4	3.285	1.511	.203[b]
	Residual	280.523	129	2.175		
	Total	293.663	133			
a. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Mindset						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Cross Cultural Adjustment, Support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals?, You have lived in South Africa or any other foreign country (except your country of origin):, Pre-move Visit						

The ANOVA table shows that the overall model is not significant since the p-value for F –test was 0.203, which is greater than 0.05. The relationship with individual variables is shown below;

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		

1	(Constant)	3.627	.567		6.399	.000
	Pre-move Visit	.025	.268	.008	.092	.927
	Lived in South Africa or another foreign country (except your country of origin)	.041	.268	.014	.153	.879
	Support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals	.586	.272	.190	2.159	.033
	Cross Cultural Adjustment: Learning orientation	.109	.089	.109	1.213	.227
a. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Mindset						

H1a: Previous international experience or exposure in cross cultural adjustment is positively related to the development of entrepreneurial mindset.

This hypothesis was not supported since the p-values for the variable “Lived in South Africa or another foreign country” is greater than 0.05. The Standardised Beta was 0.014, t-value = 0.153, p-value = 0.879. Thus, it is concluded that there is no relationship between previous international experience or exposure in cross cultural adjustment and development of entrepreneurial mindset.

H1b: Pre-move visits to the country of destination in cultural adjustment will be positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

Hypothesis H1b is also not supported for since the p-value for the variable “Pre-move Visit” is greater than 0.05. The Standardised Beta was 0.008, t-value = 0.092, p-value = 0.927. Thus there is no relationship between pre-move visits to the country of destination in cultural adjustment and development of entrepreneurial mindset.

H1c: Support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals is related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

Hypothesis H1c is supported since the p-value is less than 0.05. The Standardised Beta was 0.190, t-value = 2.159, p-value = 0.033.Thus it is concluded that support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals is positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset.

H1d: Learning orientation in cultural adjustment will be positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

The results for “Cross Cultural Adjustment” (Standardised Beta was 0.109, t-value = 1.213, p-value = 0.227) indicates that hypothesis H1d is not supported since the p-value is greater than 0.05. This implies that there is no relationship between learning orientation in cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset.

4.4 RESULTS PERTAINING TO HYPOTHESIS 2

Hypothesis 2a: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (cognitive) and an entrepreneurial mindset

Hypothesis 2b: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (motivational) and an entrepreneurial mindset

Hypothesis 2c: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (behavioural) and an entrepreneurial mindset

A multiple linear regression was fitted with the three cultural intelligence sub-constructs as the independent variables and Entrepreneurial Mindset as the dependent variable. The results are shown below;

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.324[a]	.105	.084	1.42200
a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural Intelligence: Behavioural, Cultural Intelligence: Cognitive, Cultural Intelligence: Motivational				

ANOVA[a]					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

1	Regression	30.792	3	10.264	5.076	.002[b]
	Residual	262.872	130	2.022		
	Total	293.663	133			
a. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Mindset						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural Intelligence: Behavioural, Cultural Intelligence: Cognitive, Cultural Intelligence: Motivational						

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.162	.655		4.830	.000
	Cultural Intelligence: Cognitive	.328	.098	.304	3.344	.001
	Cultural Intelligence: Motivational	-.049	.115	-.039	-.422	.674
	Cultural Intelligence: Behavioural	.082	.085	.085	.968	.335
a. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Mindset						

The hypothesis is only supported for Cultural intelligence: Cognitive (Standardised Beta was 0.304, t-value = 3.344, p-value = 0.001). This is because the p-value is less than 0.05 and thus significant and the standardised beta is positive which indicates a positive relationship. Thus, the hypothesis that there is a significant and positive association between cultural intelligence: cognitive and an entrepreneurial mindset is supported.

On the other hand Cultural Intelligence: Motivational (Standardised Beta was -0.039, t-value = 0.422, p-value = 0.674) and Cultural Intelligence: Behavioural (Standardised Beta was 0.085, t-value = 0.968, p-value = 0.335) were not significantly related to an entrepreneurial mindset since the p-values were greater than 0.05.

4.5 RESULTS PERTAINING TO PROPOSITION 3

P3: Environmental factors moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3a: Environmental factors (Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3b: Environmental factors (Need for Role Models) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3c: Environmental factors (Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurship) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3d: Environmental factors (Need for Region Specific Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3e: Environmental factors (Need for Safety Nets) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3f: Environmental factors (Need for Gateways to Large Markets) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3g: Environmental factors (Need for Executive Leadership) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

A regression model with entrepreneurial mindset as the dependent variable, Cross Cultural Adjustment as the independent variable and environmental factors as the moderating variable was fitted. Thus, seven models each with one of the seven environmental factors as the moderator. The results are shown below;

Table 8: Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas (NFFPPNI) moderating the relationship between CCA and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	β
Intercept	4.49***	0	4.49***	0	4.49***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.13	0	0.13	0	0.13

CCA	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07
NFFPPNI			0.11	0.07	0.11	0.07
CCA x NFFPPNI					0.01	0.01
R2	0.03		0.03		0.03	
ADJR2	0.01		0.01		0	
PC	1.02		1.03		1.04	
AIC	107.61		108.96		110.96	
SBC	116.31		120.55		125.45	
BIC	109.75		111.21		113.34	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

Table 9: Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurs (NIFE) moderating the relationship between CCA and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.49***	0	4.51***	0	4.5***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.13	0	0.12	0	0.12
CCA	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09
NIFE			0.07	0.09	0.07	0.08
CCA x NIFE					0.05	0.08
R2	0.03		0.03		0.04	
ADJR2	0.01		0.01		0.01	
PC	1.02		1.03		1.03	
AIC	107.61		108.6		109.62	
SBC	116.31		120.19		124.11	
BIC	109.75		110.84		112.01	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

Table 10: Need for Role Models (NRM) moderating the relationship between CCA and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	

	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.49***	0	4.53***	0	4.53***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.13	0	0.11	0	0.11
CCA	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.08
NRM			0.32***	0.35	0.33***	0.36
CCA x NRM					-0.04	-0.04
R2	0.03		0.15		0.15	
ADJR2	0.01		0.13		0.12	
PC	1.02		0.91		0.92	
AIC	107.61		92		93.75	
SBC	116.31		103.59		108.24	
BIC	109.75		94.25		96.14	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

Table 11: Need for Executive Leadership (NEL) moderating the relationship between CCA and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.49***	0	4.51***	0	4.5***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.13	0	0.12	0	0.11
CCA	0.08	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.08	0.08
NEL			0.11	0.14	0.11	0.14
CCA x NEL					0.04	0.07
R2	0.03		0.04		0.05	
ADJR2	0.01		0.02		0.02	
PC	1.02		1.01		1.03	
AIC	107.61		107.07		108.48	
SBC	116.31		118.66		122.97	
BIC	109.75		109.31		110.86	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

Table 12 Need for Gateways to Large Markets (NGLM) moderating the relationship between CCA and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.49***	0	4.53***	0	4.53***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.13	0	0.1	0	0.1
CCA	0.08	0.08	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.05
NGLM			0.26***	0.24	0.26***	0.24
CCA x NGLM					0.03	0.04
R2	0.03		0.08		0.08	
ADJR2	0.01		0.06		0.05	
PC	1.02		0.98		0.99	
AIC	107.61		101.85		103.57	
SBC	116.31		113.44		118.06	
BIC	109.75		104.09		105.95	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

Table 13: Need for Region-Specific Ideas (NRSI) moderating the relationship between CCA and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.49***	0	4.52***	0	4.49***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.13	0	0.11	0	0.11
CCA	0.08	0.08	0.04	0.04	0.08	0.08
NRSI			0.13	0.12	0.13	0.12
CCA x NRSI					0.05	0.09
R2	0.03		0.04		0.04	
ADJR2	0.01		0.02		0.02	
PC	1.02		1.02		1.03	
AIC	107.61		107.85		109.01	
SBC	116.31		119.44		123.5	
BIC	109.75		110.09		111.4	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

Table 14: Need for Safety Nets (NSN) moderating the relationship between CCA and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.49***	0	4.53***	0	4.52***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.13	0	0.11	0	0.1
CCA	0.08	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.09	0.09
NSN			0.19**	0.19	0.2**	0.19
CCA x NSN					0.07	0.11
R2	0.03		0.06		0.07	
ADJR2	0.01		0.04		0.04	
PC	1.02		1		1	
AIC	107.61		104.82		105.03	
SBC	116.31		116.41		119.52	
BIC	109.75		107.06		107.42	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

The results show that none of the seven Environmental sub-constructs moderates the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset. This is because none of interaction variables between each of the seven Cross Cultural Adjustment x environmental factors is significant.

Thus, proposition 3 is not supported since environmental factors do not moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset.

4.6 RESULTS PERTAININGTO PROPOSITION 4

P4: Environmental factors moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4a: Environmental factors (need for focal points novel ideas producing areas) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4b: Environmental factors (Need for Role Models) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4c: Environmental factors (Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurship) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4d: Environmental factors (Need for Region Specific-Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4e: Environmental factors (Need for Safety Nets) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4f: Environmental factors (Need for Access to Large Markets) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4g: Environmental factors (Need for Executive Leadership) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset.

A regression model with entrepreneurial mindset as the dependent variable, Cultural Intelligence: Cognitive as the independent variable and environmental factors as the moderating variable was fitted. Thus, seven models each with one of the seven environmental factors as the moderator. The results are shown below;

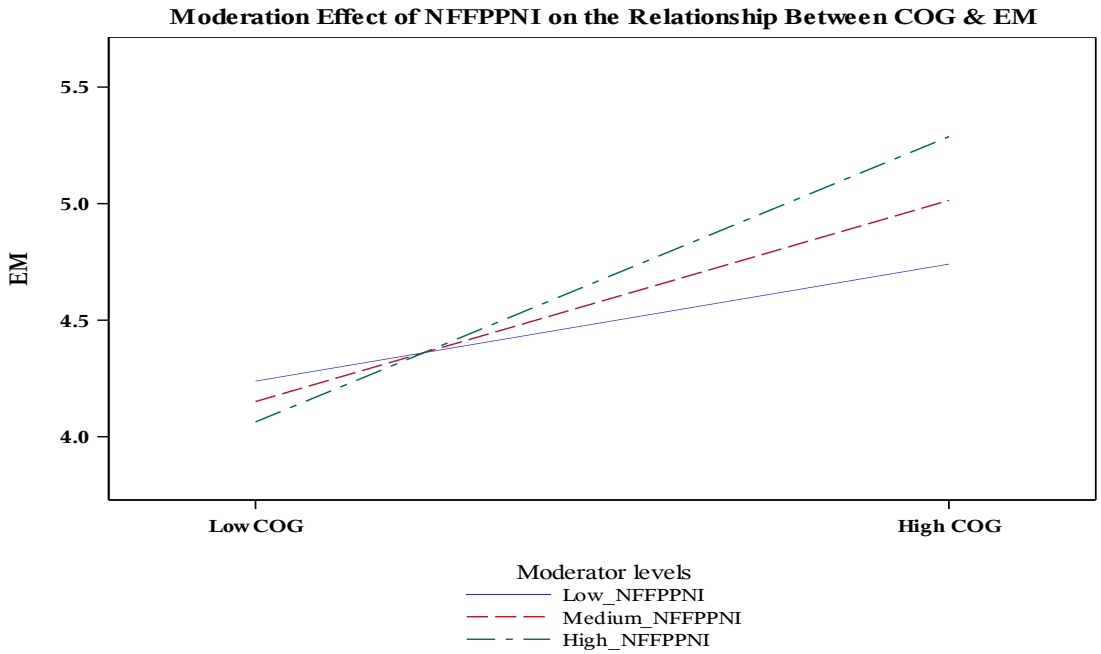
Table 15: Need for Focal Points Producing moderating the relationship between CI (Cognitive) and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	β	B	β	B	β
Intercept	4.63***	0	4.63***	0	4.58***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.03	0	0.03	0	0.04
COG	0.33***	0.3	0.32***	0.3	0.31***	0.29
NFFPPNI			0.03	0.02	0.1	0.06
COG x NFFPPNI					0.14*	0.15
R2	0.1		0.1		0.12	

ADJR2	0.09		0.08		0.09	
PC	0.94		0.96		0.95	
AIC	97.17		99.1		97.95	
SBC	105.86		110.69		112.44	
BIC	99.3		101.34		100.33	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

The results show that the Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas (NFFPPNI) moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence: cognitive (COG) and entrepreneurial mindset. This is because the p-value for the interaction term (COG x NFFPPNI) is less than 0.05. The chart below illustrates the moderation effect;



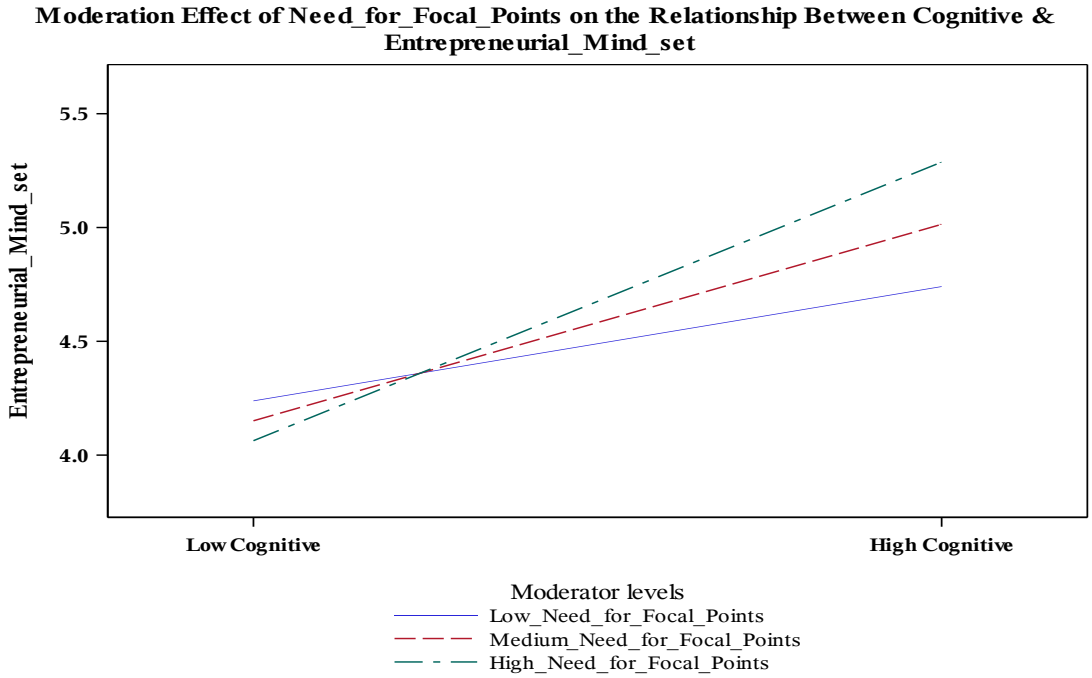
It can be noted that the relationship between cognitive and entrepreneurial mindset is at its weakest at low levels of Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas as indicate by the low gradient of the line, the relationship gets stronger with increasing Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas. The relationship is strongest at high levels of Need for Focal points for Producing Novel ideas.

Table 16: Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurs (NIFE) moderating relationship between CI (Cognitive) and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.63***	0	4.63***	0	4.58***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.03	0	0.03	0	0.01
COG	0.33***	0.3	0.33***	0.3	0.33***	0.31
NIFE			0	0	0.01	0.01
COG x NIFE					0.08*	0.15
R2	0.1		0.1		0.12	
ADJR2	0.09		0.08		0.09	
PC	0.94		0.96		0.95	
AIC	97.17		99.17		97.75	
SBC	105.86		110.76		112.24	
BIC	99.3		101.41		100.14	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

The results shows that the Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurs (**NIFE)** moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence: cognitive (COG) and entrepreneurial mindset. This is because the p-value for the interaction term (COG x NIFEI) is less than 0.05. The chart below illustrates the moderation effect;



The line graph shows that relationship between cognitive and entrepreneurial mindset is at its weakest at low levels of Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurs as indicated by the low gradient of the line, the relationship gets stronger with increasing Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurs. The relationship is strongest at high levels of Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurs.

Table 17: Need for Role Models (NRM) moderating the relationship between CI (Cognitive) and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.63***	0	4.61***	0	4.62***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.03	0	0.04	0	0.05
COG	0.33***	0.3	0.22**	0.2	0.22**	0.2
NRM			0.26***	0.29	0.26***	0.29
COG x NRM					-0.02	-0.03
R2	0.1		0.17		0.17	
ADJR2	0.09		0.15		0.15	
PC	0.94		0.88		0.89	

AIC	97.17		87.59		89.47	
SBC	105.86		99.18		103.96	
BIC	99.3		89.83		91.85	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

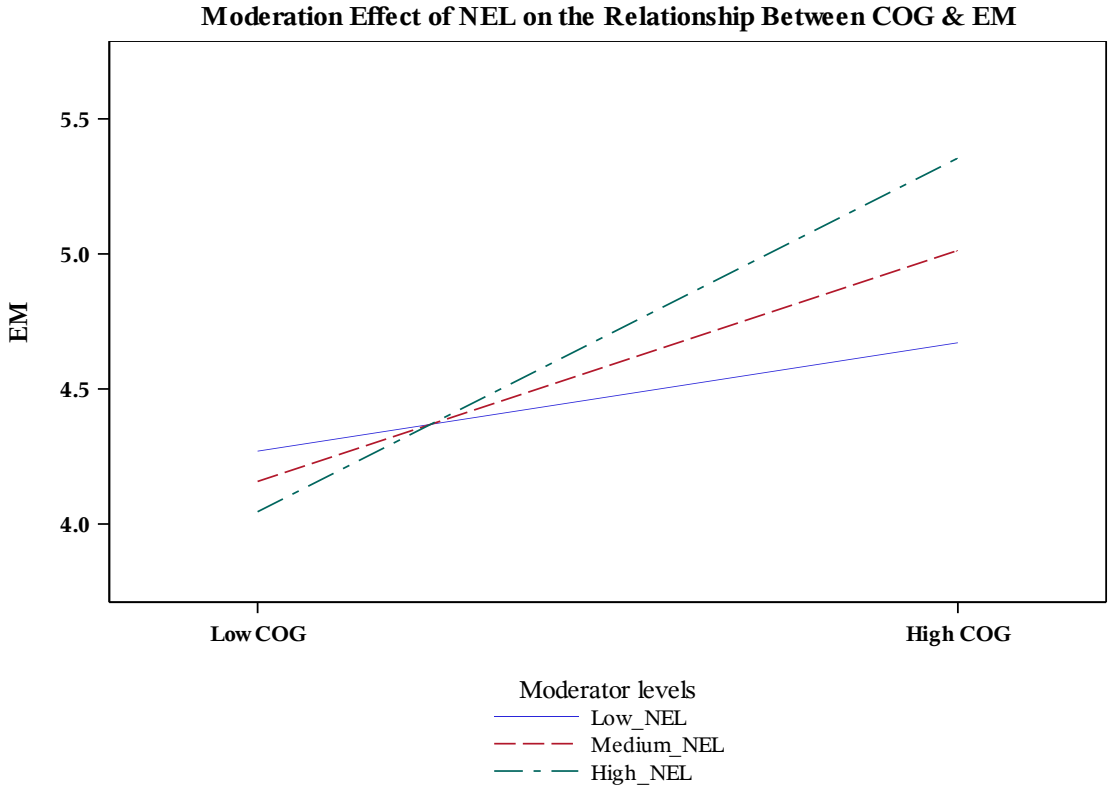
The results above show that The Need for Role Models (NRM) does not moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence: cognitive (COG) and entrepreneurial mindset (EM). This is because the p-value for the interaction term (COG x NRM) is greater than 0.05.

Table 18: Need for Executive Leadership (NEL) moderating the relationship between CI (Cognitive) and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.63***	0	4.63***	0	4.59***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.03	0	0.03	0	0.01
COG	0.33***	0.3	0.3***	0.28	0.31***	0.29
NEL			0.06	0.07	0.06	0.08
COG x NEL					0.09**	0.16
R2	0.1		0.1		0.13	
ADJR2	0.09		0.08		0.1	
PC	0.94		0.95		0.94	
AIC	97.17		98.48		96.44	
SBC	105.86		110.07		110.93	
BIC	99.3		100.73		98.82	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

The results show that the Need for Executive Leadership (NEL) moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence: cognitive (COG) and entrepreneurial mindset (EM). This is because the p-value for the interaction term (COG x NEL) is less than 0.05. The chart below illustrates the moderation effect;



It can be noted that the relationship between cognitive and entrepreneurial mindset is at its weakest at low levels of Need for Executive Leadership as indicated by the low gradient of the line, the relationship gets stronger with increasing level of Need for Executive Leadership producing novel ideas. The relationship is strongest at high levels of Need for Executive Leadership.

Table 19: Need for Gateways to Large Markets (NGLM) moderating the relationship between CI (Cognitive) and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.63***	0	4.64***	0	4.62***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.03	0	0.02	0	0.01
COG	0.33***	0.3	0.28***	0.26	0.29***	0.27
NGLM			0.21**	0.2	0.22**	0.21
COG x NGLM					0.09	0.13

R2	0.1		0.14		0.15	
ADJR2	0.09		0.12		0.13	
PC	0.94		0.92		0.91	
AIC	97.17		93.62		92.95	
SBC	105.86		105.21		107.44	
BIC	99.3		95.86		95.33	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

It can be noted that The Need for Gateways to Large Markets (NGLM) does not moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence: cognitive (COG) and entrepreneurial mindset (EM). This is because the p-value for the interaction term (COG x NGLM) is greater than 0.05.

Table 20: Need for Region Specific Ideas (NRSI) moderating the relationship between CI (Cognitive) and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.63***	0	4.63***	0	4.6***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.03	0	0.03	0	0.01
COG	0.33***	0.3	0.31***	0.29	0.32***	0.3
NRSI			0.05	0.04	0.06	0.06
COG x NRSI					0.07	0.11
R2	0.1		0.1		0.11	
ADJR2	0.09		0.08		0.09	
PC	0.94		0.95		0.96	
AIC	97.17		98.92		99.1	
SBC	105.86		110.51		113.59	
BIC	99.3		101.17		101.49	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

The results show that the Need for Region Specific Ideas (NRSI) does not moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence: cognitive (COG) and entrepreneurial mindset (EM). This is because the p-value for the interaction term (COG x NRSI) is greater than 0.05.

Table 21: Need for Safety Nets (NSN) moderating the relationship between CI (Cognitive) and entrepreneurial mindset

Moderation_Regressions						
	Model 1		**Model 2**		**Model 3**	
	B	β	B	β	B	B
Intercept	4.63***	0	4.64***	0	4.64***	0
Time_in_SA	0	0.03	0	0.02	0	0.02
COG	0.33***	0.3	0.3***	0.27	0.3***	0.27
NSN			0.15*	0.15	0.15*	0.15
COG x NSN					0	0
R2	0.1		0.12		0.12	
ADJR2	0.09		0.1		0.09	
PC	0.94		0.93		0.95	
AIC	97.17		95.88		97.88	
SBC	105.86		107.47		112.36	
BIC	99.3		98.12		100.26	

*Notes: *** = p < .01, ** = p < .05, * = p < .10*

The results show that The Need for Safety Nets (NSN) does not moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence: cognitive (COG) and entrepreneurial mindset EM). This is because the p-value for the interaction term (COG x NSN) is greater than 0.05.

Thus proposition 4 is supported since environmental factors moderate (the Need for Focal points for Producing Novel ideas, the Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurs, and Need for Executive Leadership (NEL)) moderates the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The results of the study revealed a few surprises in terms of rejected hypotheses. Cross cultural adjustment sub-constructs were mostly rejected except with in-country adjustment variable (social support). Cross cultural intelligence (cognitive) is the strongest predictor of an entrepreneurial mindset among international students. An

exploration of the environmental factors revealed that cross cultural adjustment had no significant relationship with the variables in furtherance of entrepreneurial mindset. However, the relationship between cross cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset is moderated by environmental factors (Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas, Need for Informal Fora for Entrepreneurs, and Need for Executive Leadership*).* Further explanations are elaborated in subsequent chapters.

5 CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This section of the research report aims to elaborately discuss results and explain the findings thereof in tandem with the literature review. It is critical to interrogate findings in relation to previous studies conducted with similar objectives, whether hypotheses are rejected or accepted. The main thrust of the study has to do with understanding the relationship aspects between cross cultural adjustment and intelligence share in relation to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

As alluded to in the previous chapter, of the 134 student sample, male respondents were represented by up to 55% and 45% was composed of female respondents. This translates to 74 males and 60 females respectively. The author of this report was expecting to receive a demographic sample representative of a higher female participation. Therefore this finding is contrary to reports in the Global Education Digest (2006, 2009), which pointed to growth in female tertiary education enrolment. This may point to existing barriers when it comes to access to tertiary studies in SSA and a lack of participation interest in entrepreneurially inclined studies, due to depressed women's self-efficacy levels in this field (GEM Special report on Women's entrepreneurship 2015).

Close to half of the respondents were 18 – 24 years old (48%), 29% were 25 - 29 years old, 11% were 30 – 34 years old while the rest were 35 years and older (12%). The finding is similar to that of QS World Graduate School (2012) that found the age profile of most university candidates at 24 years or less.



Figure 10 QS World Graduate Survey 2012-2013

5.3 DISCUSSION OF HYPOTHESES

5.3.1 CROSS CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

The findings of this study rejected the hypotheses in international exposure, pre-move visits to destination country and a learning orientation respectively. Only social support in cultural adjustment had a positive correlation to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset.

Hypothesis 1a: Previous international experience or exposure will be related positively to the development of entrepreneurial mindset

Palthe (2004) said international exposure was beneficial, however, often an entrepreneur's cultural dissimilarity, which was described as the distance between a sojourner's home and host culture had an effect on their choice to activate entrepreneurial attitude. Palthe postulated while cultural distance may be favourable due to creativity benefits with the new environment and innovation related performance (Shane *et al*., 1995; Hakanson & Nobel, 2001); it could damper international business intentions due to heightened risk exposure as a result of high information costs, difficulty in transferring competencies (Tihani, Griffith & Russell 2005). Therefore in my opinion, it would be fair to reason that no matter how well-travelled or exposed international students may be, huge variances in the culture may be a great enough deterrent in their consideration of entrepreneurial activity.

Hypothesis 1b: Pre-move visits will be related positively to the development of entrepreneurial mindset

With regard to pre-move visits, Black and Gregersen (1991) found that pre-move visits contributed positively to expatriate and spousal cross cultural adjustment. Ireland *et al*, (2003) found that individuals who made intermittent contact between countries did better at seeking new opportunities, but were not necessarily adept at having developed a solid entrepreneurial mindset. The findings by Barney (2002) may be the reason that the pre-move visit hypothesis was rejected. He acknowledged that individuals may have visited the country prior to work or study, but argued that their tacit knowledge was limited to garnering a solid entrepreneurial mindset. Tacit knowledge is an important guide to opportunity recognition, evaluating potential value as well as understanding resource combinations for strategic benefit. Cohen and Levinthan's (1989) absorptive capacity theory is also useful for this argument. Absorptive capacity was defined as the ability to learn and solve problems (Kim 1997). Zahra and George (2002) noted that absorptive capacity is a combination of proposed and realised capacity. Potential capacity referred to acquisition and assimilation skills, and realised capacity addressed the transformation of those skills into opportunity execution. The authors argued that individuals who benefited from pre-move visits gained opportunity seeking experience, which was inferior to opportunity exploitation.

H1c: Social support from HCNs in cultural adjustment will be positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset

In the case of social support, it was found that the hypothesis is supported. One of the main findings in this research related to the empirical evidence that social support of international students by Host Country Nationals (HCNs) in their adjustment is linked to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset. The results have been consistent with that of other studies such as Yeh and Inos (2003) where 359 international students sampled in the United States who were content with their support social networks recorded higher levels of efficacy, enjoyed wider networks and access to information. Overall, literature indicated that social support received by

international students enhanced self-sufficiency and personal development (Ying & Han, 2006; Li & Gasser 2005). Social support created a unique opportunity for international students to be exposed to greater information asymmetry through their networks. Ireland *et al* (2008) said this occurred when different people held differing views on the value of opportunities and the resources to be exploited to make entrepreneurial ventures a success.

A disconcerting finding with this research is that two out of three international students felt that they had difficulty in formulating a relationship with locals. This also ties in with existing research, such as that of Sarwin *et al* (2008) where 65% of international students in Australia reported they encountered barriers when trying to make friends with local students. Although no explicit reasons have been put forth, Smith and Khawaja (2010) mentioned several acculturation stressors that could be attributed to difficulty in foreign students formulating a social network with locals. Cultural norms and language barriers and the nature of friendships in the host country may impede the likelihood to foster friendship ties (Ying & Han 2006; Wang & Mallinckrodt 2006; Brisset *et al*., 2010). The results do however raise the issue that perhaps there is a pervasive feeling of disinterest amongst local students in initiating relationships with foreign students (Ward *et al*., 2001, as cited in Zhang & Bruton, 2007). The impasse may lie in differing acculturation attitudes between local and foreign students where the former may want their foreign counterparts to integrate more into their new environment and the latter group may desire to maintain their socio-cultural heritage.

H1d: Learning orientation in cultural adjustment will be positively related to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset:

The hypothesis put forward was not supported. Studies conducted by Porter and Tansky (1996; 1999), Deakins and Freel (1998) confirmed the relationship between the learning orientation in cultural adjustment and an orientation towards goal achievement. Often individuals with a learning orientation sought ways to introduce disruptive innovations in an existing business and their alertness to new experience favoured them more as habitual entrepreneurs (McGrath & MacMillan 2000). Pittaway

and Cope (2007) developed a New Venture Planning (NVP) based on entrepreneurial learning with a sample of 73 students. The authors found that the simulation of work based learning created a compulsion among them to use an entrepreneurial mindset to be action oriented (Rae & Carswell 2000), manage discontinuities and failure (Cope & Watts 2000). It is my speculation that entrepreneurial culture would mitigate the relationship between learning orientation and entrepreneurial mindset. McGrath and MacMillan (2000) said an entrepreneurial culture created a setting where entrepreneurial was employed. Dess and Picken (1999) described the conditions for an organisational culture as the following:

- The basic assumptions or belief system of the group had to be common and shared
- Beliefs were conceived, learned, or advanced by the group
- The group should learn to cope with its problem of external adaptation and internal integration
- The group should have a proven track record or well worked well enough together to be considered valid,
- Their belief should be taught fairly easily to new members of the group
- Needs to be perceived as the correct way to think, and feel in relation to those problems

If international students do not share a common mental mode that affirmed entrepreneurial activity as plausible and attractive and a good strategic choice individuals with a learning orientation will still most likely focus their attention on opportunity recognising activities and do not perceive taking risks to execute entrepreneurial ventures as wise.

5.3.2 Cultural intelligence

Hypothesis 2a: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (cognitive) and an entrepreneurial mindset

Hypothesis 2b: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (motivational) and an entrepreneurial mindset

Hypothesis 2c: There is significant and positive association between cultural intelligence (behavioural) and an entrepreneurial mindset

The findings of this study rejected the hypotheses pertaining to motivation and behavioural aspects. The motivational and behavioural discourse could not be proven, perhaps because it requires conscious awareness and willingness on the part of the foreign student to engage and interact with the local culture (Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2003). Unless students demonstrated the preparedness to be exposed to, if not immersed in real-time cultural interactions, the motivation and behavioural dimensions would not be activated, nor would they get feedback on their effectiveness.

The findings suggest the cross cultural intelligence (cognitive) is the only strong predictor of the development of an entrepreneurial mindset. The findings resonate with previous studies (Mitchell 2005; Baron & Henry, 2006). The cognitive dimension provides for explicit knowledge which is established subconsciously prior to arrival and manifested in what is textbook knowledge (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Once the student arrived however, this knowledge is reinforced or replaced by a more 'personal experience' as they interacted further with the environment. Mitchell et al., (2002) mentioned that entrepreneurial cognition was concerned with judgements concerned with opportunity recognition and valuation as well as growth aspirations of the business. The ability to perceive and interpret information with specific combinations on how these could be best exploited are all domains of the entrepreneurial mindset.

This study also revealed that that 88% of the respondents had not been exposed to cultural intelligence training prior to departure. It is an indicative of a crop of students that are out of sync with the environment that they will inhabit and how to best manage themselves in order to get ahead, especially with regard to establishing networks, social embeddedness and how to contribute positively to this setting. This would

advertently also affect their self-belief in functioning effectively to initiate entrepreneurial ventures.

5.3.3 Intangibles as moderating variables between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

The propositions formulated to test which contextual factors or intangibles moderated the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset produced a negative correlation on all propositions. Below are various reasons that may have caused the hypotheses to be rejected.

It is plausible to suppose that in the case of universities, studies have been overwhelmed by the high international student numbers. Research has shown that the higher education frameworks of developing countries were unprepared for the massive influx of studies from other countries (Tanaka *et al*., 1995). For instance, it was noted that Japanese universities were ill prepared in terms of support given to students (both academically and socially), training in the local language, housing, scholarships and also counselling services. Tanaka *et al*. added that the universities were enrolling high numbers of international students in the name of internationalising their campuses to the detriment of quality of adjustment experience.

Cultural adjustment may not have been moderated by Need for Role Models because entrepreneurship is regionally variant (Bosma *et al*., 2012). Several studies (Fornhal 2003; Sternberg 2009) confirmed the difference in regions and clusters in terms of entrepreneurial propensity. The amount of media attention given to entrepreneurs and the perception that entrepreneurship is a good career choice played a contributory role to the social perception of entrepreneurship. (Herrington & Kew, 2013). As further alluded in the GEM South Africa report (2013), the attractiveness and visibility of entrepreneurship influenced the likelihood to become an entrepreneur and the ease with which an individual secured suppliers, investors and advisors. The implication

therefore is that a newcomer may have been sufficiently adjusted both sociocultural and psychologically, however if entrepreneurship had not been emphasised as a career to aspire to and one where the risks were not perceived to be congruent with rewards, the likelihood is that few people will be opportunity entrepreneurs. As a result, role models to whom the community may be able to relate may be scarce and may be further considered as outliers, rather than the norm in society. The need for Informal fora for entrepreneurship might not have worked because language competencies were a problem. Studies have found language competency to be a challenge and it may affect the willingness to participate in informal fora if the primary mode of communication is difficult to master (Yang *et al.* 2006). The effect of language competency and its impact on the inability to influence society has been alluded to by several authors (Caliguiri 2000; Puck *et al*. 2008). Studies conducted by Selmer *et al.* (2006) found that communication proficiency had a positive correlation to all aspects of cultural adjustment. The closest supposition for the lack of moderation with regard to Need for Executive leadership is that intercultural effectiveness skills have to be developed and learned through training (Littrell *et al*., 2006). A study by various authors, such as Hutchings (2005) and Zimnerman *et al.* (2003) is that a fundamental part of intercultural training is the issue of relationship building and inspiring and confidence in followers.

P3: Contextual factors moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3a: Contextual factors (Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3b: Contextual factors (Need for Role Models) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3c: Contextual factors (Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurship) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3d: Contextual factors (Need for Region Specific Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3e: Contextual factors (Need for Safety Nets) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3f: Contextual factors (Need for Gateways to Large Markets) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 3g: Contextual factors (Need for Executive Leadership) moderate the relationship between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset

5.3.4 Intangibles as moderating variables between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Four of the intangibles (Need for Safety Nets, Need for Role Models, Need for Gateway to Large markets and Need for Region-Specific) had no moderating relationship with any aspects of cultural intelligence (cognitive, motivation and behavioural) and entrepreneurial mindset. The following intangibles however (Need for Focal Points for Producing Novel ideas, Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurs, and Need for Executive Leadership) have been found to indeed have a moderating relationship between cultural intelligence (cognitive) and the entrepreneurial mindset. It is the researcher's opinion that these three intangibles have in common the greatest predisposition for disruptive innovation and hence the proposition was accepted in this regard. The acceptance of these propositions is in tandem with findings of Christensen *et al*. (2002) and Kenagy and Christensen (2002). These authors found that entrepreneurs who deliberately focused on novel business models and markets triggered disruptive innovation, by developing unique formats of playing a competitive game to such an extent that it conflicted with existing business models. Case in point, focusing on informal fora as platforms for the purposes of entrepreneurship consolidation and not just places of leisure could prove to be revolutionary. Kenagey and Christensen (2002) discovered that executive leadership

embodied in perceptive markets leaders who recognised less intricate, more expedient and efficient alternatives, influenced the evolution of the markets. Studies conducted by Barney (2002), also in line with this proposition, confirmed that firms that proactively pioneered their own competitive destiny, rather than waiting on the advancement of the markets focused on locales that produced novel ideas.

A further argument in favour of this proposition may be explained by the fact that cognitive intelligence was connected with acquisition of specific business knowledge, and the development of appropriate behaviour and skills when dealing with people from another culture. As a result, Van Dyne and Ang (2006) said the capability to comprehend, function and effectively manage in the global environment is invaluable for a competitive advantage. Access to these three factors enhanced the learning process and outcomes for global leadership. Therefore, students who operate under these conditions, were more likely to demonstrate accuracy of judgements and objectivity in their evaluation of business decisions in unfamiliar cultural settings. In summary, this result meant that the three intangibles mentioned above, would be the most favourable for entrepreneurially minded students in the identification of new opportunities because they had cognitive abilities that allowed them to deduce meaning in unclear and fragmented circumstances (Alvarez & Barney, 2002).

Proportion 4a: Contextual factors (need for focal points novel ideas producing areas) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proportion 4b: Contextual factors (Need for Role Models) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4c: Contextual factors (Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurship) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4d: Contextual factors (Need for Region Specific Ideas) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proposition 4e: Contextual factors (Need for Safety Nets) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proportion 4f: Contextual factors (need for access to large markets) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

Proportion 4g: Contextual factors (Need for Executive Leadership) moderate the relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset

5.4 CONCLUSION

Research in a cross cultural context is at best difficult to manage (Frederick, 2012) and common challenges manifest in the form of low response rates, time consuming nature of the work as well as the differences in responses based on varying cross cultural perspectives (Harzing, 2006) that may be adopted by respondents as a lens through which to engage with the questionnaire.

That said, the results have been emphatic in that a foreign student's adjustment is most affected by the presence of social support of family and friends and that of local nationals as a precursor to opportunity recognition and execution of entrepreneurial undertakings. Cultural intelligence (cognitive) enjoys a positive relationship with entrepreneurial mindset. More so, the same relationship is moderated by certain environmental variables. The results have offered insights into the importance of the intangibles and the combinations in which they would work best, at this elementary level of exposure in South Africa. The results, although not tested widely in other arenas, give me confidence that young international students (who were the majority of respondents) identified most with the Need for Focal Points Producing Novel Ideas, the Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurs, and Need for Executive Leadership (NEL).

6 CHAPTER 6

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The structure of this research began with an introductory chapter on student mobility in general, to South Africa and the viability of international students as agents of entrepreneurship. The second chapter is the literature review section which took care of an in-depth discussion on the major constructs investigated in this study; cross cultural adjustment, cross cultural intelligence and the seven intangibles and what effect these had on the development of an entrepreneurial mindset. The methodology and presentation of results followed in Chapters 3 and 4 respectively. The previous chapter alluded to the discussion of results. This last section addresses the implications of the current study (per construct) and recommendations to relevant stakeholders and suggestions for further research.

6.2 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

The study has taken into cognisance three major constructs in cultural adjustment and intelligence as well as contextual factors, which are all pertinent for the globally oriented entrepreneur. The advent of globalisation has increased mobility of labour and students alike. As a result, there is a great emphasis in the corporate world to prepare all stakeholders and create an enabling environment to deal effectively with situations of cultural diversity (Templer *et al*, 2006). Cultural intelligence is a reflection of social adaptation as a result of intercultural interactions. In essence, it is a demonstration of an individual's ability to adapt as they interact with others from different cultural backgrounds. The research has attempted to focus on the regionalist processes occurring all over the world, not least the formation of micro-regions. The African continent has not yet fully exploited its own idiosyncratic prowess in the region, be it from cultural intelligence or lessons in the adjustment experience for instance. Neumann (2003) eloquently noted that the existence of a region was dependent on its

region builders. For the purposes of this study, this researcher contemplated international students as such builders and sought ways of utilising their knowledge at the service of its perpetuation or transformation. In considering the seven intangibles, this researcher also intended to raise the profile of these contextual factors, expose the opportunities that existed for entrepreneurs to not only develop but to innovate in these areas as well.

6.3 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The results pertaining to cross cultural adjustment was the rejection of the hypotheses in international exposure, pre-move visits to destination country and a learning orientation respectively. Only social support in cultural adjustment had a positive correlation to the development of an entrepreneurial mindset. In relation to cultural intelligence, only the cognitive aspect was found to have a positive relationship with the development of an entrepreneurial mindset. None of the contextual factors had a moderating effect between cultural adjustment and entrepreneurial mindset. Lastly, three contextual factors (Need for Focal points Producing Novel Ideas, Need for Informal Forums for Entrepreneurship and Need for Executive Leadership) had a moderating relationship between cultural intelligence and entrepreneurial mindset.

6.4 LIMITATIONS

There were several notable limitations noted in the study that should be addressed. First, the sample was relatively small when compared to the pool of international students available. However, gaining access to these foreign international via their student emails, although an impersonal method of solicitation not likely to maximise participation, paid off most during data collection. Further, data collection difficulties were compounded by the tense situation at universities during the #FeesMustFall campaign. A larger sample size would have allowed for country and regional comparisons. This could potentially provide researchers with an intercultural lens to examine the interaction of specific cultures and the local community at major regional

institutions of higher education. Secondly, students were recruited through the International Student Office mailing list. A plausible critique is possible that it is possible that the sample was characterised by a self-selection bias through students who made a conscious effort to be more connected to the local community. Lastly, students completed via the online survey which has several advantages and disadvantages. It is common knowledge that online surveys lower costs, reduce response time, ease data entry, give flexibility and control over format, and offer additional response set information (Granello & Wheaton, 2004). However, researchers point out several limitations to online data collection such as response rate issues, sample representativeness, and technical difficulties that could potentially affect reliability of data (Lefever, Dal, & Matthíasdóttir, 2007; Granello & Wheaton, 2004).

6.5 IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.5.1 Cross cultural adjustment:

The adjustment process did not delineate between international students who received accommodation at the institution at which they studied and those who lived with parents, relatives or friends in private accommodation. It is conventional wisdom on the part of the author to assume that the latter type of student's adjustment is significantly buffered, especially with regard to the quality and amount of social support they are likely to receive and how such a situation may offset adjustment anxieties faced by students living on campus. (* Social support has been singled out as a sub-construct in this case, as it was the only hypothesis that was supported in this research.) It is necessary however to challenge this supposition in further entrepreneurial research, so as to make a better determination whether students' sources of social support has a bearing on their likelihood to initiate new ventures in a foreign country and in partnership with locals.

6.5.2 Cross cultural intelligence

The need for an emphasis on cultural intelligence training cannot be undermined as it maps the foreign student's self-efficacy as well as realistically manage their expectations (Caligiuri *et al*., 2001; Osmani-Gani & Rockstuhl, 2009). If cultural intelligence is neglected, it waters down the cultural adjustment and disenfranchises international students from contributing to the quality, if not robustness, of their social environment, especially through enterprising. The incidence of interest or deliberate exposure to entrepreneurial activity also suffers due to a reduced resonance with the local people and culture of a new environment.

6.5.3 Environmental factors

Judging from the limited literature available as well as some of respondents' difficulty in grasping some of these factors, further research needs to be undertaken on these factors to operationalise them. This is particularly true for intangibles such as executive leadership, exploring the establishment of informal fora for entrepreneurship to thrive and the provision of innovative safety nets to encourage risk taking propensity and thus reward entrepreneurial behaviour.

6.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It is important to realise that the information was obtained from one higher education institution in Johannesburg, thus limiting generalisability. Further research needs to be undertaken with foreign students at the other tertiary institutions in greater Johannesburg. Another factor to be considered is the value that longitudinal studies would add to this area of research, especially in getting various samples to shed light on cultural adjustment experience (Grayson 2003) and entrepreneurial behaviour post-graduation. A further examination is necessary in testing the intangibles in selected major African cities to encourage Schumpeterian entrepreneurship to take root.

Furthermore, these findings may not be generalisable to other types of sojourner student groups such as immigrants and refugees, who may have different motivations for relocation to South Africa, such as economic or safety concerns. Therefore, future entrepreneurship research should focus on other student groups and look to incorporate longitudinal designs that are better able to demonstrate causality. Using the current research design longitudinally and with other groups would not only pave the way for causal predictions but would also inform our understanding of how the international student entrepreneurial mindset evolves over time with distinct groups.

6.7 CONCLUSION

South Africa remains an attractive destination for the international sojourner pursuing education. The fact that universities are increasingly emerging as the prime areas in which to exploit entrepreneurial opportunity is an ideal opportunity for the country to legitimise its idiosyncrasy in the higher education domain. Save for the fact that international students are not only a viable financial asset, they offer refreshing perspectives and bring them wide ranging abilities across various disciplines. While a litany of literature has been published on both cross cultural adjustment and intelligence, most studies conducted originated in Britain or the United States. Specifically, in the case of adjustment, progression in development of the construct has moved from adjustment models to situational factors that have influenced adjustment. These include cultural distance (Babiker *et al*., 1980) and social networks (McCleod & Lin 1977).

From a research perspective, further analysis is worth conducting to confirm relevance and/or the reinforcement of the intangible factors. Policymakers ought to tap into the opportunities that will present themselves in these specific contexts and work together with students to eliminate bottlenecks to entrepreneurial behaviour.

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APPENDIX A

PART A DEMOGRAPHICS

A1. What is your gender?

☐ Female

☐ Male

A2. What age were you at your last birthday?

☐ 18-24
☐ 25-29
☐ 30-34
☐ 35-39
☐ 40-44
☐ 45 or more

A3. Which university do you study at?

……..

A4. What were your reasons to choose to study in South Arica? (Select one)

☐ International recognition of qualifications
☐ Availability of scholarship
☐ The prospect of gaining employment after graduation
☐ The recognition of entrepreneurial prospects
☐ The culture, interest and lifestyle

A5. Which geographical region are you from?

☐ Africa
☐ Asia Pacific
☐ Middle East
☐ Europe
☐ US and Canada

Please also specify the country:…….

PART B. EDUCATION

The questions in this section are designed to collect information on your education in South Africa

B1. When did you <u>first enroll</u> in this program?

Year ☐☐☐☐

B2 What degree are you registered for (please be specific)?

DEGREE: _____

PART C: CROSS CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

C1. How long (years) have you been in the country?

☐☐

C2. Before enrolling for this program in South Africa, you were already familiar with the culture/ country in terms of:

	Yes	**No**
a. Having organized a pre- move visit, prior to enrolment	☐	☐
b. You have lived in South Africa or any other foreign country (except your country of origin): ..... (specify) _____	☐	☐

C3. While studying for your program have you also experienced any of the following?

	Yes	**No**
a. Social support from locals in grasping the language and culture?.....	☐	☐
b. Difficulty in formulating a social network with locals you trust?	☐	☐
c. Support from family/friends to increase social integration with locals?	☐	☐

For the following questions, please indicate the extent to which you identify most with the questions:

C4. Learning orientation in Cross Cultural Adjustment

		Strongly disagree			**Neither**		**Strongly agree**	
	Question	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
a	The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me							
b	When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I do it							

c	I seek opportunities to work on tasks that force me to learn new things							
d	The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me							

PART D: CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE

D1. Are you familiar with Cultural Intelligence as a principle?

☐ Yes
☐ No

D2. Did you have Cultural Intelligence training prior to your departure?

☐ Yes
☐ No

For the following questions, please indicate the extent to which you identify most with the questions:

D3 CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

		1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat disagree			**4=Neither agree nor disagree 5= Somewhat agree**		**6= Agree 7= Strongly agree**	
	COGNITIVE	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
a	I know the legal and economic systems in SA							
b	I know the arts and crafts of cultures in SA							
c	I know the rules e.g. (grammar) of the languages in SA							
	MOTIVATIONAL							
d	I am motivated to interact with people from other cultures							
e	I am confident that I can socialize with the locals							
f	I am sure that I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me							
	BEHAVIOURAL							
g	I change my verbal behaviour (e.g. accent, tone) when a cross cultural interaction requires it							

h	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross cultural situation requires it							
i	I alter my facial expressions when a cross cultural interaction requires it							

For the following questions, please indicate the extent to which you identify most with the questions:

PART E: ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS/ 7 INTANGIBLES LIKERT SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE

		1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat disagree			**4=Neither agree nor disagree 5= Somewhat agree**		**6= Agree 7= Strongly agree**	
E1	**NEED FOR FOCAL POINTS PRODUCING NOVEL IDEAS**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
a	I consider my institution a top university							
b	My university produces innovative ideas							
E2	**NEED FOR ROLE MODELS**							
a	I am aware of several entrepreneurs who can access funds for high risk/ high reward ventures							
b	I am aware and/ or have access to young role models who have initiated successful innovative entrepreneurial projects							
E3	**THE NEED FOR REGION SPECIFIC IDEAS**							
a	I know tertiary students are exposed to programmes to generate region-specific knowledge to create competitive advantage							
b	Tertiary students in Johannesburg are exposed to programmes to develop entrepreneurial solutions							
E4	**THE NEED FOR GATEWAYS TO LARGE MARKETS**							
a	Living in Jhb as an international student is ideal because the uptake of innovative entrepreneurial ideas is quicker							
b	I consider Jhb a gateway city to business as the quality and density							

	of social network will assist me to gain access to entrepreneurial opportunities							
E5	**THE NEED FOR SAFETY NETS**							
a	Safety nets (e.g. providing jobs for entrepreneurs after start up failure) reduces fear of failure, encourages trying new things							
b	I know institutions that value start-up experience, even if the company failed							
E6	**THE NEED FOR EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP**							
a	I am interested in gaining access to leaders who ensure young people produce innovative ideas and establish companies							
b	I am exposed to mentorship programmes that will groom me to find competitive markets and develop products							
E7	**THE NEED FOR INFORMAL FORUMS FOR ENTREPRENEURS**							
a	I have access to role models to exchange ideas face to face because of various informal platforms in Jhb							
b	I believe informal settings like restaurants are appropriate for conversation about entrepreneurship							

For the following questions, please indicate the extent to which you identify most with the questions:
PART F: ENTREPRENEURIAL MINDSET SCALES

		1=Very Rarely 2=Rarely 3=Somewhat rarely			**4=Neither frequently nor rarely 5=Somewhat frequently**		**6=Frequently 7=Very frequently**	
F1	**ELABORATING MINDSETS: Frequency on considering desirability and feasibility of becoming entrepreneurs**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
a	I'm considering whether I have the opportunity financially to become engaged in entrepreneurial activities							

b	I'm thinking about possible business ideas, and consider becoming engaged in entrepreneurial activities.							
F2	**IMPLEMENTING MINDSETS: Frequency on thoughts of implementing entrepreneurial goals**	**1=Very Rarely 2=Rarely 3=Somewhat rarely**			**4=Neither rarely nor frequently 5=Somewhat frequently**		**6=Frequently 7=Very frequently**	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a	I often focus on information that appears relevant to becoming engaged in entrepreneurial activities.							
b	I feel quite sure that I have or can obtain the necessary know-how to become engaged in entrepreneurial activities.							
F3	**COMPULSIVENESS: perceived frequency and control of thought about business ideas**	**1=Very Rarely 2=Rarely 3=Somewhat rarely**			**4=Neither rarely nor frequently 5=Somewhat frequently**		**6=Frequently 7=Very frequently**	
a	In conversations with others I become distracted by business ideas that pop up which I cannot talk about right then.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b	My friends have stated that I seem to be excessively interested in business ideas.							

***** END *****

Thank you for giving of your time in participating in this study. Your input is appreciated and will be treated as confidential at all times.

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY REGISTRAR

2 November 2015

Ms Zothile Mabusela
Student number: 688298

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

"Influence of cultural adjustment and cultural intelligence to entrepreneurial mindset of international students in Johannesburg"

This letter serves to confirm that the above project has received permission to be conducted on University premises, and/or involving staff and/or students of the University as research participants. In undertaking this research, you agree to abide by all University regulations for conducting research on campus and to respect participants' rights to withdraw from participation at any time.

This notice serves as proof that the University's internal mailing system may be used as the mechanism by which potential participants can be approached.

If you are conducting research on certain student cohorts, year groups or courses within specific Schools and within the teaching term, permission must be sought from Heads of School or individual academics.

Research can only commence once the necessary ethical clearance has been obtained.

Nicoleen Potgieter
Deputy Registrar

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Gmail

Zothile Mabusela <zothile.mabusela@gmail.com>

Request to distribute an electronic questionnaire to international students

6 messages

Zothile Mabusela <zothile.mabusela@gmail.com> Tue, Nov 3, 2015 at 12:00 PM
To: gita.patel@wits.ac.za

Dear Ms Patel

May I kindly receive your permission to distribute an electronic questionnaire to international students via your database.

May I humbly note that I do acknowledge that examinations are at hand and would like to mention that my plans in terms of timing, were disrupted by the student protests.

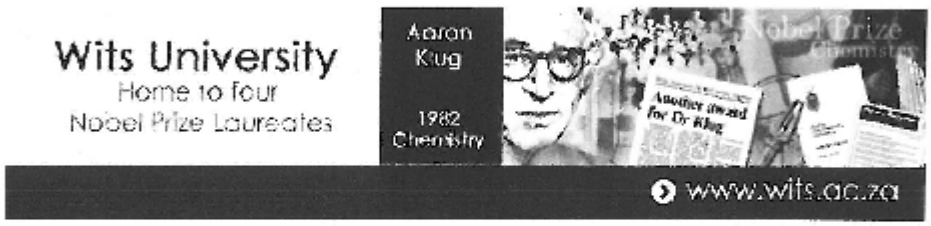
Please note that I have received permission from the Registrar's office to conduct research on campus yesterday, document is attached.
I will await any further instructions from your side Ma'm.

Regards
Ms Zothile Mabusela



Research Permission letter Z Mabusela.jpeg
361K

Gita Patel <Gita.Patel@wits.ac.za> Tue, Nov 3, 2015 at 12:07 PM
To: Zothile Mabusela <zothile.mabusela@gmail.com>
Cc: Mpho Moiloa <mpho.moiloa@wits.ac.za>



Dear Zothile,

Please forward the electronic questionnaire.

Regards,