

**A Study on Individual Factors Influencing Youth Entrepreneurship  
in Zanzibar, Tanzania**

**By  
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**Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements  
For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
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### **A STUDY ON INDIVIDUAL FACTORS INFLUENCING YOUTH ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN ZANZIBAR, TANZANIA**

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## **A STUDY ON INDIVIDUAL FACTORS INFLUENCING YOUTH ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN ZANZIBAR, TANZANIA**

By

Said Mohamed Khamis

### **ABSTRACT**

Youth entrepreneurship is not only an emerging research area but also an important agenda of development to national governments and international organizations. This study intends to understand individual factors influencing youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar Tanzania. Youth entrepreneurship is conceptualized through opportunity recognition, resource competence and growth vision. The individual factors are entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial networking, entrepreneurial motivation, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial mindset. This study is guided by three major questions; 1) What is the influence of the individual factors on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania? 2) Which are the most significant factors associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania? And 3) Does entrepreneurial mindset play a mediating role in the relationship between entrepreneurial learning, self-efficacy, networking, and motivation with youth entrepreneurship? This study goes beyond the understanding of youth's intention towards entrepreneurship, but exclusively understanding the behaviour of youth in entrepreneurship. The study therefore is guided by entrepreneurial cognitive theory complemented by human capital theory. This is a quantitative study used questionnaire for data collection from youth who engage in entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The unity of analysis was individual youth entrepreneurs sampled through stratified sampling technique. The study used a structuring equation modelling (AMOS SEM) whereas a total of 450 respondents were basis of the analysis. The results revealed that entrepreneurial networking was the first significant factors, followed by entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial mindset, and self-efficacy. The study tested mediation role of entrepreneurial mindset and found its mediation effect on relationship of entrepreneurial learning, self-efficacy, and motivation with youth entrepreneurship. In other words, there was no mediation effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. From a practical point of view, this research provides empirical evidence for youth to embrace entrepreneurial learning, extend networks, promote self-efficacy, and have the entrepreneurial mindset necessary for entrepreneurship. This study also provides a reference for the policy makers to take active measures to encourage the growth and development of entrepreneurial traits among the young generations by instituting entrepreneurship policy and programmes. A timely review into the education system is called to incorporate and inculcate entrepreneurial skills and mindsets for the younger generation.

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## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Faika, my three children Lujaina, Sameer and Sheymaa and parents, Mohammed Khamis and Khadija Salim.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATION**

|         |  |
|---------|--|
| AK      | Amani Karume   |
| ACBF    | Africa Capacity Building Foundation                                |
| AU      | African Union  |
| BEST    | Business Environment Strengthening for Tanzania                    |
| ED      | Entrepreneurship Division  |
| EEC     | Entrepreneurship education curriculum                              |
| EFA     | Education for All  |
| EL      | Entrepreneurial Learning   |
| EMS     | Entrepreneurial Mindset  |
| ESE     | Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy                                      |
| ESF     | European Social Fund   |
| EU      | European Union   |
| GEM     | Global Entrepreneurship Monitor                                    |
| GDP     | Growth Domestic Product  |
| GYBI    | Generate Your Business Ideas                                       |
| HBS     | Household Budget Survey  |
| HLIs    | Higher Learning Institutions                                       |
| ILFS    | Integrated Labour Force Survey                                     |
| ILO     | International Labour Organization                                  |
| JK      | Jakaya Kikwete   |
| KAB     | Know About Business  |
| KNN     | Kazi Nje Nje   |
| ICSB    | International Council for Small Business                           |
| IMF     | International Monetary Fund  |
| MESWYWC | Ministry of Empowerment, Social Welfare, Youth, Women and Children |
| MIEI    | Model of Implementing Entrepreneurial Ideas                        |
| NCEC    | National Consortium of Entrepreneurship Centre                     |
| REAL    | Rural Entrepreneurship through Action Learning                     |
| REE     | Roundtable on Entrepreneurship Education                           |

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| SAP    | Structural Adjustment Policy                                     |
| SEE    | Symposia for Entrepreneurship Educators                          |
| SEEE   | Symposium for Engineering Entrepreneurship Educators             |
| SEEM   | Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event Model                            |
| STEP   | Student Training for Entrepreneurship Promotion                  |
| SYB    | Start Your Business  |
| UMCAC  | University Mission for Central African Church                    |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| USASBE | United State Association for Small Business and Entrepreneurship |
| WAP    | Working Age Population   |
| WEDTF  | Women Entrepreneurship Development Trust Fund                    |
| YEI    | Youth Employment Initiative                                      |
| ZNCCIA | Zanzibar National Chamber of Commerce Industry and Agriculture   |
| ZNP    | Zanzibar National Party  |
| ZPPP   | Zanzibar and Pemba People's Party                                |
| ZPRP   | Zanzibar Poverty Reduction Plan                                  |
| ZSGRP  | Zanzibar Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty            |
| ZTBI   | Zanzibar Technology Business Incubator                           |

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Overview of the Study**

Youth entrepreneurship, which is the phenomenon of interest, has been an emerging area of inquiry in the last three decades mainly in the United States of America (USA) and Europe, Asia and gradually in Africa. Research on youth entrepreneurship got momentum due to an increase in the unemployment crisis among youth, which threatens socio-economic stability of the countries. Studies on youth entrepreneurship are carried out under broad perspectives of entrepreneurship, started with personal traits, process, intention to cognition and behaviour. However, most studies on entrepreneurship focus on the intention of youth, particularly students to join entrepreneurship after graduating using a theory of planned behaviour (TPB). Intention studies hardly discuss the behaviour of youth entrepreneurs to provide practical and managerial implications that address youth unemployment crisis. This study goes beyond the intention and examined behaviour of youth who engage in entrepreneurship to understand their cognitive ability in spotting opportunities for starting entrepreneurial ventures through resource mobilization and visualizing growth of the ventures. Therefore, this study uses entrepreneurial cognitive theory (ECT), a dominant underpinning theory complemented by human capital theory to understand youth entrepreneurship in the developing economy context, Zanzibar Tanzania which is situated in East Africa with 1.5 million population. Like other countries, youth in Zanzibar suffer from unemployment crisis, few dare to venture into entrepreneurship. Through quantitative perspective, this study tested the influence of individual factors, entrepreneurial learning, networking, mindset, motivation and self-efficacy on youth entrepreneurship.



## 1.2 Background of the Study

Over the past three decades, youth entrepreneurship has been a major focus in national and global development agendas (Damoah, 2020; Ogamba, 2019; International Labour Organization (ILO), 2015; Minola, Criaco, & Cassia, 2014) due to low capacity of government, the main employer of youth (Katundu & Gabagambi, 2016a), to provide jobs that absorb all graduates (Delle & Amadu, 2015; Haftendorn, 2008), infant private sector development in developing countries (Schillo, Persaud, & Jin, 2016) and reluctance of employers to recruit less experienced youth (Kousiakis, 2015; Bell, 2016). Due to such a drastic shift of the labour market, young people are required to change their minds from job seeking syndrome to job creating mentality (Dolan & Rajak, 2016; Delle & Amadu, 2015; Byrne, et al 2014) and rise their enterprise culture of opportunity recognition (Wall, 2015). As such, youth entrepreneurship is regarded as a gateway for youth to get out of poverty and disadvantageous positions.

Formal sector is unable to meet employment demands of vast growing young population (Kew, Namatovu, Aderinto, & Chigunta, 2015; Fulgence, 2015 b) due to a critical imbalance between supply and demand for labour in labour market (Katundu & Gabagambi, 2016b). The World Bank estimates about 11 million young people in Sub-Saharan Africa enter the job market every year, with higher risks of growing numbers of urban youth without meaningful occupation (Bezu & Holden, 2014; McCowan, 2014). Likewise, economic growth has not translated into job creation and poverty reduction, as 70 percent of people earn their living from informal economy.

Therefore, governments, international and local organizations support youth for creation of new enterprises through training, and/or financial assistance in addressing youth unemployment problems (Williams, 2004). The general conviction is that youth entrepreneurship would scale up invention and innovation, stimulate competition, increase self-reliance and wellbeing (Saar & Unt, 2006; Blanchflower, 2000) and offer positive learning externalities to others to establish new ventures (Green, 2013). In this study, youth entrepreneurship is conceptualized in terms of opportunity recognition (OR), resource competence (RC) and growth vision (GV). Young people are quicker in adopting new economic trends and opportunities and regarded as agents of change in bringing new ideas with fresh insights towards development (Saar & Unt, 2006; Kew et al., 2015). Moreover, young people have a comparative advantage of transforming youth entrepreneurship in sub-Saharan Africa from necessity based into opportunity driven entrepreneurship (Monitoring Group, 2012). This is because necessity-based entrepreneurs create business in the face of limited alternative opportunities with less growth vision and resources, driven much by survival needs while opportunity-based entrepreneurs are driven by opportunities in business creation and growth vision (Fairlie & Fossen, 2018).

The role of individuals in youth entrepreneurship cannot be overemphasized, because one of the big challenges facing youth is the belief that they cannot succeed in entrepreneurship (Kew et al., 2015) as they view it very risky, with early high failure (Schillo, Persaud, & Jin, 2016; Williams, 2004). According to Simon's satisficing model, people have a strong preference for certainty and are willing to sacrifice income to achieve more certainty (Dowling & Chini-Fang (2007). As noted by Mgumia (2017), youths' aspirations and

belief systems are critical factors in youth entrepreneurship and successful outcomes in their ventures.

Youth entrepreneurship is constrained by their readiness to compete in the job market and low enthusiasm to entrepreneurship (Prianto, Zoebaida, Sudarto, & Hartati, 2018). Lack of entrepreneurial skills, access to finance, social network and familiarity with the business environment exacerbate fear of failure, representing major barriers to youth entrepreneurship (Duell, 2011; ILO, 2011). It is found that the education system is tailored with low innovative aspects of imparting entrepreneurial mindset to graduates on entrepreneurship (Collet & Cinneide, 2010). It is important therefore youth are instilled with entrepreneurial mindset that will not only help interpret and respond to a changing situation (Noble, 2015), but also identify and exploit business opportunities regardless of resources at disposal (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000, McMullen & Kier, 2016) through curiosity, connection, and creation of value (Li, Harichandran, and Nocito-gobel, 2018).

Young people are more vulnerable to unemployment compared to adults (Green, 2013; Schoof, 2006). They are more victim in term of (i) lower quality of jobs for those who find work; (ii) greater labour market inequalities among different groups of young people; (iii) longer and more insecure school- to-work transitions; and (iv) increased detachment from the labour market (Kew et al., 2015). Youth unemployment, therefore, becomes a big challenging policy to countries in the world (Burchell, Coutts, Hall, & Pye, 2015). For instance, youth unemployment is estimated at 33 percent in sub-Saharan African countries

(ILO, 2011), in particular 23.1 percent in Nigeria, 41.6 percent in Ghana, 15.7 percent in Kenya and 14.3 percent in Zanzibar (McCowan & Steven, 2014).

By in large, a potential strategy for increasing youth participation in labour market is through entrepreneurship (Ćoćkalo, Đorđević, Bogetić, & Bakator, 2020; Green, 2013) in order to address triad of unemployment, underemployment and poverty ( Rambe et al, 2017; Isah & Garba, 2015; Kew et al., 2015; Beeka & Rimmington, 2011), along with increasing self-reliance and wellbeing (Lofstrom, 2013), and integrating youth into the economic environment (Beeka & Rimmington, 2011; Jain, 2017). Entrepreneurship, therefore, is seen as '*the silver bullet*' that cures social ills (Honing & Martin, 2014). Conversely, persisting youth unemployment not only wastes productive human resources potential for enhancing economic progress but also influences widespread unhappiness and social disconnect among youth (Arzeni & Mitra, 2008).

Therefore, adoption of entrepreneurship education becomes imperative for creating entrepreneurial awareness, skills and culture that helps youth exploit business opportunities and perceive self-employment as a career option (Oluseye, Adebayo, & Olulanu, 2017; Akpan, 2013; Rasheed, 2000). In addition, entrepreneurial education enhances the ability of entrepreneurs to handle communication and liability of newness during the start-up phase (Ulvenblad, Berggren, & Winborg, 2013). Melyoki and Gielnik (2020) observed that action-oriented entrepreneurship education and training can transform students into real entrepreneurs through empowerment, appreciation, and confirmation of do-ability. Education and training institutions started incorporating it in education

curriculum as a course or programme in the 1980s. Since then, studies have been conducted to assess its effectiveness in increasing entrepreneurial intention, behaviour (Fayolle, 2000; Fayolle, Gailly, & Lassas-Clerc, 2006; Fayolle & Liñán, 2013) and entrepreneurial competence (Sánchez, 2013). However, a handful of studies have investigated the impact of entrepreneurship programmes on youth entrepreneurship (Halim, Ahmad, Ramayah and Hanifah, 2017).

Empirical studies indicate that youth with more-positive attitudes to risk and independence are ready to venture into entrepreneurship and become internationally competitive (Isah & Garba, 2015; Akpan, 2013). Dolan & Rajak (2016) argue that the precondition for liberating youth is to train them at a practical, psychological, and moral level that will contribute to changing mentality from ‘job-seekers’ to ‘job-creators’. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy therefore is important to enable youth to have beliefs of being capable to perform well in entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy has significant positive impact on entrepreneurial outcomes (Javadian, Opie, & Parise, 2018). In this context, entrepreneurship curricula should be tailored to instil entrepreneurial mindsets and self-belief necessary for students to be entrepreneurs or competent employees for promoting national and global economies (Isah & Garba, 2015).

Youth entrepreneurship has attracted various studies with diverse direction, context, and approaches. The earlier studies on youth entrepreneurship paid particular attention to students at schools and universities. Although intention is an important predictor to entrepreneurial behaviour, it does not guarantee action because of cultural, and institutional

circumstances an individual would experience and change his/her intention. Fayolle (2014) recommended entrepreneurship research to focus on behaviour of real-life entrepreneurs. This influenced the emergence of studies focusing on entrepreneurial behaviour and competencies. There are also studies focusing on cognition as an important construct of behaviour and few on youth entrepreneurship. However, most of these studies have been widely conducted in America, followed by Europe, and Asia while few in African context. In terms of approaches, studies are quantitative in nature with much debate about the level of analysis that is robust and parsimonious, among individual, firm, national and international level.

Since the central aspect of the entrepreneurial process is mostly based on the individual and the context (Anderson, 2000), this study applies individual factors to examine youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. More specifically, the study examines the relationship between entrepreneurial mindset, networking, motivation, self-efficacy and learning on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Uniquely, the study goes beyond the entry /intention level to the creation and management of the business by interviewing young people engaging in entrepreneurship activities after benefiting from entrepreneurial education and /or training. This study is important because of the paucity of research on youth entrepreneurship in the literature. In addition, there is a scant scholastic attention and limited published materials on the individual factors focusing on cognitive perspective in the developing countries. Thus, this study shall contribute to the area of inquiry by filling in the described gap in the literature.

### 1.3 Statement of the Problem

Research on youth entrepreneurship draws attention to academicians, researchers, and policy makers due to its pivotal role toward addressing adversary unemployment conditions among young people in the contemporary dynamic and unprecedented world. Statistics show the growth of the youth population does not match with access to jobs in the labour market, which creates a persistent fear of turning the growing youth population from “population dividends” into “ticking bomb”. ILO (2017) estimated that over the past 20 years from 1997 to 2017, the youth population grew by 139 million people, while the youth labour force shrank by 34.9 million people, declining the youth proportion of the overall global labour force from 21.7 percent to 15.5 percent. The global youth labour force participation declined from 55.0 percent to 45.5 percent. In 2017, about 70.9 million young people were unemployed in the world. More than 200 million Africans aged 15-24 and expected to rise from 1.1 billion in 2013 to 2.4 billion by 2050. It is estimated about 29 percent of the total world youth population resides in Africa and makes 70 percent of the continent’s total population. Africa is known as the youngest continent in the world (Kew et al., 2015). In Tanzania, about 800,000 youth enter the workforce every year. According to the Zanzibar Statistics Abstract of 2016, youth aged 15 to 24 are 20.3 percent while youth aged 15 to 35 are 36.2 percent.

In addressing this condition, youth are given entrepreneurship skills and sometimes start-up capital to start entrepreneurial ventures. This is because minority youth have the right skills, and ideas for entrepreneurship (Eurofound, 2015) and psychological readiness in entrepreneurship (Eucharia, 2018). For instance, in Zanzibar, youth get access to entrepreneurship training in universities, business incubators, Chamber of Commerce and

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). However, the big concern is that few dare to engage in entrepreneurship mostly in the informal sector to earn their living while the majority of young people are afraid of risk and uncertainty. Sometimes, they engage into entrepreneurship on a temporary basis waiting for employment in the established institutions. Shortage of youth entrepreneurs creates a vicious cycle of unemployment and poverty among them. Mwasalwiba et al (2012) found a decline of entrepreneurship among graduate youth, and some Tanzanian owner managers have low growth motivation of their business (Olomi, 2001). Kilasi (2013) recommended more empirical studies on youth entrepreneurship in Tanzania.

Therefore, entrepreneurial mindset is regarded as an important aspect that enables entrepreneurs to think and act on business opportunities in responding to dynamic business environments innovatively (Bosman and Fernhaber, 2017; Njeru, 2012). There is great need to examine the mediating role of entrepreneurial mindset in entrepreneurship (Nabi, et al., 2017) because about 50 percent of new ventures fail within five years of establishment (Baum, Frese, & Baron, 2007). Youth with entrepreneurial mindset are eager to continue learning, and cope with an uncertain business environment (Kurczewska et al., 2018; Naumann, (2017).

There are very limited studies focusing youth entrepreneurship from behavioural perspectives. The review of literature reveals that most of studies based on students' entrepreneurial intention (Ezeh, Nkamnebe, & Omodafe, 2019; Dendup & Acharja, 2017; Sharma, 2018; Eucharia, 2018; Isah & Garba, 2015), performance of Small and Medium



Enterprises (SMEs) (Makame , 2014), role of micro financial institution on entrepreneurship and business development ( Khamis, 2015; Kirobo , 2015) and role of universities towards entrepreneurship (Bezerra, Borges, & Andreassi, 2017; Dzomonda & Fatoki, 2019). None of these studies exclusively focused on youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, the study bridged this gap by examining the influence of individual factors; entrepreneurial learning, networking, motivation, self-efficacy on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.

#### 1.4 Purpose and Justification of the Study

At the heart of this research lies the phenomenon of youth entrepreneurship. It has become a very interesting, complex, and important phenomenon because it is situated at the core of changes in the landscape and context of entrepreneurship. Based on quantitative methods, therefore, the purpose of this study is to get a better understanding of the youth entrepreneurship framework and its related antecedents in Zanzibar, Tanzania. Therefore, the study is motivated with following reasons:

First, the study responds to the call for the additional research on psychological related entrepreneurship research, which has received less attention for more than two decades. Thus, the study will contribute to understanding the complex youth entrepreneurship process through cognitive approach in ascertaining entrepreneurship practices and establishing why some young people are more successful than others in their endeavours (Busenitz and Arthurs, 2007).

Second, youth entrepreneurship is an appealing phenomenon in the development of any nation. Young people are agents of change, they have power to bring new ideas with fresh insights towards development (Saar & Unt, 2006; Kew et al., 2015). Promoting youth entrepreneurship would increase job creation and build a strong base for the private sector development which is an engine of economic growth in the country. However, the youth employment crisis is pervasive in developing countries, constraining nations to harness youth potential for socio-economic development. Therefore, this condition creates an urgency of assessing practices of youth in the pursuit of entrepreneurial activities and understanding influencing variables.

A call for addressing unemployment problem among youth/graduates become much noticeable (Lekoko & Ras, 2012; UNESCO, 1998), which makes youth entrepreneurship as an important and inevitable intervention (Setiawan, 2014) by appreciating entrepreneurs' role in the society (Zulfiqar, Asmi, Chandia, Sarwar, & Aziz, 2017). Nevertheless, in systematic literature review, Minola et al., (2014) found few studies dedicated to youth entrepreneurship and recommended more studies on the area. In this regard, the study analyzed in detail the way young people in Zanzibar attempt to address the problem of youth unemployment through entrepreneurship initiatives.

Third, this study uses individual level analysis of youth entrepreneurship because the individual is a core of entrepreneurship, through his/her occupation choice (Katz, 1992) and success of new venture (Trevelyan, 2011). That is, entrepreneurship is about thinking and actions of an individual, who conceives ideas, identifies opportunity, and assembles

resources and logistics to produce and market products and services, that add value for customers and workers (Baum et al., 2007). Entrepreneurship is a fundamentally personal decision (Baum, et al., 2007) which is an important aspect in understanding the impact of entrepreneurship studies since it is the first stage in the entrepreneurship process (Liñán, 2007).

Other scholars such as Schumpeter (1934) and McClelland (1961) believe that an individual plays a significant role in entrepreneurship and has a power to identify, operationalize and market technological innovations. Hence, Schumpeter refers to such an individual as a “Great Man”, the agent or focal point of change, who translates inventions into business and wealth (Baum et al., 2007). For the case of McClelland whose interest was in achievement through his books, *The Achieving Society* (1961) and *Motivating Economic Achievement* (1969) with David Winter, indicated the centrality of an individual and the way potential entrepreneurs could be helped through training (Baum et al., 2007). New ventures are the products of individual-level actions (Markman, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2002; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

Fourth, a detail review of the study about the phenomenon using different published and sometimes unpublished materials found that most studies to date have focused on youth entrepreneurship in developed economies such as the USA and selected European countries and only a handful of studies had been done in Asia and no empirical study on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania has been published.

Fifth, the researcher is motivated to conduct this study about youth entrepreneurship through his teaching and research experience. The researcher has been teaching undergraduate students about entrepreneurship and participating in various entrepreneurship programmes in Zanzibar, such as Business Development Gateway (BDG) organized by Zanzibar National Chamber of Commerce, Industries and Agriculture (ZNCCIA), Entrepreneurship Programme under Zanzibar Institute of Financial Administration (ZIFA) entrepreneurship training and youth entrepreneurship trainings organized by CUBE Zanzibar.

### 1.5 Research Objectives

The research purpose leads to the following research objectives: -

RO1: To determine the influence of individual factors (entrepreneurial learning, networking, self-efficacy, motivation, and mindset) on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.

RO2: To examine the most significant individual factors influencing youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.

RQ3: To determine the mediating role of entrepreneurial mindset in the relationship between individual factors i.e. entrepreneurial learning, networking, motivation, and self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.

## 1.6 Research Questions

RQ1: What is the influence of the individual factors on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania?

RQ2: Which are the most significant factors associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania?

RQ3: Does entrepreneurial mindset play a mediating role in the relationship between entrepreneurial learning, self-efficacy, networking, and motivation with youth entrepreneurship?

## 1.7 Significance of the study

This study sought to fill the gap of understanding the influence of individual factors on youth entrepreneurship in developing economies. A cursory review of the literature revealed little empirical evidence that demonstrates the relationship between individual antecedents and youth entrepreneurship. The significance of this study anchors on promoting youth entrepreneurship necessary for addressing the ambivalence that creates barriers to youth employment. Therefore, the study contributes towards extending the literature in youth entrepreneurship by analysing individual factors to youth entrepreneurship.

At the theoretical level, the study contributes to the body of knowledge on youth entrepreneurship by testing the youth entrepreneurship framework. Therefore, the study complements theoretical perspectives of youth entrepreneurship. This study has identified

and reviewed a fair number of theoretical models and conceptual frameworks of youth entrepreneurship. Based on the examination of the literature, it is found that there is still a theoretical gap in explaining the influence of individual factors on youth entrepreneurship.

Because of the web of interaction by the constructs, it is important to identify the key constructs that explain youth entrepreneurship and analyse the interactive relationship between the constructs and testing their mediating relationship. So, this study contributes to provide foundation for further studies about youth entrepreneurship not only in Zanzibar but also in the developing economies at large. In addition, with limited culture in research and publishing in Zanzibar, this study is a precursor for studies related to youth entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship.

At policymaking level, the research provides a detailed analysis of antecedents of youth entrepreneurship, and findings will become important inputs for policy making on the promotion of youth entrepreneurship. This is because the majority of jobs are developed and run by entrepreneurs (Cho & Honorati, 2014).

At management level, the study's findings are an eye-opener for the management of education institutions in re-designing entrepreneurship curriculum targeting changing attitudes towards entrepreneurship. Most university students are young whose dreams and life aspirations begin to take shape and influence future life choices (Bignotti Alex, 2016). Youth face a critical problem of finding employment after their studies, not only because of lack of skills but also their negative attitude towards self-employment. Therefore,

findings will help teachers and academics on how to approach youth entrepreneurship (Byrne et al, 2014).

At practice level, this study reveals aspects of youth entrepreneurship, which are critical for youth entrepreneurship in the country. This framework will also assist in enhancing the country's efforts in promoting youth entrepreneurship. Thus, findings of this study will be significant inputs for designing interventions towards youth employment and national entrepreneurship development programmes in line with Goal 8 of the UN Sustainable Development Agenda (SDG) 2030 on promoting decent work for all and the sixth aspiration of African Union Agenda 2063 acknowledging potential of youth in development and Zanzibar Development vision 2050 which design to tap the sustainable use of ocean resources for economic growth.

### 1.8 Scope of the Study

This study is limited to the field of entrepreneurship particularly on youth entrepreneurship using cognitive perspectives (Mitchell, 2014a; Krueger, 2003). Cognitive perspectives provide theoretical understanding on how entrepreneurs think and act in relation to starting and expanding entrepreneurial ventures. The perspectives help understand the behaviour of entrepreneurs in exploiting opportunity and cope with a dynamic business environment (Smith, Mitchell, & Mitchell, 2009; Barney & Alvarez, 2002).

The study conceptualizes youth entrepreneurship as a composite of opportunity recognition, resource competence and growth vision and denoted more on behaviour rather than performance or intention. The focus on individual –level analysis is mainly because entrepreneurship depends on individual decisions and actions (Markman, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2002). Contrary to other scholars (e.g. Schillo, Persaud, & Jin 2016; Gelman & Rosnay, 2019) who discussed entrepreneurship in the national and institutional system of entrepreneurship beyond individual level, the study examined individual youth entrepreneurs in developing economies.

This study was done in Zanzibar, covering both Pemba and Unguja Islands in all five regions. This is because of getting a good representation of all regions and having a clear understanding of the effects of individual factors on youth entrepreneurship. The study mainly covered youth who have benefited from entrepreneurship education and/or training, and then decided to start their businesses in Zanzibar. Therefore, the study also assessed the relationship of entrepreneurial learning, mindset, self-efficacy, networking, and motivation with youth entrepreneurship in addition to examining the mediating effect of entrepreneurial mindset on that relationship.

## 1.9 Definitions of terms

### 1.9.1 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is a slippery concept with different definitions. According to Pawitan, Nawangpalupi, and Widyarini (2017), the term entrepreneurship can be defined into two main perspectives. First, entrepreneurship is the process of creating, owning, and



managing a venture. Thus, its practitioners are called entrepreneurs, self-employed or business owners. Wang (2015) refers to it as an occupational notion of entrepreneurship i.e., employment choice. Under this perspective, there is a dynamic perspective on the creation of new business and a static perspective concerning the number of business owners.

Second, entrepreneurship is entrepreneurial behaviour of capturing opportunity and dealing with risk. This also refers to the behaviour notion of entrepreneurship (Wang, 2015), whereas innovators or pioneers are also considered entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs in this perspective are not necessary to be business owners, they are rather intrapreneurs (Sternberg & Wennekers, 2005). Shane and Venkataraman (2000) extended this definition by associating entrepreneurship with a process of discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new products, services, processes, and ways of organizing or market. The major issue now is why, when, and how some people discover and exploit opportunities (Baum et al., 2007).

Broadly, the Commission for European communities defined entrepreneurship as “the mindset and process to create and develop economic activity by blending risk-taking, creativity and/or innovation with sound management, within a new or an existing organization.”(Commission of the European Communities, 2003:6). Entrepreneurship therefore is the process of putting down entrepreneurial thinking into practices, be it in the profit-oriented sector, non-profit sector, in the political area or public sector (Bhatt & Bhatt, 2016). This study adopts the cognitive based definition of starting a new business venture, managing, and growing it.

### 1.9.2 Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education is defined differently depending on emphasis; Liñán (2007) defines entrepreneurship education based on 'firm creation', as a process of providing individuals with the concepts and skills to recognize opportunities that others have overlooked and to have the insight and self-esteem to act where others have hesitated. That is, entrepreneurship education is a preparatory function for the launch of new ventures and means of increasing self-efficacy (Katz, 2003). According to the Consortium for Entrepreneurship Education (partially shared with the European Commission, entrepreneurship education is lifelong learning (Liñán, 2007).

### 1.9.3 Youth

Youth is well known as a period of transition from the dependence of childhood to adulthood independence and awareness of our interdependence as members of a community. Youth is a critical moment of life when young people start realizing their aspiration, assuming their economic independence and seeking space in the society (Kew et al., 2015).

According to the International Labour Organization, youth are young people aged 15 to 24 however, in Zanzibar youth are regarded as young people aged 15 to 35. It is a critical period where youth start their aspirations, wanting economic independence and a place in the society (Kew et al., 2015). In other words, it is a period for experiencing a variety of physical, cognitive, emotional, economic, and social changes influencing youth's needs, identities, behaviour, and opportunities.

#### 1.9.4 Youth Entrepreneurship

Sakala (2017:73) defines youth entrepreneurship as “a process by which a youth or a group of youth knowingly or unknowingly undertake(s) risk and start a business activity to make a profit and improve the welfare of others”. Gwija, Eresia-Eke, and Iwu, (2014:12) conceptualized youth entrepreneur as “any young person between age of 16-35 years, who can recognize an opportunity when it shows, and uses it to create value and wealth by starting a new or growing an existing business venture, in any sector”. This study conceptualizes youth entrepreneurship as the ability of youth to spot opportunities at their disposal to start and grow entrepreneurial ventures by having competence in resource mobilization and visualizing the growth of their ventures.

#### 1.9.5 Mindset

Mindset is the belief and attitude to act in a certain way due to experience and environment (Bosman & Fernhaber, 2018). It is mental attitude or inclination which can be fixed, or growth oriented which can change, determining how a person interprets and responds to situations (Ruhara & Kayitana, 2018). In other words, it is about what we see, think, and believe. Mindset is the internal lens through which someone sees and navigates life. Mindset is a set of fundamental presuppositions one holds, which shapes actions and one's ability which later on influences results of such actions (Kacou, 2011). A mindset change will cause a change in perception, behaviour, thinking and results (Wong, Chiah, Toh, & Shim, 2010). By focusing on mindset, we recognize the role individuals play in bringing change to a massive system (Kacou, 2011).

Dweck (2006) provides a detailed explanation about mindset on how students perceive their ability, which is important in the motivation and achievement of students. According to her, if an educator manages to change students' mindsets, it could enhance their achievement. The author differentiates fixed mindsets from growth mindset; the latter believe that their intelligences are developed through efforts and outperformed those who believe their intelligences are fixed.

#### 1.9.6 Entrepreneurial Mindset

McGrath and MacMillan (2000) define entrepreneurial mindset as a growth-oriented perspective through which individuals uphold flexibility, creativity, continuous innovation, and renewal. It is the ability to rapidly sense, act and mobilize, even under uncertain conditions, that is, it is an entrepreneurial habit of the mind. It is about the way of thinking about business and opportunity under uncertain conditions (Neneh, 2012; Bosman and Fernhaber, 2017; Hitt, Ireland, Sirmon, & Trahms, 2012). Entrepreneurial mindset therefore enables individuals to respond and interpret the business environment creatively (Njeru, 2012).

#### 1.9.7 Entrepreneurial Self-efficacy

Drnovšek, Wincent, & Cardon (2010:1-2) defined entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) as "individuals' beliefs regarding their capabilities for attaining success and controlling cognitions for successfully tackling challenging goals during the business start-up process". However, self-efficacy goes beyond start-up and permeates to other phases of venture growth.

ESE is more action oriented of the individuals used to master and implement necessary resources, skills, and competencies to obtain a certain level of achievement on a given task. It is widely recognized the centrality of entrepreneurial self-efficacy in influencing individuals to pursue self-employment endeavours and engage in entrepreneurial behaviour (Newman, Obschonka, Schwarz, Cohen, & Nielsen, 2018).

#### 1.9.8 Entrepreneurial learning

Politis (2005:3) defines entrepreneurial learning (EL) as a “continuous process that facilitates the development of knowledge for being effective in starting up and managing new ventures”. EL is a continuous interaction process between an entrepreneur and the environment in order to sport opportunities and necessary resources for business. An effective entrepreneur is one who streamlines learning throughout the entrepreneurial process.

#### 1.9.9 Entrepreneurial networking

Entrepreneurial networking is the process of establishing and maintaining business contact and relationships for the purpose of acquiring resources and opportunities. It is a formal and informal relationship between entrepreneurs and other individuals or entities whereby business contact is created. It involves the interaction of members through investment in high-trust channels of communication. (Mayanja, Ntayi, Munene, Kagaari, & Waswa, 2019).

#### 1.9.10 Entrepreneurial Motivation

Entrepreneurial motivation is the desire and force that drives nascent entrepreneurs to act through the process of venture emergence and growth. Entrepreneurial motivation is the force that is directed towards entrepreneurial goals which are being involved in recognition and exploitation of opportunities, and resource mobilization for growth of the venture (Baum & Locke, 2007). It is therefore a critical factor for determining an individual's ability in the pursuit of a goal (Estay, Durrieu, & Akhter, 2013).

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **CONTEXTUAL SETTING**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

To get insights about the study, it is important to uncover the contextual information. An understanding of such information not only helps the researcher interpret findings of the study and provide appropriate recommendations but also helps readers to link findings and interpretation. This chapter, therefore, explains location, population and history, macro-economic performance, Zanzibar education system, development of entrepreneurship, strategic actions for promoting youth employment and lastly empirical studies related to Youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

#### **2.2 Location, Population and History**

Zanzibar is located along the Eastern coast of Africa in the Indian Ocean having two main islands of Unguja and Pemba with a total 2,534 square kilometres of which 1,534 square kilometres for Unguja and the remaining 1,000 square kilometres is for Pemba Island. It is found between 5 and 7 degrees south of the Equator. Zanzibar is also surrounded by several habitant and inhabitant islets. Unguja Island is much covered by coconut trees while Pemba Island is covered by clove trees. The island's climate is warm and humid with average annual rainfall of 60 to 80 inches (1,500 to 2,000 mm) and temperature ranges from 25.1 to 33.8 degree centigrade. See Figure 2.1 below, (Right is Unguja (Zanzibar) and Left is Pemba Island).

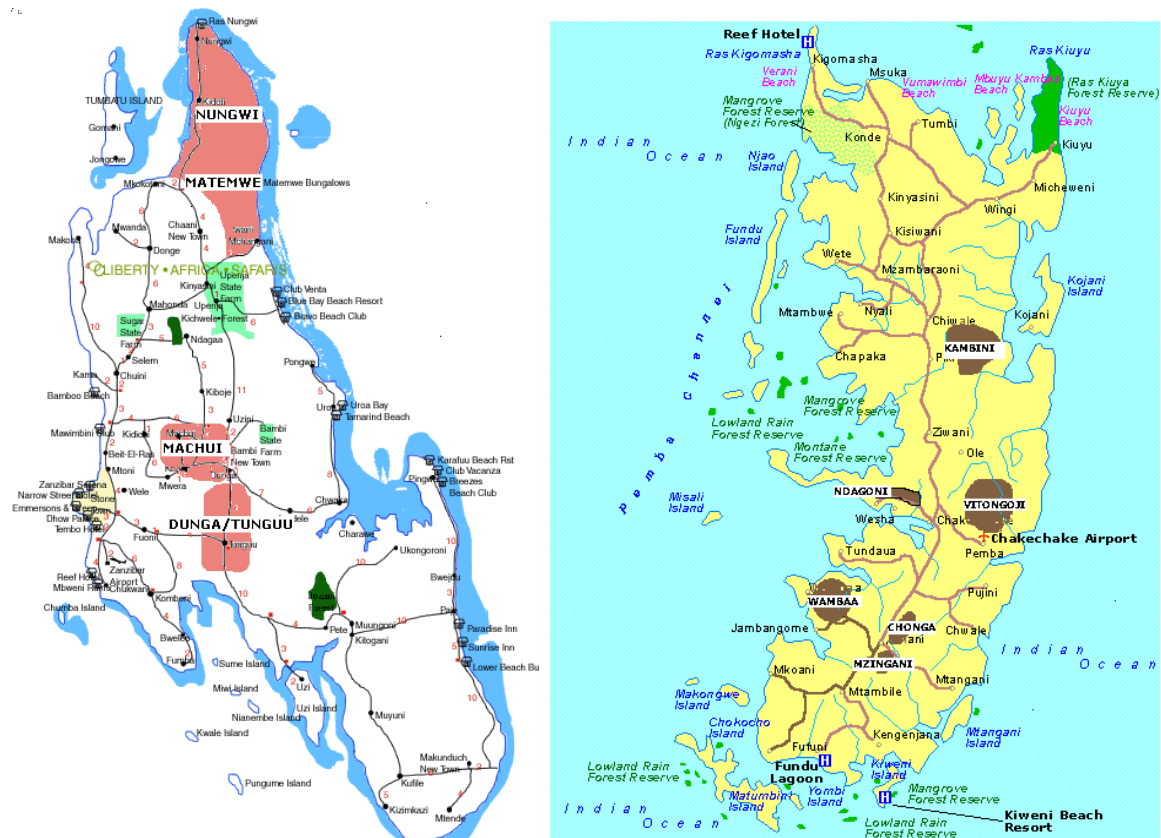


Figure 2. 1 Map of Zanzibar Islands

According to the Tanzania Population and Housing Census of 2012, Zanzibar had a population of 1.3 million people of different ethnicities of whom 51.6 were female. Majority of the population is of African origin with 68.8 percent of it lived in Unguja and 31.2 percent lived in Pemba. The annual population growth rate is 2.8 percent, while in urban areas the annual population growth rate is 4.2 percent. Youth consists of 36.2 percent of the total population. The population density increased from 400 per square kilometre in 2002 to 530 per square kilometre in 2012 (OCGS, 2017). Table 2.1 shows past censuses had an annual population growth rate of 2.7 percent and 3.1 percent in 1978 and 2003, respectively.



Table 2. 1 Evolution of Zanzibar Population since 1967

| Census | Population | Annual growth of the population % |
|--------|------------|-----------------------------------|
| 2012   | 1,303,569  | 2.8                               |
| 2002   | 981,754    | 3.1                               |
| 1988   | 640,675    | 3.0                               |
| 1978   | 476,111    | 2.7                               |
| 1967   | 354,815    | -                                 |

Historically, the two islands were very famous for Slave trade in East Africa. By the middle of the 18th century, the islands were ruled by the Sultan of Oman, Sayyid Said bin Sultan, who also made Zanzibar his commercial and financial centre. The Sultan also controlled a large part of the Eastern African coastal strip including both Kenya and the then Tanganyika. These lands were later lost to the Germans and the British forces. In 1890, Zanzibar became a British Protectorate though the Sultan continued to control the internal affairs of the Islands.

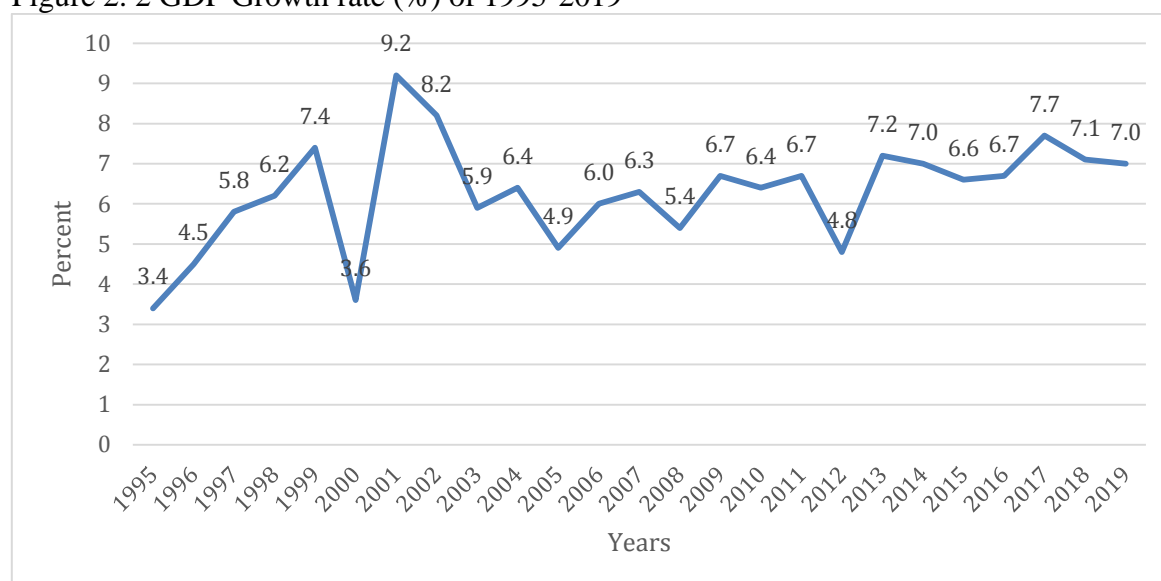
The rise of nationalism in Zanzibar divided the island's population along racial lines, which is even reflected in the income distribution of the society. Thus, the rich class consisted of the minority Arabs, Asians, and Europeans, while the majority Africans and Shirazis were poor (Sheriff, 1987). After a series of unrepresentative elections, on December 10, 1963, independence was finally granted to a coalition government of two political parties of Zanzibar National Party (ZNP) and Zanzibar and Pemba People's Party (ZPPP). The Sultan however remained a constitutional monarch. However, the Afro Shirazi Party (ASP) was not satisfied with the election results as they thought it was manipulated and on January 12, 1964, they overthrew the government and established the Revolutionary Government led by Honourable Abeid A. Karume (Mapuri, 1996).

Zanzibar united with Tanganyika to form Tanzania on 26th April 1964, and retained semi-autonomy with its own Judiciary, House of Representatives and Executive. The Union Government is fully responsible for the union portfolios such as foreign and home affairs, defence, and subsectors of higher education. Administratively, Zanzibar has five regions with 11 districts – 7 in Unguja and 4 in Pemba. Each district is also sub-divided into several smaller administrative units known as *Shehia* (ward). A *Shehia* can be a demarcated area in urban areas, a village or collection of few villages in rural areas, with an average population of around 4,000 inhabitants.

### 2.3 Macro-economic Performance

This study analyses macroeconomic performance in terms of Growth Domestic Product (GDP) and poverty status. The analysis of Zanzibar economic performance demonstrates that the GDP growth rate has not been steadily increasing and having irregular patterns. For instance, Figure 2.2 shows the growth rate in 1995 was 3.4, which rose to 7.5 in 2004; but it slumped down to 3.6 in 2000, then rising to 9.3 in 2001. The GDP increased again to 6.7 percent in 2009 and went down to 4.8 in 2012 and rose to 7.0 in 2019. These data indicate that the overall economic growth has been a real phenomenon but not in a way that one would like for its sustainability. The fluctuation also indicates that the economy remains sensitive to unstable factors like weather conditions and global economic performance.

Figure 2. 2 GDP Growth rate (%) of 1995-2019



Source: Zanzibar Socio-Economic Survey 2000-2016

The main sectors contributing to the GDP growth rates are agriculture, forestry, fishing, service, and industry at different levels. The service sector contributed largely to GDP with 42.7 percent in 2008, slightly decreased to 41.1 percent in 2012 and rose to 51.3 in 2018. The second sector is agriculture, forestry, and fishing with 30.7 percent in 2008, rose to 32.5 in 2010 but then decreased to 21.3 percent in 2018. Comparatively, the industrial sector contributed less to GDP with 14.3 in 2008, decreased to 11.7 in 2011 and rose to 17.8 percent in 2018. The analysis indicates the contribution of service and industry keep on growing while that of agriculture, forestry and fishing keep on decreasing. See Table 2.2 below

Table 2. 2 Contribution of the sectors to GDP

|                                    | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 |
|------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Agriculture, forestry, and fishing | 30.7 | 30.8 | 32.4 | 30.2 | 29.3 | 30.8 | 27.8 | 25.8 | 25.7 | 21.5 | 21.3 |
| Industry                           | 14.3 | 13.1 | 12.6 | 11.7 | 18.6 | 17.9 | 16.8 | 18.1 | 18.6 | 19.6 | 17.8 |
| Service                            | 42.7 | 44.1 | 42.6 | 44   | 41.5 | 41.1 | 44.7 | 46.1 | 45.1 | 48.6 | 51.3 |

Source: Zanzibar Socio-Economic Survey 2008-2018

Poverty status is measured by indicators such as basic needs poverty, food poverty as well as Gini coefficient. Table 2.3 shows information about poverty status in Zanzibar.

Table 2. 3 Poverty Status by Years 1991-2014

| Indicators               | 1991/1992 | 2004/2005 | 2009/2010 | 2014/2015 |
|--------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Basic needs poverty line | 62.0      | 49.1      | 44.0      | 30.4      |
| Below food poverty line  | 22.0      | 13.2      | 13.0      | 10.8      |
| Gini coefficient         | N/A       | 0.23      | 0.24      | 0.30      |

Source: Zanzibar Household Budget Survey (HBS)

Table 2.3 indicates a decline in basic needs poverty from 62 percent to 49.1 percent in 1991/1992 and 2004/2005 respectively. Progressively, people living below the basic needs, poverty line decreased from 44.0 percent in 2009/2010 to 30.4 percent in 2014/2015. Although there is a decline in basic needs poverty, 30.4 percent of people could not meet their basic consumption needs, meaning that one third of the population (443,540) still are very poor.

In case of food poverty, there was a decline from 22 percent in 1991/1992 to 10.8 in 2014/2015. This indicates 10.8 percent of the population is extremely poor and unable to buy basic foodstuff to meet their minimum nutritional requirements of 2,200 kilocalories (Kcal) per day. In real terms, the proportion of people living below the poverty line has not changed from 157,133 people in 2014/15 and 149,205 people in 2009/10. Gini coefficient measures income inequality increased from 0.23 in 2004 to 0.30 in 2014.

## 2.4 Zanzibar Education System

The development of entrepreneurship is determined by the education system of the country. Therefore, this section traces the education system before independence and afterward. Education has always been of high national importance in Zanzibar and considered the cornerstone of economic and social development of the country. Historically, education has been a part of human struggle against nature. Zanzibar education development can be categorised into two major phases, pre-revolution, and post-revolution phases.

***Pre-revolution phase:*** Three types of education systems characterized the education development during pre-revolution phase as follows:

### a) Tradition Education

This education was mostly informal in nature practiced by majorities of indigenous African societies, aimed at inculcating societal and communal value in the young generation through stories, dancing, and games without writing. Sometimes, it was formal whereby young people were given skills in canoe building, making and using fishing gears, traditional medicines, and other forms of trades. Tradition education therefore was important in skill building and inculcating cultural identity to the younger groups (Mzee, 1994).

### b) Religious education

Historically, Zanzibar is one among societies in Sub-Saharan Africa that was influenced by Islamic teaching as early as 12<sup>th</sup> Century AD. When Arabs came to Zanzibar, they introduced religious education through Quran schools, which is still an integral part of the education system. People were taught the Koran through recitation and memorization as

well as the mastering of Arabic scripts to enable them to read the Quran easily. Therefore, many people were literate and were able to write in their mother-tongue i.e., Kiswahili using Arabic scripts. It is reported that by 1931, there were more than 800 Koran schools with the enrolment of about 12,000 students (Mzee, 1994).

Likewise, Christian missionaries arrived in Zanzibar and introduced Christianity between 1840 and 1890. The University Mission to Central Africa Church (UMCAC) introduced secular education in 1870 and registered mostly children of freed slaves. In 1897, Friends Industrial Mission established a vocational school in Pemba. By the 1950s, there were about 20 Christian schools with 400 African pupils mainly the Christian from the Mainland Tanzania. The indigenous people were not attracted by these schools because of their strong Islamic faith (Mzee, 1994).

#### c) Colonial education

Colonial education is traced back to 1890 when the first non-religion school was established by the Indians for the Indian community. In 1905, the colonial government school was introduced for the members of the royal family and their close associates. In 1907 the first Director of Education was appointed and for the first time Kiswahili was used as a medium of instruction in primary schools and teaching of Koran remained an integral part of the education system. However, the indigenous people were not much attracted to integrate Quran teaching with secular education. For instance, in 1931 the enrolment in Koran schools was three times greater compared to the whole secular education system. The colonial government was therefore compelled to employ the Koran teachers in each government primary school and the first two years of primary education were dedicated to the teaching of the Koran.

The strategy helped increase the number of schools - 30 primary schools for boys and seven for girls by 1945, while the primary school enrolment doubled from 7,500 to 13,400 in 1955. Similarly, secondary school's enrolment increased from 162 to 627. By the time of independence, there were 62 primary schools with total enrolment of 19,106 pupils and four secondary schools with 734 students. The major flaw of colonial education was racial and urban bias, favouring Arabs and Asians in urban areas over indigenous Zanzibaris in rural areas. For instance, indigenous Africans were only 2.9 percent of secondary school enrolment. The racial discrimination in access to education and other social services created more discontent among indigenous people and associated to the climax of the Revolution on 12<sup>th</sup> January 1964 (Mzee, 1994).

### ***Post-revolution:***

The education system in Zanzibar has undergone different changes to accommodate socio-economic and global dynamics while obstinately taking into consideration the main issues of access, equity, and quality of education. Zanzibar adopted the philosophy of 'education for self-reliance' that entailed the incorporation of skills for work curriculum at all levels. At the dawn of independence, on 23rd September 1964 the country attempted to implement this philosophy of universal free education to widen access to education to citizens. The education Act No. 6 of 1982 and its 1992 amendment necessitated access to relevant quality education to all. In 2006, education policy was adopted, resulting to significant changes of education system from 7-3-2-2+3<sup>+</sup> to 2+6+4+2+3<sup>+</sup> structure together with introduction of English as a medium of instruction for Primary 5 in Science,

Mathematics, English, Geography, and ICT in addition to expansion of compulsory education to form IV level.

Moreover, the Zanzibar education system has embraced international conventions and declarations such as Jomtien Declaration on Education for All (EFA) 1990, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for Education 2000, Dakar Declarations 2000, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).

An analysis of the education sector reveals quantitative achievement in terms of number of schools, students, and teachers in all education levels. For instance, the number of primary schools have increased from 62 in 1964 up to 234 in 2013 of which 187 are public owned and 47 are private owned. Similarly, the number of primary school students has increased from 24,334 in 1964 to 247,353 in 2013. The number of secondary schools increased from 4 in 1964 to 207 in 2013 respectively. An increase of secondary schools has increased chances for many students to access ordinary secondary education from 1038 in 1964 to 78191 in 2014. In addition, advanced secondary school has increased from one with 27 students in 1964 to 17 with 2043 in 2013.

Moreover, the Zanzibar education system has been facing several challenges towards realizing quality education including language, relevance to the labour market, independent learning, teachers' competence, and performance as discussed below.



Zanzibar uses both Kiswahili and English as a medium of instruction in primary, secondary, and higher education respectively. Kiswahili is a mother tongue (national language) to all Zanzibaris while English is the official language of communication with the outside world. Nevertheless, the big challenge is the low competence of English language to both students and teachers (Babaci-Wilhite, 2013). There has been inconclusive debate whether to adopt Kiswahili as a medium of instruction in all levels of education in Tanzania or not.

Another major concern is on the quality of the school leavers and graduates in relation to the labour market. The low integration of entrepreneurship education and life skills education as well as low competence learning result in a mismatch between demand of the labour market and graduates' skills. This observation has been clearly explained by Zanzibar Youth Employment Action Plan of 2014-2018 (RGoZ, 2013:5):

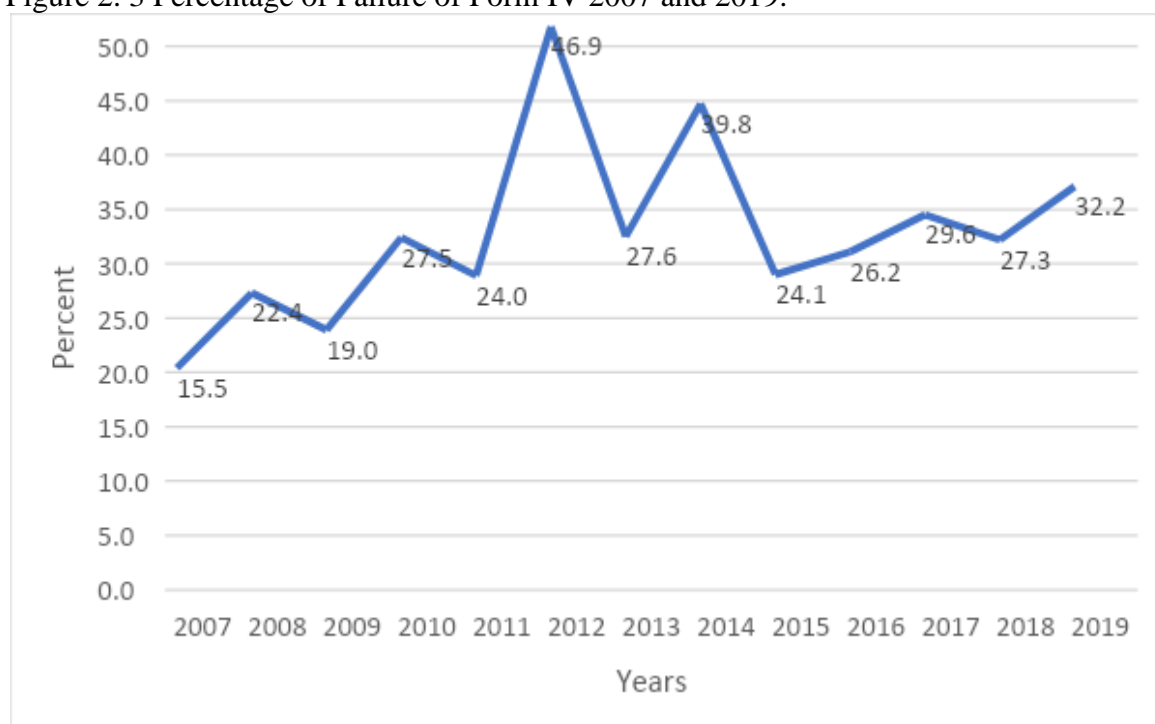
*The education and training system has not been able to meet the majority of skills demanded in the labour market and work and entrepreneurial skills needed by those failing to be absorbed in the formal labour market. Whether it is formal or informal cum self-employment, transition from school to work is not as smooth as expected. For example, some of the youth have negative attitudes towards technical and vocational training due to lack of appropriate sensitization and career counselling.*

The number of pupils in the classroom particularly in primary education surpasses the national standard of 45 per class to more than 90 pupils. Although the government resorted to introducing double shifts to reduce classroom overcrowding, the problem persists. The current government initiatives to build more schools is regarded as a solution to the problem. According to the Education for All (EFA) report of 2014, overcrowding has negative repercussions on the academic performance of pupils, because teachers cannot reach all students at a time.

Lack of independent learning is another critical aspect of the quality of education in Zanzibar. Students must engage in independent learning in order to widen their horizon of understanding and analysis of issues beyond their subjects. However, Omar (2013) attributed the low habit of independent learning among secondary school students in Zanzibar due to lack of school libraries and library education. As a result, students find it difficult to use libraries when they pursue higher education. With rapid change in information technologies, students could be more encouraged to use mobile technologies and social networks to enrich their learning.

Poor academic performance is a critical aspect featured in the education system in Zanzibar. For the past 13 years, 2007 to 2019, there has been massive failure of students in their national form four examination. Figure 2.3 shows the failure was 15.5 percent in 2007 and rose to 46.9 percent in 2012 while in 2016 decreased to 26.2 percent and 32.2 in 2019

Figure 2. 3 Percentage of Failure of Form IV 2007 and 2019.



Many factors are associated with poor performance such as shortage of mathematics and science teachers, inadequate and insufficient science teaching and learning materials at the upper primary and lower secondary levels (Form I and Form II), shortage of learning materials for children with special needs.

## 2.5 Entrepreneurship: History and Present Context in Zanzibar

Zanzibar has a long history in trade and business activities in East and Southern Africa. Historically, Zanzibar was a gateway of trade and business activities in this region prior to colonization. After the 1964 Revolution, Zanzibar adopted socialist policy which constrained the role of individuals to engage in entrepreneurial activities. Individual citizens could not engage much into entrepreneurship because the government was

controlling business activities. At the end of 1980s, liberalization policy was adopted as implementation of Structural Adjustment Policy (SAP) imposed by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). The 1990s was the beginning of a renaissance period for entrepreneurship activities for many people in Zanzibar.

According to the household budget survey (HBS) of 2014/2015, 41.8 percent of people are engaging in subsistence farming and fisheries and 16.5 percent in elementary occupations like street vendors and manufacturing. Services and sales workers consist of 15.0 percent mostly in hotels and restaurants and less than one percent (0.7 percent) are managing directors, chief executives, legislators and senior officials.

The Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS) of 2014 characterizes the business sector as informal in nature which showed a steady increase of over 8 percent from 29.7 percent in 2006 to 38.0 percent in 2014. According to the Zanzibar Human Development Report of 2009, the micro, small and medium business enterprises (MSMEs) are important for economic growth and poverty reduction in Zanzibar. Generally, they have potential for providing livelihood for the majority of people in Zanzibar. The statistics show that 70 percent of the enterprises are in Unguja and the remaining 30 percent in Pemba (RGoZ, 2009).

The informal sector, therefore, occupies petty business in services attracting mainly youth in urban areas, and becomes a form of business incubator for ordinary people, particularly the youth who failed to get formal employment after completing their schooling.

Although the sector is an entry door for inspiring entrepreneurs, there is much to be done to formalize the sector to contribute much to the national economy and enhance the private sector development (RGoZ, 2013). The government has taken institutional and policy measures to support the private sector. These include the establishment of the Zanzibar Business Council, promotion of public-private partnership, formulation of the Business Environment Strengthening for Tanzania (BEST) program aimed at creating a conducive environment for the development of the private sector. However, the private sector continues to face a myriad of challenges including multiple taxes, poor infrastructure, corruption, low access and high costs of finance, cumbersome access to land and weak business development services.

## 2.6 Strategic Actions for promoting youth employment/entrepreneurship in Zanzibar

Zanzibar Government in collaboration with different stakeholders has taken policy and programme actions for promoting youth employment as follows.

### a) Policy Actions for Youth Employment

In piecemeal, youth employment is addressed directly or indirectly in a plethora of policies for the past two decades, include;

Zanzibar Development Vision 2020 provides an overall framework for the promotion of youth in job creation by emphasizing the promotion of innovation and entrepreneurship in the country. The vision underscores the need for eradicating absolute poverty in the society by empowering people to manage their lives successfully and stay in the course of development. In order to implement the Vision 2020, the government adopted a series of poverty strategies; the Zanzibar Poverty Reduction Plan (ZPRP) (2002- 2005), Zanzibar

Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (ZSGRP) in 2005-2010, ZSGRP II (2010-2015), ZSGRP II (2015-2020). ZSGRP is translated into sectoral plans for successful implementation.

Zanzibar employment policy of 2009 was tailored to adequately stimulate employment growth in the economy as a measure of reducing unemployment and underemployment rates among women and men. The policy, therefore, advocates for the attainment of productive and decent employment among youth by reviewing training curriculum to reflect the labour market demands and widening access to labour market information.

Zanzibar Youth Development Policy (2005) aimed at promoting development of youths, taking into consideration people with special needs. The policy was then revised in 2010 to accommodate new development affecting youth. The policy proclaims a need for the provision of life skills and vocational training, financial resources and experience for enhancing youth's employability. The Zanzibar education system of 2006 emphasizes the need for the provision of training in entrepreneurship to stimulate job creation and self-employment and providing employment opportunities for people with special needs.

Likewise, Youth Employment Action Plans were created to create a more favourable environment for self-employment and employment among youths in Zanzibar. The first generation of Youth Employment Action Plan was implemented in 2007 to 2012 aimed at promoting youth employment. However, the plan failed to adequately stimulate

employment creation among young people because the plan got less support from different stakeholders during the implementation. The second generation of youth employment action plan covering the period of 2014 to 2018 was also adopted to foster youth employment and employability.

b) Programme actions for promoting youth entrepreneurship.

Programme actions adopted for the promotion of youth employment and employability include:

*i) Entrepreneurship education and training*

There are several institutions which provide entrepreneurship education and training to youth aimed at raising entrepreneurial awareness and skills. For instance, the Ministry of Industry, Trade and Marketing focuses on product development and entrepreneurship skills, the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources focuses on training economic groups and agricultural production, and the Ministry of Empowerment, Social Welfare, Youth, Women and Children (MESWYWC) focuses on entrepreneurship training. MESWYWC collaborated with International Labour Organization (ILO) to manage *Kazi Nje Nje* (KNN), Business Development service programme for training youth entrepreneurship on generating Your Business Ideas (GYBI) and Start Your Business (SYB).

The Zanzibar National Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (ZNCCIA) has also been conducting entrepreneurship and business training to its members. For instance, the Business Development Gateway (BDG) programme started 2009 to 2012 trained its

members on entrepreneurship and business skills and extended grants to winners of business plan competition.

The incorporation of entrepreneurship education in Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs) is an important step for orienting youth with entrepreneurship knowledge and skills. Entrepreneurship is still taught as a fundamental course in HLIs at diploma and degree level. However, the State University of Zanzibar has introduced bachelor's degrees in Entrepreneurship and Innovation. Entrepreneurship is yet mainstream in primary and secondary education in Zanzibar.

*ii) Establishment of business incubation centres*

Although the concept of business incubation is arguably advocated for the promotion of entrepreneurship and innovation in the country, it is a very new concept in Zanzibar entrepreneurial ecosystem. Zanzibar Technology and Business Incubator (ZTBI) is the first business incubator established in 2015 under MESWYWC aimed at addressing challenges of youth unemployment. The overall objective of ZTBI is therefore to foster and nurture innovation and entrepreneurship among start-up micro enterprises in Information Communication Technology, tourism, and agribusiness, targeting youth, youth groups and women. The second incubator is Centre for Entrepreneurship and Innovation which is commonly known as CUBE Zanzibar, a private oriented start-up and business enabler dedicated in ideation, incubation and acceleration programme to start-ups and small business.



### *iii) Microcredit facilities*

One of the big challenges facing youth is access to finance for their start-ups and business development. Among the initiatives taken to address this challenge is providing access to microfinance for youth through the Amani Karume (AK)/ Jakaya Kikwete (JK) funds and Economic Empowerment Fund and Youth Trust Fund. There are also NGOs offering microfinance services to youth such as Women Entrepreneurship Development Trust Fund (WEDTF), Chagamoto, Pride, and Milele Foundation. Several SACCOs have been established in Zanzibar to provide micro- finance services to their members. In general, microcredit facilities face challenges such as limited outreach to rural areas, and low repayment rates. There are also issues to address mindset, low level of creativity and innovation, inferior linkage and networking.

### *iv) Trade Exhibition*

Since 2014, Zanzibar Government initiated trade exhibitions as the culmination of the Revolutionary Anniversary which is commonly known as “Mapinduzi Trade Exhibition”. The exhibition gives entrepreneurs the opportunity to show their products and connect with consumers and customers easily, networking with other partners, raising brand awareness and introducing new products. It is important for youth entrepreneurs to utilize trade exhibitions as a marketing strategy for their products and services. It is not enough to decorate the booth but also train their assistants who manning that booth because they are the one who would make the sale. The turn up has been impressive for entrepreneurs which started with less than 200 participants, but in particular, the number increased to 290 and 389 in 2019 and 2020 respectively. The Ministry of Trade and Industry, a trade exhibition organizer, in collaboration with other stakeholders introduced innovation day

during exhibition time, for entrepreneurs/innovators to showcase their innovation either machine Innovation product innovation or ICT related innovation.

## 2.7 Prospects of Youth Entrepreneurship

Youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar is gaining momentum because of increasing challenges of securing employment in the formal establishments. Politicians, researchers, and the public now see the reality of the need to motivate youth to engage in entrepreneurship.

Youth are untapped frontiers of enterprising energy who can bring transformation in Zanzibar economy. According to Palanivelu & Manikandan (2016:1), “entrepreneurship involves a life attitude including readiness and courage to act in the social, cultural and economic context. Youth entrepreneurship education prepares young people to be responsible, enterprising individuals to contribute to economic development and sustainable communities”.

Youth entrepreneurship has brought new hope for increasing innovation initiatives in the country. Young people attempt to come up with new ideas to solve challenges facing society In Zanzibar, there are many individual youth and start-ups to process seaweed products such as soaps, shampoo, perfume, juice and alike. Such initiatives are encouraging for promoting youth entrepreneurship, which need more support and scaling up measures. For instance, Refasha is a healthy and beauty start-up started in 2018 by Shuwena Salim, a young woman entrepreneur, who uses seaweed and coconut to process

soaps, shampoo, perfume. Refasha leverages organic products which are healthier, and targets more youth, especially women who want to look so beautiful and natural with good skin. Other youth entrepreneurs have established enterprises in information communication technology and decoration.

During interviews with officials from the Ministry of Trade and Industry, they expressed positively that youth entrepreneurship has brought new awareness to some young people to join in. One official commented “youth join into entrepreneurship which brings more hope for the transformation of entrepreneurship in the country since most of them are more knowledgeable with business or sometimes they are easily adapting with technology. Performance is quite impressive as now we see products produced by young entrepreneurs”

.

Youth are prepared to tap opportunities in the tourism industry in the country. Zanzibar depends much on the tourism industry for socio economic development. Communities around tourism areas depend on their income and livelihood from tourism. Youth have started their enterprises to grasp opportunities in tourism in the country. Youth engage in entrepreneurial activities such as tour guiding, handcraft, and beauty. Zanzibar Tour Guide Association (ZATOGA) is a youth- tourism based association responsible for coordinating and managing youth who engage in tourism activities. ZATOGA helps its members to conduct tour guides professionally by having good knowledge of the Zanzibar history, culture and traditions and working away from fake guides. KIRUME Tour and Safari, and ZANVACAY are good examples of youth tourism-based enterprises in Zanzibar. They are

tour based start-ups offering a wide range of daily excursions in Zanzibar and Tanzania Mainland.

Youth entrepreneurship has fostered the formation of youth groups aimed at tapping opportunities at their disposal. Through Youth Council, Universities, NGOs, and Vocational Training Centres, youth are mobilized to form groups that engage in entrepreneurial activities, such as processing, agribusiness, welding, and information communication technology. The groups help young women and men develop new skills and experiences that can be applied to many other challenges in life.

Youth entrepreneurship stimulates job creation among youth which is very important for economic growth and development of the country. Young people get employed in youth led enterprises, which help address the youth unemployment crisis, the socio-psychological problems and delinquency that arise from joblessness. Youth entrepreneurship is regarded as an alternative option of employment. Therefore, youth entrepreneurship helps bring back the alienated and marginalized youth into the economic mainstream of the country.

Youth entrepreneurship is vital in building entrepreneurial culture and ecosystem in Zanzibar. With the increase of youth in entrepreneurship, children, and the community in general, will pay attention to entrepreneurship. Children need to be socialized in entrepreneurial thinking and be ready to engage in entrepreneurship or be entrepreneurial in their undertaking.

## 2.8 Challenges facing youth entrepreneurs in Zanzibar, Tanzania

Youth entrepreneurs in Zanzibar are facing internal and external challenges which constraint their start-ups and ventures. It was revealed that youth start entrepreneurial ventures but fail to develop and sustain them. Table 4.4 shows both internal and external challenges facing youth entrepreneurs.

Table 2. 4 Internal and External Challenges

| Internal Challenges   | External Challenges  |
|---|--|
| • Shortage of start-up and expansion capital  | • Low government support   |
| • Low marketing and branding skills   | • Low family support   |
| • Negative attitude towards entrepreneurship  | • Difficulty for accessing to business premises                                  |
| • Poor management practices   | • Lack of an entrepreneurship policy   |
| • Low entrepreneurial and business skills   | • Excessive taxation   |
| • Low innovation and creative skills  | • Low business development support services                                      |
| • Limited knowledge of regulatory issues, in particular of copyright, patent or trademark regulations | • Higher cost of packaging services  |
| • Lack of dedication and hard working   | • Multiple regulations from different government authorities                     |
|   | • Over-dependence on imported raw materials and spare parts                      |
|   | • Low capacity of local government officers to handle entrepreneurship programme |

Source: Researcher (2020)

## 2.9 Key stakeholders and their roles for youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar

There are many stakeholders responsible for the promotion of youth entrepreneurship, namely the government and its agencies, international organizations, NGOs, private sector development, and education institutions. Table 2.5 shows stakeholders and their role in promoting youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.

Table 2. 5 Stakeholders and their Roles

| # | Stakeholders   | Roles  |
|---|--|--|
| 1 | Central government   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Developing entrepreneurship policy</li> <li>● Enhancing entrepreneurship education and skills development</li> <li>● Supporting public-private partnerships aimed at building the financial sector's capacity to serve start-up</li> </ul>  |
| 2 | Government agencies and authorities                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Mainstreaming entrepreneurship in education system</li> <li>● Enhancing ICT-based procedures for business registration and reporting</li> <li>● Support youth entrepreneurship competitions and awards</li> <li>● Balancing regulation and standards with sustainable development objectives</li> <li>● Supporting capacity building programme</li> </ul> |
| 3 | International Organizations/NGOs                             | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Capacity building programmes</li> <li>● Supporting seed funding to start-ups</li> <li>● Promoting youth-oriented financial literacy training</li> </ul>   |
| 4 | Private Sector i.e. Chamber of Commerce                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Strengthening business development services</li> <li>● Credit linkages</li> <li>● Facilitating the development of youth-friendly financial products, including mobile banking technologies</li> <li>● Promoting awareness and networking</li> </ul>   |
| 5 | Higher Learning Institutions and Vocational Training Centres | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Establishing entrepreneurship programmes and course</li> <li>● Establishing technology business incubators</li> <li>● Promote vocational training and apprenticeship programmes</li> <li>● Encourage entrepreneurship training for teachers</li> </ul>  |

Source: Researcher (2020)

## 2.10 Empirical studies on Youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar

There are very limited studies focusing on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. The review of literature reveals that empirical studies based on performance of SMEs (Makame, 2014), role of micro financial institution on entrepreneurship and business development (Khamis, 2015; Kirobo, 2015), potential of business incubator (Hamza, 2019; Rajeev & Mohamed, 2017). None of these studies is exclusively based on youth entrepreneurship. However, the empirical studies are descriptive in nature and use very small sample sizes.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter reviews the literature to develop a framework for this study by positioning the problem in the context of entrepreneurship and linking it with the theoretical lens of entrepreneurial cognition theory and human capital theories. The connection and synergy of theories not only help understand youth entrepreneurship and its associated antecedents but also create gaps for the study.

The chapter starts with the background of entrepreneurship in terms of its history and perspectives, as well as description on entrepreneurship education. This is important at setting up the basis of the study. Second part of the chapter reviews youth entrepreneurship and its constructs, review of individual factors influencing youth entrepreneurship and link with relevant theories; entrepreneurial cognition theory, social network theory and human capital theory. Chapter also presents hypothesis formation, which also provide a basis for literature gap and theoretical framework of the study

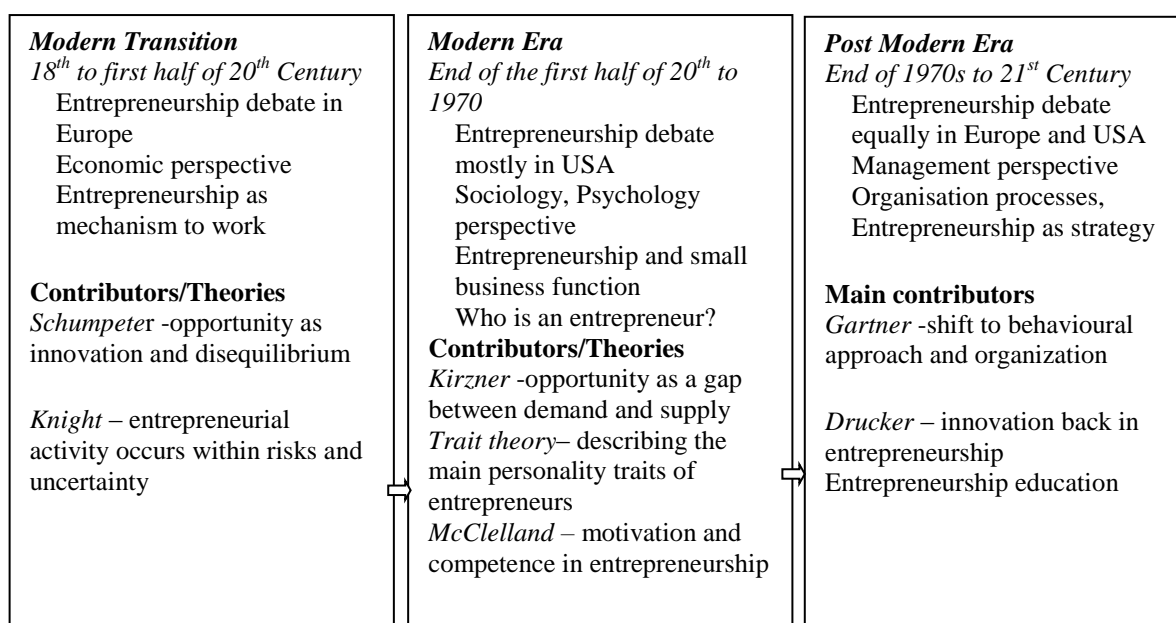
#### **3.1 Entrepreneurship**

##### **3.1.1 Historical context of entrepreneurship**

Entrepreneurship as an intellectual field can be traced back to the eighteenth century within the mainstream disciplines of economics, psychology, and sociology, although its history could be traced with history of humankind (Landström, 2014). Entrepreneurship is a very

fast-growing field with scientific and social recognition due to embracing the research-based model driven by theory as the major determinant for achieving legitimacy despite its criticism of being a science of artificiality. The popularity of entrepreneurship has been boosted by neoliberal paradigm encouraging individuals to take responsibilities of their own lives with minimal support from government (Laalo & Heinonen, 2016). Historical development of entrepreneurship can be categorized into three major phases, Figure 3.1.

Figure 3. 1 Historical development of entrepreneurship



Source: (Fernandez Costa, 2015)



### ***Phase One: Modern Transition***

This period started from the 18<sup>th</sup> Century to the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Fayolle, Kyrö, Ulijn and Kyrö (2005) associated entrepreneurship with industrialization when the feudal system ended, influenced by Western Europe culture based on industrial and liberal orientations. Entrepreneurship was perceived from an economic perspective as a fundamental means of creating new welfare and work by free individuals and thereby breaking down the old systems into institutions, focusing on macro- economic processes and extraordinary individuals in the process. Earlier economists such as Richard Cantillon (1680-1734), Jean Baptiste Say (1803), Joseph Schumpeter (1934) and Knight (1942) had a big contribution to the development of entrepreneurship as a research field. For instance, Schumpeter (1934) described an entrepreneur as an innovator who uses resources in new and innovative ways, causing a disequilibrium in the market. Knight (1942) introduced the notion of uncertainty and risk to describe the context of entrepreneurial action.

### ***Phase Two: Modern Era***

Entrepreneurship began changing into a new perspective with the increasing function and impact of small business in providing more jobs than that of large companies after the decline in economy in the second half of 20<sup>th</sup> century. The influence of social science perspectives like Psychology and Sociology in the 1940s to 1970 was prominent in entrepreneurship development. The debate of entrepreneurship took more strongholds in the United States than Western Europe, leading to scientific journals related to entrepreneurship and thereby influenced other parts of the world. Similarly, the unit of analysis shifted from large companies to small business and the individual/personal traits.

The work of McClelland (1961) had significant influence on the role of motivation aspects in entrepreneurship (Fernandes Costa, 2015).

### ***Phase Three: Post Modern Era***

The postmodern era, starting in the 1970s, witnessed the re-emergence of a European view concurrently with the strong influence of the American view. Apart from the influence of psychology, sociology and economics, a managerial and marketing perspective began its courses. Entrepreneurship was conceptualized as a process with different stages occurring in a dynamic environment. Therefore, entrepreneurship was a stimulus to organization efficiency and growth. Scholars such as Kirzner and Peter Drucker contributed to the concept of opportunity and innovation respectively. Kirzner (1973-1979) differed with Schumpeter by believing that entrepreneurs are able to identify opportunities in relation to the gap between supply and demand. Meanwhile, Peter Drucker regarded entrepreneurship as a systemic innovation and competence based, which can be learned. These notions were essential to the evolution of the field, as we know it today.

Beginning in the 1980s, entrepreneurship started to be a field of research whereby several articles were published in top-tier management journals such as Administrative Science Quarterly, Management Science, Academy of Management Review, Academy of Management Journal, Strategic Management Journal and Journal of Management (Fayolle, 2014). Issues that flare debate among scholars emerging such as discovery versus the creation of entrepreneurship opportunities; cognition, intuition, emotion, failure, learning

and expertise. Similarly, the number of peer-reviewed journals have exponentially increased reaching over 40 journals by 2014 (Honing, and Martin, 2014).

Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) is also important research work for assessing national entrepreneurship activity, started with 10 developed countries in 1999 following the collaborative work of London Business School and Babson College. Primarily, GEM aimed at assessing the level of the early stage of entrepreneurial activity between countries; unearthing factors determining the levels of entrepreneurial activity and identifying policies enhancing the level of entrepreneurial activity (Xavier, Yusof, Nor, & Ayob, 2012).

### 3.1.2 Perspectives of entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is a multidisciplinary field whose perspectives emanate from economics, sociology and psychology and thereby influencing other fields. Gartner (2014) used the typology of *X of entrepreneurship* and *entrepreneurial X* describing the evolution of entrepreneurship and its influence in other disciplines. The *X* represents any discipline that is not entrepreneurship. *X of entrepreneurship* means entrepreneurship perspectives derived from other fields, example psychology of entrepreneurship and economics of entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurial X* represents methods and theories of entrepreneurship that are applicable in other fields. For example, entrepreneurial arts, entrepreneurial management, entrepreneurial psychology, and entrepreneurial economics. For example, entrepreneurial arts indicate how artistic practices are changed through an entrepreneurial lens.

The many perspectives of entrepreneurship are functional, personality, psychological and sociological perspectives, which are either supply-based or demand-based. The supply side perspectives based on the availability of appropriate individuals to occupy entrepreneurial roles. The perspectives examine entrepreneurship through individual characteristics of entrepreneurs, identifying potential mechanisms for agency and change. The demand side perspectives relate to the number and nature of entrepreneurial roles that need to be occupied. They also investigate the context of organization founding, activities of professions, the policy of nation-states and the development of markets (Patricia, 1999). The explanation of each of these perspectives are as follows:

a) Functional perspective

This perspective emanates from the field of economics, which primarily focuses on the economic function of entrepreneurs in the interaction with the environment. Economic perspective is much concerned on firms and the process underlying employment creation and growth (Eurofound, 2015). It is sometimes called outcome-based approach as it shows the contribution of the entrepreneurs in the venture creation (Mitchell et al 2002). For many years, entrepreneurship draws economic thinking to describe the way individuals and firms take entrepreneurial actions following the twin forces of demands and supply to discover an entrepreneurial opportunity and analysing its worthiness. Table 3.1 shows examples of economic scholars and their definitions about entrepreneurs.

**Table 3. 1 Economic scholars on Entrepreneurs' Definitions**

| Scholar                   | Definitions   |
|---------------------------|---|
| Richard Cantillon (1755)  | A person who undertakes a commercial project by someone with money to invest                                    |
| Adam Smith (1776)         | A person who acts as agent in transforming demand into supply   |
| Jean Baptiste Say (1803)  | A person who shifts resources from an area of low productivity to high productivity.                            |
| John Stuart Mill (1848)   | A prime mover in the private enterprise, i.e the fourth factor of production after land, labor and capital      |
| Carl Menger (1871)        | Acts as an economic agent who transforms resources into products and services by transforming and adding value. |
| Joseph Schumpeter (1934 ) | Uses resources in new and innovative ways, causing a disequilibrium in the market                               |
| Peter Drucker, (1985]     | A person who searches for change, responds to it, and exploits it as an opportunity                             |

#### b) Personality perspective

Personality trait approach is the classical and early approaches of studying entrepreneurship which regards entrepreneurs with a unique set of inherent, stable and enduring personality characteristics for entrepreneurial activity. According to this perspective, those traits are permanent and remain consistent across time and context (Cope, 2005). Following the work of McClelland on achievement motivation to assess entrepreneurial potential in the 1960s, several studies on trait approach emerged to assess entrepreneurial potential (Baum et al., 2007). The trait approach started from the 1960s to 1990s but was criticized because of its weak effect on entrepreneurial success (Brockhaus & Horowitz, 1986). The perspective was criticized as being a static approach to conceptualize and understand entrepreneurs and it is antithesis of the dynamic learning perspective of entrepreneurship. It also does not allow the experiential learning role to change behaviour in entrepreneurship (Cope, 2005).

Scholars, therefore, started to study entrepreneurship beyond personality traits and concentrated in entrepreneurial personal characteristics such as competencies, cognition, motivation, and behaviour (Baum & Locke, 2004).

Nevertheless, Rauch and Frese (2007) argued that the personality approach got its revival in industrial/organizational psychology, and it is still relevant in entrepreneurship because personality traits may have predictive power if interact with situational parameters by differentiate strong situations (personality has little impact) and weak situations (personality has stronger impact). The predictive power of personality becomes clearer by differentiating proximal (Behaviour) from distal (traits) variables. Proximal variables (example, goal orientation and self-efficacy) are more powerful to predict behaviour than distal individual traits (example, conscientiousness). The use of a unitary approach of integrating personality and personality dynamics was suggested. The personality dynamics predicts behaviour include variables such as encoding, expectancies and beliefs, affects, goals and values, competencies, and self-regulatory plans. Rauch and Frese (2007) proposed change of testing of relationship of personality variables from linear relationships to non-linear relationships, use of meta-analysis to determine relationship between personality and performance and the differentiation between task and contextual performance.

#### c) Process perspective

The perspective indicates that entrepreneurship should be viewed as a continuous, evolving process and not a single event or a series of unrelated events. Unlike trait approach, this perspective regards entrepreneurship as a continuous learning process (Politis, 2008),

which is progressively built up over time during the professional lives of enterprising persons (Minniti & Bygrave, 2001; Politis, 2005). The scholars such as Shane (2003); Jack and Anderson (2002); Aldrich, 1999; Harvey and Evans, (1995) contributed to this perspective, and agreed on three fundamental issues. First, they agreed on the major phases of the entrepreneurial process including the *pre-launch phase* which involves identification and initial evaluation of opportunities as well as gathering of necessary resources. The *launch phase* includes choosing legal form of new venture, protecting new products or services from competitors, and developing initial marketing plans and strategy; the *post launch phase* entails the ideas and plan to running a functional business. Second, they agreed on major categories of variables in each phase namely individual-level factors such as experience, skills, motives, cognition, and characteristics; group or interpersonal factors such as relationship and social networking, exposure to role models of entrepreneurship; and societal –level factors relating to the socio-economic and political environment. Third, they agreed that the relative importance of variables vary significantly across these phases (Baron, 2007).

#### d) Sociological Perspective

From the sociological perspective, entrepreneurship is viewed as the creation of a new organization, from individuals or firm level analysis with much emphasis on social factors that influence entrepreneurs' decisions. The perspective examines how the attributes of culture, social class, and ethnic groups are responsible for producing entrepreneurial behaviour. In other words, the perspective focuses on group characteristics and entrepreneurship activity (Patricia, 1999). For instance, studying how children of entrepreneurs could be induced to be entrepreneurs, Rengiah (2016) found that individuals

with entrepreneurial parents easily become entrepreneurs because not only they could get relevant information, markets, financial support and other resources for starting business but since young, parents inspire, encourage and support them in entrepreneurial activities. Eventually, these children get confidence and learn from their parents about entrepreneurship.

Therefore, sociological perspective helps understand the influence of social context on the individual's decision on entrepreneurship (Reynolds, 1991; Patricia, 1999). Welter (2011) noted that a context is the one which provides persons with opportunities and delineates boundaries for actions.

#### e) Psychological Perspective

Entrepreneurship is construed as a mental process of an individual from cognitive/psychological traits such as innovation and creativity or the mental process, which generates the intuition of start-ups. The study of the human mind is associated with the work of Plato and Aristotle who dealt with perceptions and motivations, then influenced the establishment of Wilhelm Wundt's laboratory in 1879 and the publication of William James's *Principle of Psychology* in 1890. The historical trajectory of psychology in entrepreneurship can be traced in 1965 to the 1970s. However in the 1980s the approach was criticized which gave more influence to the economic perspective of the utility of maximizing career choice to the study of entrepreneurship (Douglas & Shepherd, 2002). During the 1990s, the field of entrepreneurship research quitted to the study of the entrepreneur (Carsrud & Brannback, 2009) because of the influence of social network theory following the work by Bill Gartner (1988) who criticized much on personality trait



through his article 'Finding the Entrepreneur in Entrepreneurship'. Nevertheless, as the social network theory was psychology –oriented, eventually influenced the introduction of social psychological elements in entrepreneurship. Shaver (2014) reported that the first psychology of entrepreneurship course was taught in 1993 at the College of William and Mary and then grew exponentially; with writing of books such as the *Psychology of Entrepreneurship*, edited by (Baum et al., 2007) and *Understanding the Entrepreneurial Mind*, edited by (Carsrud & Brannback, 2009).

It was not until in the 2000s that psychological based research renewed interests in entrepreneurs' personal characteristics as predictors of entrepreneurship success (Baum et al., 2007). The incorporation of psychology in entrepreneurship studies made a clear understanding of entrepreneurs' characteristics and gave new hope of entrepreneurship psychology as a field and legitimizing entrepreneurship too (Baum et al., 2007).

Envick (2014) argued that, in studying cognitive state approach to entrepreneurship, there is a need to differentiate between psychological state and psychological trait. The former indicates mental, or emotional condition which can be modified while the latter distinguishes characteristics which are relatively fixed and one's unique personality. Using the Entrepreneurial Intelligence Model, psychological state can be learned to explain entrepreneurs' intention and behaviour. However, there is confusion in differentiating psychological state and psychological traits. For instance, initially risk taking was regarded as a psychological trait and then treated as psychological state. In general, the cognitive

process, motives, emotion and action of the individual entrepreneur form the foundation for a psychological approach to entrepreneurship (Shaver, 2014).

### 3.1.3 Entrepreneurial Intention Models and Studies

Literature reveals that intention has been a predominant paradigm, which has attracted a number of intention-based models and studies in entrepreneurship. This is because the intention models provide a better alternative for predicting entrepreneurship activity (Krueger and Carsrud, 1993; Krueger, 2008). Intentions are described as immediate antecedents of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Entrepreneurial intention is “a conscious awareness and conviction by individuals that they intend to set up a new business venture and plan to do so in the future” (Krueger, 2013:77). This suggests that entrepreneurial intentions bring about a person's attention towards attaining specific goals, commitment, and communication (Hindle, Klyver, & Jennings, 2009).

Entrepreneurial intention models are grounded in Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (TPB), which was influenced by Bird (1988a) and further developed by Boyd and Vozikis (1994a) explaining entrepreneurial intention. Historically, entrepreneurial intention reflects from Bandura's (1977) social learning theory and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) by Fishbein and Ajzen (1967). TRA explains the relationship between individual attitudes and behaviour within human actions. That is, the theory claims that attitudes towards behaviour and subjective norms are antecedents of intentions (Krueger & Kickul, 2008).

The common entrepreneurial intention models are Shapero's entrepreneurial event model (SEEM) by Shapero and Sokol (1982) and model of implementing entrepreneurial ideas (MIEI) by Bird (1988a). Other models are maximization of the expected utility model by Douglas and Shepherd (2000), an economic-psychological model of determinants of entrepreneurial intentions (Davidsson, 1995), an intention model of opportunity perception (Krueger, 1998) entrepreneurial attitude orientation (Robinson, Stimpson, Huefner, & Hunt, 1991) and an integrated model of entrepreneurial intent by Schlaegel & Koenig, (2014a).

The perception of desirability, the propensity to act and the perception of feasibility are main predictors of entrepreneurial intention (Izquierdo & Buelens, 2011). TPB has been confirmed as the theory for predicting entrepreneurial intention, because it has taken into account both personal and social factors (Fayolle, Liñán, & Moriano, 2014a; Engle et al., 2010; Kautonen et al., 2013). However, the theory is not applicable beyond entrepreneurial intention, to entrepreneurs (e.g. accidental entrepreneurs) who have not followed conventional path (Banerjee & Jain, 2018). The move into intention-based research facilitates a further integration of entrepreneurship into other fields such cognitive psychology (Fayolle & Liñán, 2013).

Most entrepreneurial intention-based research has been directed to students in universities and secondary schools (Shook, Priem, & McGee, 2003) focusing mainly on entrepreneurship education, though with inconclusive findings (Bignotti, 2016). The studies which positively related entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intention

include Álvarez (2008), Oluseye et al., (2017), Isah and Garba (2015), Manuere, Danha, & Majoni (2013), Norbert, Tina, Birgit, and Christine, (2014) and entrepreneurial characteristics (Setiawan,2014). However, Honig and Martin (2014) observed that some studies have weak methodology, probably with biased results in favour of positive outcomes. Whereas some studies portray the inverse relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention (Bignotti, 2016; Karimi, Biemans, Lans, Chizari, & Mulder, 2016; Mwasalwiba et al, 2012).

Other Scholars argue that research should also go beyond intention, for instance (Krueger, 2009) regards entrepreneurial intentions as dead and claim long lived entrepreneurial intention, recommending for a deep rethinking of intention-based research. Intentions need to be implemented into action, depending on commitment to the intended behaviour (Alain Fayolle & Liñán, 2013).

There are factors attenuating or reinforcing students' entrepreneurial intention into behaviour. Shirokova, Osiyevskyy, and Bogatyreva (2016) found reinforcing factors such as the entrepreneur's family background, age, gender (male stronger link) and university entrepreneurial environment. However, factors attenuating students' entrepreneurial intention into behaviour include general country uncertainty avoidance (Shirokova et al., 2016), procrastination, self-handicapping, temptation, and distraction (Gollwitzer, 2014), and change of person's preferences (Van Gelderen, Kautonen, & Fink, 2015).

Some research areas suggested beyond intention include intention-action link (Fayolle & Liñán, 2013), factors behind intention i.e. personal values and motivation in

entrepreneurship (Fayolle, Liñán, & Moriano, 2014a), entrepreneurial persistence (Holland & Shepherd, 2013). Research related to mindset emerged to understand entrepreneurial decision-making and action (Fayolle & Liñán, 2013).

### 3.2 Entrepreneurship Education

#### 3.2.2 Evolution of entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education is an evolving phenomenon started at the mid –twenty centuries in the United States when the first entrepreneurship course taught by Professor, Myles Mace at Harvard Business School in February 1947 with 188 MBA students (Nabi, Liñán, Krueger, Fayolle, & Walmsley, 2016; Honing & Martin, 2014; Lorz, Mueller, & Volery, 2013; Greene & Rice, 2007). The second course was taught by Peter Drucker at New York University in 1953 (Kirby, 2004) and influenced other parts of the world in three domains namely, courses, supplementary infrastructure, and publications (Katz, 2003) championed by business schools and followed by Engineering Educators' Association (Greene & Rice, 2007; Jack & Anderson, 1999; Fayolle, 2014; Greene & Rice, 2007). Entrepreneurship education mostly focused on equipping students to exploit business opportunities and create new ventures (Miesing, 2017; Duval-Couetil, 2013; Kirby, 2007; Kuratko, 2005).

The effective incorporation of entrepreneurship into education curriculum started at the end of 1980s (Greene & Rice, 2007) and got momentum in the 21st century (Lackéus, 2015; Hindle, 2007). In 1987 Academy of Management which became the Entrepreneurship Division (ED) played a significant role for the promotion of entrepreneurship as an academic field (Greene & Rice, 2007; Hindle, 2007). In 1998 the

National Consortium of Entrepreneurship Centre (NCEC) was formed to strengthen collaboration among the established entrepreneurship centres and new emerging centres (Kuratko, 2005). In 2004, *Academy of Management Learning and Education* produced a special issue of entrepreneurship education forging conceptual, theoretical, and empirical links of entrepreneurship education as well as increasing number of students specializing in entrepreneurship (Lorz et al., 2013; Schaper & Casimir, 2007; Lundstrom & Halvarsson, 2006; Greene & Rice, 2007; Lorz et al., 2013; Katz, 2007; Yu, 2018).

Countries all over the world endeavour in supporting entrepreneurship education in higher learning institutions (Byrne et al, 2014), although efforts differ greatly depending on national priorities, demographic factors, and social values (Dana, 2010) (Lackéus, 2015; Jack and Anderson, 1999; Johnson et al., 2006). For instance, Germany pioneered to find the right curriculum of entrepreneurship education (Hindle, 2007) and spent Euro 46 million of government funds in support of the development of entrepreneurship education in its Higher Learning Institutions (Rambe et.al, 2017).

A globally increasing recognition of entrepreneurship education is much stimulated by potential entrepreneurial outcomes, recognizing or creating opportunities (Katz, 2007), positive change in the society (Paric, 2012) and an increase of entrepreneurial studies (Bhat & Singh, 2018; Baidi & Suyatno, 2018 ), focusing on intentions (Kahando & Mungai, 2018; Ismail, Jaffar, & Hooi, 2013; Titilayo, 2015; Walter & Dohse, 2012; Fulgence (2015b), entrepreneurial practice among graduates (Ekpe, Che Razak, Ismail, & Abdullah, 2015), entrepreneurial opportunity recognition (Barucic & Umihanic, 2016) and business creation (Sołek-Borowska & Laskowska-Chudy, 2017). This gives strong

evidence that entrepreneurship education can be taught in the presence of the right kind of university environment (Kirby, 2007) and refutes the belief that entrepreneurs are born (Todorovic, 2007) because of the positive relationship between education level and entrepreneurial activity (Libombo & Dinis, 2015).

### 3.2.3 Purpose, Types and Dimensions of Entrepreneurial Education

It is expected that investing in entrepreneurship education in Higher Learning Institutions is worthwhile in preparing the youth mindset to be ready for self-employment and entrepreneurship (Othman & Othman, 2017; Al Bakri & Mehrez, 2015).

In fact, the primary purpose of entrepreneurship education is to create entrepreneurial capacities, culture and mindset that help youth exploit opportunities and increase interests to entrepreneurship as a career option (Oluseye, Adebayo, & Olulanu, 2017; Akpan, 2013; Katz, 2007; Kirby, 2007; Lundstrom & Halvarsson, 2006), orients youth to be more competent, self-confident, innovative and professional business owners (Welsh et al., 2016; Dogan, 2015; Katz, 2007; Brand, Wakkee, & Veen, 2007; Nastase, 2012) and gives new survival skills- effective communication, curiosity and critical-thinking (Zhao, 2012). This is possible through exposing them in real life learning experience, taking risks, managing circumstances and learning from the results (Lorz et al., 2013; Kickul & Fayolle, 2007).

Scholars conceptualized entrepreneurship education into three categories according to aims and objectives (Byrne, 2014; Laurikainen et al., 2018). 1) *Education about enterprise*,

creates awareness of entrepreneurship as a career choice. 2) *Education for enterprise*, helps in the propagation of transferable expertise that is necessary for an individual to establish and manage a business entity. *Education in Enterprise* helps entrepreneurs augment their strength and support in specific fields. It is an experiential approach where students go through an actual entrepreneurial learning process (Rambe et al, 2017; Lackeus, 2015; Rezaeid-Zadeh, 2014). In addition, entrepreneurship education can be conducted in the form of academic entrepreneurship programmes, entrepreneurship training, peer coaching and individual counselling (Katz, 2007).

Entrepreneurship education is differentiated from management training and business education. The management training concerns traits, skills, attitude or intention of the participants but also with the necessary knowledge of business administration and not in the creation process of the venture (Liñán, 2007). Business education provides technical knowledge for business administration. However, entrepreneurship education specifically concerns attitude, intention and the firm creation process. It enhances awareness of entrepreneurship, which concerns attitude, intentions and the firm creation process. It gives information about business creation and influences students to reflect on entrepreneurship as a career (Bae et al., 2014).

Alain Fayolle and Gailly (2008) classified good entrepreneurship education programs should consider the following five questions: Why (objectives and targets), Who (public), for What results (assessments, examinations), What (content, theories) and How (method, pedagogies). The incorporation of these questions is fundamental to the effectiveness of



entrepreneurship education with much consideration of consistency and clarity of those questions. The five questions are major contentious issues of entrepreneurship education namely the variety of audience, objectives, the content, pedagogies and assessment methods (Lekoko et al., 2012).

Audiences of entrepreneurship education are formal education students given theoretical knowledge on how to start up business and characteristics of successful entrepreneurs and out of school individuals or entrepreneurs for creating entrepreneurial awareness and updating entrepreneurial skills (Byrne, 2014). Entrepreneurship education should address five aspects of entrepreneurship: creativity, curiosity, imagination, risk taking and collaboration (Zhao, 2012).

The content of entrepreneurship changes in accordance to growing interests and demand ranging from venture creation to business development and financing (Küttim et al., 2014). A good curriculum depends on the combined interaction of the teachers, the students and the environment in which the transfer of information between them takes place (Hindle, 2007; Al Bakri & Mehrez, 2017; Lekoko et al., 2012). Entrepreneurship education curriculum (EEC) is a key tool for delivering the objectives of entrepreneurship education (Rezaeid-Zadeh, 2014), orienting individuals not only the tradition ways of observing, describing and analysing but also equipping with skills of seeing opportunity, coping with uncertainty and ambiguity and creating opportunity (Rezaeid-Zadeh, 2014). Generally, the authors (Lekoko et al., 2012; Johnson et al. 2006) proposed fundamental courses for any EEC such as entrepreneurial marketing and sales, entrepreneurial financial resource

management, entrepreneurial management, feasibility analysis and intellectual protection as well as strategy and opportunity recognition.

Liñán (2007) observed that many entrepreneurship education programmes restrictively jump into organizing people and teaching them on detecting opportunity and managing project i.e. business planning, locating resources, marketing of goods and services which might result to start up, but leave all those individuals still undecided or without a clear business idea out of the programme. Liñán (2007) argued that EEC should include awareness content i.e. personal planning within the same course or separate one. Kirby, 2007 recommended skills related to business and life in general while Kucel and Teodoro (2017) explained skills variety with positive association to youth entrepreneurship Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2 Essential skills for entrepreneurs

| Kirby  | Kucel & Teodoro   |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Communication and Presentation skills</li> <li>● Creativity skills</li> <li>● Critical thinking and assessment skills</li> <li>● Leadership skills</li> <li>● Negotiation and Persuasion skills</li> <li>● Problem-solving skills</li> <li>● Selling skills</li> <li>● Decision making skills</li> <li>● Social networking skills</li> <li>● Time management skills</li> <li>● Project management skills</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Mastery of own field</li> <li>● Knowledge of other fields</li> <li>● Analytical thinking</li> <li>● Ability to learn</li> <li>● Ability to negotiate</li> <li>● Ability to work under pressure</li> <li>● Alertness to opportunities</li> <li>● Ability to coordinate</li> <li>● Ability to use time efficiently</li> <li>● Ability to work with others</li> <li>● Ability to mobilize others</li> <li>● Ability to make meaning clear</li> <li>● Ability to assert authority</li> <li>● Ability to use computers</li> <li>● Ability to come up with ideas</li> <li>● Willingness to question ideas</li> <li>● Ability to present</li> <li>● Ability to write</li> <li>● Foreign language</li> </ul> |

Source: Kirby (2007) and Kucel & Teodoro (2017)

The major challenge of learning institutions is to design EEC that cater to the needs of students to cope with the dynamism of modern societies. Scholars recommend redesign of EEC from teaching perspectives to a learning perspective (Table 3.3) from a discipline-based to an interdisciplinary focus which is more outward looking, incorporating inputs from diverse stakeholders such as educators, students, alumni and industries (Kickul & Fayolle, 2007; Kirby, 2007).

Table 3. 3Teaching and Learning perspectives

| Teaching perspective                                 | Learning perspective  |
|--|---|
| Input oriented                                       | Output oriented   |
| Discipline based                                     | Cross-disciplinary based  |
| Reliance on faculty's expertise                      | Reliance of students  |
| Internal stakeholders: faculty and specialized field | Internal and external stakeholders: faculty, students, employers and alumni |

Source: Kickul & Fayolle, (2007).

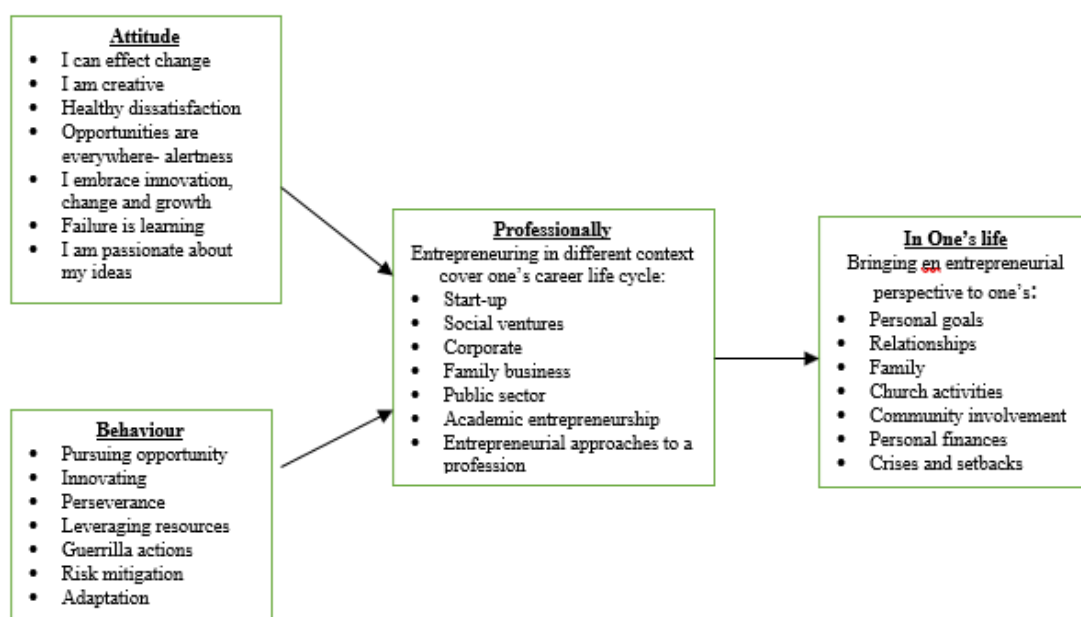
Hindle (2007) explains two perspectives about teaching entrepreneurship. One is *teaching it*, which embraces the vocational area of entrepreneurship, more practical oriented like medicine and engineering. Second, *teaching about it*, which concerns its theory and the way this phenomenon impacts on the other phenomena. There is a great need to link entrepreneurship research, theory and teaching. Teachers should ensure that they teach students what they ought to do, not merely emphasizing the description of what entrepreneurs do, and encourage entrepreneurship theory in teaching, because theory helps entrepreneurs to understand the consequence of their decision (Fiet, 2000; Honig and Martin 2014). Visiting successful entrepreneurs or lecturers who were previously

entrepreneurs makes the class interesting and entertaining. Katz (2003) suggests that the learning process of entrepreneurship includes the provision of role models, explicit work of personal networks, and apprenticeship programmes. Students should be reflective practitioners, who can apply theory in varied contexts, who are equipped for an entrepreneurship career (Jack & Anderson, 1999).

Therefore, teaching entrepreneurship should equip students with a set of personal attitudes, value and competencies that enable them to see opportunities and bring them to fruition (Arasti, Kiani Falavarjani, & Imanipour, 2012; Dana, 2010; Kickul & Fayolle, 2007). There is a need to incorporate real-life practices into teaching activities so that youth would be able to apply entrepreneurial skills in identifying or creating opportunities (Laurikainen et al., 2018).

Collet and Cinneide (2010) argue that, to have successful teaching of entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurship educators must be enterprising who balance between academic and practitioner perspectives. The authors observed that most entrepreneurship educators are neither schooled, nor interested in entrepreneurship per se. Kuratko & Morris (2018) proposed a model for teaching entrepreneurial mindset (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3. 2 Framework for Teaching the Entrepreneurial Mindset



According to Sven Ripsas, Professor for Entrepreneurship at the Berlin School of Economics and Law, “entrepreneurship teaching should be less about providing knowledge, but about enabling students to learn how to find, discover and select the necessary information” (European Commission, 2013:6). The students have to be taught how to seek information, discover and understand the market (European Commission, 2013). Therefore, universities should change teaching students not only from running an organization, but how to create new ventures and manage them (Rideout & Gray, 2013) with minimum chance of failure (Katz, 2007).

According to Wiger et al., (2015), a logic model for a youth entrepreneurship programme developed by Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, Webber, and Redd (2002) in the U.S.A provides a framework of participation into positive outcomes. The programme links youth outcomes with programme activities, goals, and objectives targeting youth of 14 to 21 years (from disadvantaged neighbourhoods). The model consists of key programme elements (e.g.,

entrepreneurship training, financial management skills, work readiness skills), and both short- and long-term outcomes (e.g., increased employment and earnings, improved educational outcomes).

Teaching students about entrepreneurship is more challenging than teaching physics and biology, because entrepreneurship is an activity based, under curriculum based on classic works; classic discussion of project and dialectical thinking; value education developed reflexively; critical and creative thinking; and a focus on the implication of ‘good ends’ that benefit the broader community (Honig and Martin, 2014). It is the role of educators to teach students to think, act and make decisions the way entrepreneurs do (Wheadon & Duval-Couetil, 2005).

Entrepreneurship teaching is both art and science (Jack & Anderson, 1999). It is science since it is based on small business management that can be taught with conventional teaching methods. Students taking entrepreneurship courses and programmes do not have business knowledge and entrepreneurial experience, they are taught accounting, financial analysis, marketing, information systems, leadership, and general management. It is art because creating a venture does not necessarily need teaching. It is more subjective and involves an unstructured situation of business, which sometimes goes beyond a conventional economic rationality. It is more experiential in nature and is understood by learning by doing. In short, entrepreneurship teaching should ignite the artistic, creative and perceptual aspects of entrepreneurship (Arasti et al., 2012).

The value of entrepreneurship training approaches need to be measured by its ability to help learners acquire entrepreneurial attitude and skills (Carrier, 2007) and give students skills to recognize multiple opportunities from learning (Kickul & Fayolle, 2007). However, attitude and decision to start business contribute to venture creation. Scholars argue that cognitive ability and willingness significantly contribute to venture creation (Schillo et al., 2016). Shepherd (2004) proposed integration of emotion and learning from the failure in content and teaching of entrepreneurship using potential guest speakers, class discussion on the emotions surrounding failure and importance of learning from the experiences, the use of role play, simulation and entrepreneurship education to be entrepreneurial. These methods are a part of non-traditional methods of teaching entrepreneurship based on an inductive approach of teaching students.

Scholars are more sceptical on the usefulness of traditional teaching of business plan, case studies and guest speakers as they are targeting a single answer with guidance from instructors. Due to the complex and personal nature of decision-making, it is not always easy to adopt an experience as a linear, cause and effect step. Relying only on this approach, it ignores the students' context and experiences (Garbuio, Dong, Nidthida, Tschang, & Lovallo, 2018). These scholars proposed the adoption of design thinking techniques and tools in the pedagogy of entrepreneurship education with emphasis on cognitive underpinnings, whereas framing and abductive reasoning give more opportunities to understand students' feelings and problems. Design thinking describes the cognition, processes, and tools designers use to imagine a desired future, informs the process and skills needed to spot and develop opportunities. Incorporation of design thinking is important because opportunity creation is a function of cognitive skills;

opportunities are created rather than discovered and the business environment is dynamic and uncertain (Garbuio et al., 2018).

### 3.2 Youth Entrepreneurship

Youth join into entrepreneurship activities after or before completing their studies, which help protect them from delinquencies, dependent attitude and enhance personal belief on self-capability (Katundu & Gabagambi, 2016; Eren & Sula, 2012). Youth career choice is a more significant to human development process than a specific event in their lives, usually starting during adolescence and influencing their personal and professional life (Hsiao & Nova, 2016). Therefore, integrating youth into labour market helps promote entrepreneurial competence, reducing labour market discrimination (Eren and Sula,2012) and thereby offering local solutions to economic disadvantaged (Green, 2013; Nikolaev, Boudreaux, & Wood, 2019; Georgellis, Sessions, & Tsitsianis, 2005; Yamaguchi, 2010).

For economists and psychologists, entrepreneurship provides youth what they called *procedural utility*. This means individuals not only value outcome, but also condition and process leading to outcomes, which is a measure of self-determination and freedom. Entrepreneurs, therefore, become independent actors in the market and not being subject to a hierarchy of decision making. There are three types of self-determination that human being would like to enjoy: a) autonomy - desire and tendency to self –organizing one’s own action or be causal, b) competence –propensity to control environment or put one’s own abilities to use, and c) relatedness-the need to feel connected to others and be treated as respected group member in the community (Frey & Benz, 2006). Young entrepreneurs



are willing to compromise their earning outcomes for higher psychic benefit from self-employment (Croson & Minniti, 2012). Youth entrepreneurship is characterized by work schedule flexibility, work-life balance, job satisfaction than employees (Millán, Hessels, Thurik, & Aguado, 2013), though other scholars observed work -family conflicts (Tremblay, Chevrier, & Loreto, 2007) and sometimes precarious form of employment to women (Wall, 2015).

Youth entrepreneurs are differentiated from business owners whereas the latter do not involve with day-to-day operation of business and decide to hire professionals and find other sources of income, contrarily, youth entrepreneurs work in the companies they run innovatively. Youth entrepreneur is a business owner, but not a business owner is not necessarily to be an entrepreneur (Duell, 2011). Therefore, youth entrepreneurs assume triple roles in their business namely workers, managers, and business owners (Plotnikova, Romero, & Martínez-Román, 2016). In addition, youth entrepreneurs who have clear sightings of opportunity and are able to muster resources for starting ventures and need to have an entrepreneurial mindset to work effectively (Ikonen, 2013).

What differentiate youth is not about business ideas but capacity and ability of few youth to turn ideas into viable businesses. Successful nature of new business start-up depends on youth's readiness to turn their ideas into business (Akolgo, Li, Dodor, Udimal, & Adomako, 2018). However, the perception of young people affecting their choice toward entrepreneurship, they are ready to wait for a long time to get employed (Berou, 2013).

### 3.2.1 Types of youth entrepreneurs

Youth entrepreneurs are important players for increasing job creation, triggering innovation and competition in the countries. They become role models for their communities mostly in disadvantaged societies. The “demonstration effect” the young people display through hardworking and good ideas youths could be successful even from the marginalized communities (Eurofound, 2015). This section explains types of youth entrepreneurs, youth supporting initiatives and youth entrepreneurship in the African context.

Literature indicates different types of youth entrepreneurs based on various criteria such as transition, readiness –intention, and skills categorization. Starting with youth transition, personal and professional maturity, Schoof (2006) categorized young entrepreneurs by age group and thus by maturity and stage of personnel development relevant to entrepreneurship:

- (i) **Pre-entrepreneurs** fall under the first formative stage (15-19 years old): this stage involves the transition from security of home or leaving school to work.
- (ii) **Budding entrepreneurs** fall under the growth stage (20-25 years old): In this stage, youth start gaining some experience, skills and capital that are important to enable them to run their own enterprises.
- (iii) **Emergent entrepreneurs** fall under the prime stage (26-29 years old): In this stage, young people have already gained some valuable experiences in business and emergent entrepreneurs have a higher level of maturity than youth in the lower age groups. They are expected to run more viable enterprises than younger people do.

Youth entrepreneurs are also categorized in four different phases: First, the pre-enterprise phase - young people as students or employees have limited entrepreneurial exposure to role models and entrepreneurial experience. Second, enterprise-able young people, who can be students or employees having some form of business qualification but mostly require general information about business start-ups. Third, enterprise aware young people who are interested in being self-employed or already are self-employed. They are likely to have self-employed parents, prior work experience and/or an enterprise education experience and already have a business idea, but need skill development, information and advice about business start-up or business management. Fourth enterprising: young people who are preparing to become self-employed or are already self-employed. They may have business qualifications, likely have self-employed parents, prior work experience and/or an enterprise education experience (Schoof, 2006).

Youth entrepreneurs are also categorized as : a) technical entrepreneurs who primarily motivated to become entrepreneurs in order to invent and develop products and services, therefore they can be opportunity or as necessity-driven), (ii) organization builders, who enjoy building organizations and have the appropriate management skills, (iii) dealmakers, who enjoy making the initial deal without, however, taking over management responsibilities (e.g. people involved in financial or trade transactions) (Schoof, 2006).

Youth entrepreneurs can be further classified as necessity and opportunity entrepreneurs. Necessity entrepreneurs are those entrepreneurs pushed into youth entrepreneurship, as they have no alternative of survival, as a result, they enter into youth entrepreneurship

activities with poor preparation and resources. Opportunity entrepreneurs voluntarily choose to be entrepreneurs because of seeing opportunity, independence, job satisfaction and anticipating higher incomes (Dawson & Henley, 2009). Putting into public policy perspective, the support of transition into youth entrepreneurship with emphasis on opportunity entrepreneurs, results in wider economic and societal benefits (Dawson & Henley, 2009).

Youth entrepreneurs can engage in entrepreneurship activities either on a part time basis or full-time self-employed (Kolvereid, 2016). In some cases, part time self-employed become full-time self-employed in a business after one year of the establishment. In addition, there are hybrid entrepreneurs who start new businesses while they work in the existing organizations. Guided by the real options theory applicable in risky and uncertain contexts, hybrid entrepreneurs attempt to invest while they maintain their job in order to learn the merit of their venture ideas, skills and entrepreneurial fit before committing to the business full time (Raffiee & Feng, 2014).

Scholars have come up with concept of **Nascent entrepreneurs**, as individual persons who are either alone or group attempting to establish a new business; can be owners or part owners of the new business, who have been active in starting a new firm for the past 12 months and not yet have positive monthly cash flow to cover expenses and the owner manager salaries for more than three months. Nascent entrepreneurs can be either youth or elders who start new ventures (start-ups) successfully or unsuccessfully. Therefore, the research on nascent entrepreneurship attempts to understand individual and environmental

characteristics for those interested to become entrepreneurs and therefore succeed or fail (Johnson, Parker, & Wijbenga, 2006, Johnson et al., 2006).

### 3.2.2 Youth entrepreneurs' supporting initiatives

There have been various initiatives to support youth entrepreneurs in the world. National governments, International Organizations and Non-Governmental Organization have taken three pronged youth entrepreneurship programmes namely, a) programmes for promoting entrepreneurial mindsets and culture among youths; b) programme for providing advice, coaching and mentoring to young who are interested to be self-employed and entrepreneurs; and lastly c) policy intervention focusing at reducing the perceived logistical barriers to youth entrepreneurship including facilitating access to credit and reducing administrative barriers (Burchell et al., 2015).

In 1998, UNESCO organized 'International Conference on Higher Education' which came up with 'World Declaration on Education for the Twenty- First Century' underscored the need for entrepreneurship education in higher learning institutions to prepare graduates for the mentality of creating jobs instead of finding jobs. European Commission started to recognize the importance of entrepreneurial knowledge through Bologna Declaration in 1999 which was followed by Green Paper on 'Entrepreneurship in Europe' in 2003 (Eurofound, 2015). By 2006 entrepreneurship knowledge was earmarked an important requisite for all members of a knowledge-based society (Bacigalupo, Kampylis, Punie, & Van den Brande, 2016). Therefore, in 2008, the European Union (EU) recommended the

integration of entrepreneurship into university education (Lorz et al., 2013) and should be the **fourth R** along reading, writing and arithmetic (Pizarro, 2014).

With reference to youth entrepreneurship, in 2001 the European Commission published the White Paper on the youth policy “*A New Impetus for European Youth*” which underscored the need for youth employment, vocational training and social inclusion. The Oslo Agenda for Entrepreneurship Education in Europe (2006) calls for: better integration of entrepreneurship education across subject areas, improved practice-based pedagogical tools, and better approaches to teamwork, whether internal or external (through collaboration with industry and business).

Other initiatives include the European Social Fund (ESF) and the Youth Employment Initiative (YEI) supporting young entrepreneurs through funding and training; the 2013 Youth Guarantee for ensuring the availability of start-up supporting services. Europe 2020 Strategy and Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan grounded with three pillars: “education and training; creation of an environment where entrepreneurs can flourish; and developing role models and reaching specific groups that are not able to exploit their full entrepreneurial potential” (Eurofound, 2015; Potter, Halabisky, & Thompson, 2014). Euro 2020 strategy acknowledges the role of entrepreneurship to self-employment (Byrne, 2014). The strategy insisted that entrepreneurship education plays a critical role for the promotion of entrepreneurial mindset, which is basic for entrepreneurship. The European Union Agenda for New Skills and Jobs, Youth on the Move – initiative put emphasis on education and employment and the European platform was against poverty and social exclusion.

International Organizations such as International Labour Organization (ILO) supports youth employment opportunities through small enterprise development in developing countries (Yamaguchi, 2010). The programmes such as Know About Business (KAB), Start Your Business (SYB), Business Idea Generation (BIG) aimed at imparting youth entrepreneurship skills such as researching information and networking, market analysis, resources mobilization, financial and business planning. However the challenges of youth employment are still high in Africa, which triggered youth-led protests against economic injustice in their countries (ILO, 2011).

UN Secretary General's Youth Employment Network and High Level Panel Group on Youth Entrepreneurship outlined the need for creating a positive entrepreneurship culture, encouraging youths to start an entrepreneurial undertaking, creating conducive legal and regulatory framework for enterprise creation and supporting youths during the pre-start-up phase, the start-up phases and the post start phase of the entrepreneurial process (Haftendorn, 2008). Of recent, United Nations United Nation initiatives of *Decent Job for Youth* was launched in 2016, for the need of promoting youth entrepreneurship and youth entrepreneurship initiatives.

In addition, Africa Youth Charter was endorsed in 2006, underscoring the need for the promotion of youth entrepreneurship through entrepreneurship training in the school curricula, providing access to credit, business development skills training, mentorship opportunities and better information on market opportunities. In 2008, the Africa Commission Report recognized youth entrepreneurship as an agent of change and pro-poor

development strategy. The 2009 to 2018 was declared as a Decade for Youth Development in Africa (ILO, 2011). Africa Union (AU) also adopted Industrialization Strategy for Africa 2016-2025, identifying entrepreneurship as a driver of industrialization and regarded it to future prosperity of the nations and 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and Agenda 2063 accentuates the need for youth entrepreneurship (D'Sa, Scales, & Gebru, 2018).

Some examples of the successful entrepreneurship programmes for supporting youths (students) in the world are: REAL programme (Rural Entrepreneurship through Action Learning) in USA; Junior Achievement programmes (JA 2012) in USA served more than 10 million youth in 120 countries (Wiger et al., 2015), Youth Enterprise Society (YES) Programme in South Africa; STEP-Student Training for Entrepreneurial Promotion started in Uganda and spread in different African countries. Other programmes are *Imprenditorialita Giovanile* (IG) i.e Youth Entrepreneurship of Italy and the Prince's Trust – Business (PTB) in the United Kingdom. Chigunta,(2002) identified various factors that lead to the success of youth entrepreneurship programmes namely clear objectives, commercial orientation, adequate funding, well trained staff, flexible and adaptable operation style, proper targeting and selection, mentoring, risk management and supportive policy environment.

### 3.2.3 Youth Entrepreneurship in African Context

Youth entrepreneurship in sub-Saharan Africa is mostly operated in the informal sector and is more vulnerable due to the lack of access to socio-economic opportunities, and low



financial literacy (Abubakar, 2015). In addition, other factors are unfavourable investment climate, unfriendly business investment environment, gender gap and lack of value chain in the entrepreneurship ecosystem. Youth entrepreneurs in urban areas are constrained with access to business premises which result in frequent eviction in their business areas, sometimes becoming street vendors doing business without formal business licences (Awinia, 2014).

Youths face unemployment challenges because they have less voice in matters relating to the economy; they are relatively unattractive for employers as they lack working experience, sometimes knowledge and experience of tacit nature. In the transition from education to work, employers are not ready to incur additional costs for training new workers; low quality education and demographic changes (Arzeni & Mitra, 2008).

There is a mismatch between positive economic growth rates and employment creation in Africa. Over the past decade, there was a significant economic growth of above 5 percent, but such a positive economic growth rate failed to generate sufficient employment rates. The statistics show the overall unemployment rate is higher in North Africa was 22 percent, and Sub-Saharan Africa was 17 percent while global average unemployment was 8 percent and 5 percent for Asian countries. In particular, youth unemployment was twice higher than adult unemployment, 12.8 for youth compared to 6.5 for adults. High youth unemployment rate is associated with weak private sector development, infrastructural challenges in agriculture and manufacturing sectors and low entrepreneurial skills (Africa Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF, 2017)).

Youth enter into youth entrepreneurship because they lack wage employment and lack of entry barriers. There is significant gender difference between enterprises owned by male and females. The latter owned small and less productive businesses resulting in lower income than their male counterparts (Haji, 2015).

#### 3.2.4 Constructs of youth entrepreneurship

In this study, youth entrepreneurship consists of three dimensions, namely opportunity recognition, resource competence and growth vision. The dimensions were referred from (Olugbola, 2017; Othman, Hashim, & Wahid, 2012; Lau et al., 2012).

The first dimension for youth entrepreneurship is opportunity recognition, which constitutes an important role in defining scope and boundaries of entrepreneurship (Busenitz et al., 2003; Buenstorf, 2007). Entrepreneurial opportunity recognition has three distinct processes, *perception process*, detecting/perceiving market needs and/ or underemployed resources, *discovery process*, recognizing or discovering a ‘match’ between market needs and specific resources and *creation process*, creating a new ‘fit’ between discovered market needs and resources in the form of business concept (Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Ray, 2003).

In principle, opportunities are gaps that are not known to all people at the time, they are more subjective to individuals’ capacity. Opportunities therefore can be defined as “are those situations in which new goods, services, raw materials and organizing methods can be introduced and sold at greater than their costs of production” (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000:220).

The Australian Economist, Kirzner used the term opportunity as a result of imbalance of prices, quantity and quality. It is now widely argued that entrepreneurship is the link between individuals and opportunities. The state of being constantly vigilant to the environment to capture market opportunities is known as entrepreneurial alertness (Machado, Faia, & da Silva, 2016). There are three factors for entrepreneurial alertness: 1) scanning and searching of information, 2) association and connection of the information and 3) evaluation and judgment of information regarding opportunities of the venture. Opportunities therefore are a product of information; creating of new information such as the invention of new technology or exploitation of market inefficiency because of information asymmetry. In this case, filling gaps of information asymmetry allows an individual to exploit such opportunities (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Ireland et al., 2003). Casson and Della Giusta, (2007:4) maintained that “when an entrepreneur acquires an information advantage, it is not necessarily because he is socially privileged, but because he knows what information he is looking for and when is most likely to find’.

The major question here is why some individuals discover opportunities while others are not. Roy & Das (2016) identified two factors for youth to discover opportunities of the business, namely possession of prior experience that is necessary for spotting an opportunity and the cognitive properties critical for valuing it. Information diffusion and learning affect opportunity discovery. According to principles of information corridor, people differ in their information storage and retrieval which influence their ability to recognize opportunities.

The prior information when complemented with new information contributes to opportunity discovery. Since in most cases opportunities are a result of information asymmetry in the marketplace (Ardichvili et al., 2003; Ireland et al., 2003), the ability to combine the two information streams becomes sufficient conditions for opportunity discovery. Therefore, entrepreneurs with higher entrepreneurial experience and knowledge access more information about the market, industry, and technology and customer demand than novice entrepreneurs. As a result, they become a positive influence of opportunity recognition (Yu, Wang, & Liang, 2015). Entrepreneurs have to be vigilant to demographic change, social change, market dynamic, and change in government legislation and policy to discover and create opportunities (Ireland et al., 2003). Ardichvili et al., (2003) associated opportunity recognition to social networks, personality traits such as optimism, self-efficacy, and creativity. Entrepreneurs may develop discovery behaviour for opportunity through observing events around them, questioning using what if? Why? And why not? Experimenting and networking (Neill, Metcalf, & York, 2015; (Dyer, Gregersen, & Christensen, 2008). In nutshell, information search behaviour is imperative in opportunity recognition (Wustrow, 2017) and that the ability of seeing opportunity is a heart of entrepreneurship (Krueger, 1998).

Opportunity exploitation is a very important step after the opportunity discovery, because not all opportunities discovered are exploited. Nature of the discovered opportunity determines whether to be exploited or left, considering costs and time, or sometimes individual differences in weighting the expected values of such opportunity. Scholars recommend that young entrepreneurs leverage on entrepreneurial networking or joint production in opportunity exploitation (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

Resource competence is another dimension of youth entrepreneurship, referred to as the ability to acquire and organize the operating resources needed to start and grow an organization. Successful self-employed are bound to search for and acquire multiple resources such as financial and human resources for starting and growth of the venture. However, young people lack resource skills or fail to employ individuals who are skilled with resources (Baum & Locke, 2004).

The entrepreneurial bricolage theory explains clearly how entrepreneurs should use resources at their disposal for starting and improving performance of their venture. The entrepreneurial bricolage directs the combinations of the resources at hand to new problems and opportunities (Baker, Senyard, & Davidsson, 2009). As well-known from an economic point of view, resources are scarce, youth entrepreneurs have to be ready to exploit as many resources as possible for fostering their competitive edge and in turn improving performance of their ventures. It is a responsibility of young entrepreneurs to overcome resource constraints by embracing resource seeking behaviours. Developing bricolage behaviours is critical for nascent entrepreneurs as the way of creating novel solutions to problems and opportunities (Baker et al., 2009).

Entrepreneurs must have new resource skills to acquire and organize operating resources beyond startup to growth stage. It is the role of entrepreneurs to utilize new resources skills for finding financial and human resources that are important not only for confronting new markets, resource shortages but also to extreme uncertainty (Baum & Locke, 2004).

Growth vision is the third dimension of youth entrepreneurship, which is much related to strategic management of business ventures. Growth vision sometimes is referred to as strategic vision (Cossette, 2004), growth expectation (Neill, Pathak, Ribbens, Noel, & Singh, 2018). Literarily, vision refers to the project mental image of what a person wants to achieve in future. Being distant and future in nature, it is motivational and can be either formal or informal. According to Scarborough (2012:58), entrepreneurial vision is ‘an expression of what entrepreneurs believe in and the value on which they build their business’. Vision is a key to youth entrepreneurs since it acts as a driving force and a sense of direction to their entrepreneurial process. It is an initial task of entrepreneurs to convert personal vision into coherent proposition, communicate it well in attractive and credible manners to customers, investors, and regulators (Blundel & Lockett, 2011a). Entrepreneurs must have a growth vision of the business they want to build and start high-potential businesses in the midst of communities of big dreamers. Vision is manifested with foresight; “the ability to see beyond the immediate moments, to see past, what is working now and to see what will work in the future” pg 97. It is the ability to see not just actuality but potential, by asking common questions. What if... (Baum et al., 2007)”. However, Neill et al.,(2018) argued that growth vision is influenced by entrepreneurial optimism and self-regulatory focus, which in turn is related to learning. That is, entrepreneurs who are more optimistic and promotional oriented engage in exploratory learning, which is linked with venture growth expectation than entrepreneurs with less optimistic and preventive focus, engaging in exploitative learning with low expectation.

Since youth entrepreneurs operate their business in a competitive and dynamic business environment, they must embrace a growth vision for their business venture. The growth

vision entails proactive behaviour of preparing for the disruption to revolutionize the respective industry and gain a competitive edge instead of reacting to a chaotic environment. Youth entrepreneurs should be able to articulate their vision and enthusiasm to those around them and align it with specific core values such as team work, integrity and commitment (Scarborough, 2012).

Growth vision is characterized with bringing distant ideological objectives rather than emphasizing immediate tangible benefits. Thus, it expresses the value, hope and ideal of the entrepreneur's venture with no immediate benefit. Scholars characterize growth vision as optimistic, desirable, challenging, clear, brief and achievable (Ruvio, Rosenblatt, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2010). Entrepreneur's growth vision is positively correlated with business performance (Osiyevskyy, Hayes, Krueger, & Madill, 2013; Ruvio et al., 2010). Entrepreneurs with growth vision can identify the significant needs in the market and develop the strategy to address such needs. They can also expand their vision through benchmarking by identifying the role model firms, study them thoroughly and bring in ideas if necessary adopted inside the firm (Hanks & McCarrey, 2015). Growth vision is an important dimension which differentiates why some ventures grow large in size and others do not (Cassar, 2006).

### 3.2.5 Empirical studies on youth entrepreneurship

Halim, Ahmad, Ramayah and Hanifah (2017) observed under-researched areas on youth entrepreneurship and classified it from four dimensions, intention, ability, learning and attractiveness towards new venture formation with respect to government and training

support of the bottom of the pyramid community in Malaysia. Samsudin et al., (2016) identified intention, motivation and attitudes as main dimensions of entrepreneurship, while Olugbola (2017) classified it into opportunity identification, motivation, resources and ability.

Studies on youth entrepreneurship are diverse in focus, ranging from intention, determinants of entrepreneurship choice to entrepreneurial practices and experiences. Studies on youth entrepreneurship focused on transition from waged labour to self-employed (Georgellis et al., 2005; Ferreira, Bastos, & D'angelo, 2018), entrepreneurship intention (Ayalew and Zeleke 2018, Zhang, Wang, and Owen , 2015; Ismal, Jaffar, and Hooi, 2013; Eucharia ,2018; Ezech, Nkamnebe, & Omodafe, 2019; Dendup & Acharja, 2017; Sharma, 2018), mobility and youth entrepreneurship (Roman & Paraschiv, 2019; Afreh, Rodgers, Vershinina, & Williams, 2019), determinants of youth entrepreneurship (Damoah, 2020; Guerrero, Urbano, Cunningham, & Gajón, 2018; Mothibi & Malebana, 2019; Nguyen, Do, Vu, Dang, & Nguyen, 2019).

Sakala (2017) reviewed the role of family in supporting youth entrepreneurship in Africa. The review found that although family is a primary institution, its role in supporting youth entrepreneurship is less considered regardless of opportunity within family to push entrepreneurship further. This is because family is a source of capital, informal learning and apprenticeship, motivation and enhances entrepreneurial orientation to youth.



The factors influencing someone to decide to engage into entrepreneurship are of different categories. There is an increasing interest in studying factors of youth entrepreneurship among academics and policy makers (Brown, Dietrich, Ortiz, & Taylor, 2007). Dvouletý, Mühlböck, Warmuth, & Kittel (2018) classified them into four main categories as follows:

First, sociodemographic factors relate to individual attributes, demographic characteristics and socio-economic factors, such as age, gender and education (Lee & Vouchilas, 2016; Nasiri & Hamelin, 2018; Daoud, Sarsour, Shanti, and Kamal, 2020; Marques, 2017). There are inconsistent results about the impact of age to self-employment. Literature shows a positive relationship between age and entrepreneurship (Van Praag, 2003), meaning older people have more propensity to entrepreneurship because increasing human and financial capital give more access to business opportunities. Vlachos (2016) found age is not associated with business creation, while education level was inversely linked only for males. However, other scholars indicate an inverse U-shape relationship between age and entrepreneurship. In regard to gender women are less attracted to entrepreneurship than men (Dvouletý et al., 2018). Other studies focus on the influence of education attainment and entry in entrepreneurship (Buenstorf, Nielsen, & Timmermans, 2017), broad experience and competence in entrepreneurship (Oberschachtsiek, 2012). Similarly, Kautonen, Down, & Minniti, (2014) found that entrepreneurial activity tends to increase almost linearly with age for sole proprietors but increases until late 40s and then decreases for people who aspire to hire workers (owner-managers) using European samples. However, Azoulay, Jones, Kim, & Miranda (2018) found that high growth entrepreneurship is associated with middle age starting 35years to 54 years.

Second, psychological factors are associated to entry into entrepreneurship such as such as motivation, risk tolerance and job preference, self-confidence, determination, Empirical studies show negative correlation between fear of failure and entrepreneurship ( Adomako et al., 2018), and entrepreneurship and risk taking (Brown et al., 2007).

Third, factors related to intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurship, with respect to impact of role model and mentors (Dogan, 2015; Viinikainen et al., 2016; Begin & Fayolle, 2014; Chlosta et.al, 2012; Fellnhofer, 2017). The impact of role models to entrepreneurship is well explained by the theory of identification and learning. Scholars discussed four functions that entrepreneurial role models perform in relation to entrepreneurship. These are a) inspiring and motivating the young, b) increasing self-efficacy, raise self-confidence of other that they can achieve their planned goals, c) teaching by examples; showing ways and guideline for actions, and d) providing support to make other standing (Dvouletý et al., 2018).

Studies show family background is a good predictor for youth entrepreneurship (Georgellis et al., 2005; Hilbrecht & Lero, 2014; Tremblay et al., 2007)). The parents therefore become immediate role models to career choice and influence young people to follow parent jobs. An entrepreneurial family becomes a breeding ground for entrepreneurial predispositions (Begin & Fayolle, 2014). Manea, Nichita, & Irimescu (2019) found family, friends and education have significant influence on youth entrepreneurship intentions.

The fourth category related to perception on economic and institutional circumstances of the country. Apart from the various individual factors, individuals are influenced to become an entrepreneur because of economic conditions. For example, during an economic crisis self-employment is seen as the easiest option of earning a living for individuals. Other join into self-employment because of business environment was favourable to them (Norbert, Tina, Birgit, & Christine, 2014; Suhaimi, Mamun, Zainol, Nawi, & Saufi, 2018) in term of culture, legislation and ideology (Lin, Carsrud, Jagoda, & Shen, 2013:7; Akolgo, Li, Dodor, Udimal, & Adomako, 2018) and an access to financing (Aldén & Hammarstedt, 2016; Monitoring Group, 2012).

It is argued that individuals are important players in entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship is a nexus of enterprising individual and lucrative opportunities. Despite the availability of funding by some government agencies and companies, young people are not ready to engage in entrepreneurship (Akolgo et al., 2018). According to Douglas (2009), entrepreneurial perception on entrepreneurial opportunity is critical to subsequent exploration and exploitation of opportunity. Entrepreneurs tend to see opportunities and compete on exploiting them differently with other people.

Young people have major responsibility to make decisions, ultimately resulting to leave other options (Hsiao & Nova, 2016), that the power of individual volition (Nyock Ilouga, Nyock Mouloungni, & Sahut, 2014). From the economic point of view, a person decides to be self-employed because of opportunity costs; when the gains from it exceed the cost (Behrenz, Delander, & Månsson, 2016).

Roman & Paraschiv (2019) conducted a study on the impact of international mobility on youth entrepreneurship after the return of the person to their country of origin. Using data from the European survey based on six countries (Germany, Norway, Spain, Romania, Hungary and Luxembourg) in Europe. Using logistic regression with 5,499 respondents, the study found that youth who have stayed in an international country (mobile) are more likely to become entrepreneurs after returning home. The findings therefore showed that mobility has a positive impact on youth entrepreneurship in Europe and also explains why most youth are more mobile across the world in recent times.

Damoah (2020) examined strategic factors predicting the likelihood of youth entrepreneurship in Ghana. The study employed quantitative survey design guided by human capital theory based on a logistic regression analysis with 81 respondents. The strategic factors used are age, gender, marital status, education, support status, number of business owned and experience. The study found that experience, support, and number of business owned are significant predictors of entrepreneurship. Guerrero, Urbano, Cunningham, & Gajón (2018) found that individual determinants such as prior experiences, skill/knowledge and aspiration are more predictors of graduate entrepreneurship than incubators and research parks.

A study Mothibi & Malebana (2019) investigated the determinants of entrepreneurial intention among secondary school students in South Africa. The study used theory of planned behaviour and added media and status of entrepreneurship as well as knowledge of entrepreneurship support to determine the intention. With exception of knowledge of

entrepreneurial support, all remaining factors were significant towards entrepreneurship intention. Ezeh et al., (2019) employed structural equation modelling and found that perceived educational support, behavioural control and compatibility are significant determinants of entrepreneurial intention among university students in Muslim community of Northern Nigeria.

Tipu et al., (2011) examined factors influencing student's readiness towards entrepreneurial activities in the United Arab Emirate. The study measured entrepreneurial readiness through possession of business ideas, benefiting from encouragement and support of society, family, mentors, and role models as well as access to funds increase the likelihood of engaging in entrepreneurial activities. Findings indicate that students' academic performance, family background and gender strongly associated with entrepreneurial readiness. However, there was not any significant relationship between students' entrepreneurial readiness with career preference and field of study.

Ekpe, Razak, Ismail, and Abdullah (2016) examined the relationship between entrepreneurial skill acquisition, self-motivation, social influence and self-employment practice among Malaysian university graduates. The study used a survey method whereby 600 graduates were selected using stratified sampling. Findings show that skill acquisition is the critical factor for graduates to exploit opportunities for self-employment after five years of graduation. In addition, self-motivation is a more influential factor for self – employment compared with social influence and skill acquisition. Lastly, the study found

that Malaysia graduates had low risk-taking propensity. The author recommended a further study on graduates other than business faculties in Malaysia.

Olaiya (2015) examined the perception of the students of Real Estate and Management (REM) on the impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial capacity and self-employment intention in Malaysia. The study found students' positive perception of the impact of entrepreneurship education on self-employment as a career option. Nevertheless, it was further revealed that risk taking proficiency and practical workshop practice were somewhat weak, which call for more innovative and practical exercises during teaching entrepreneurship.

Eren and Sula (2012) examined the role of pre-market abilities on young men's self-employment decision and found that both cognitive and non-cognitive abilities are important, but in opposing directions, predictors of self-employment. The study by Shekhar, Joshi, and Sanwal (2016) in Gujarat, India found that only about 12 percent of youth were ready to set-up business of whom only 14 per cent were girls. The study found different reasons for non-willingness for self-employment in gender; boys subscribed on 'lack of financial assistance' while for girls it was 'lack of family support'

Thomas (2009) investigated the aspirations of young entrants into the labour market and found that academic success reduces the likelihood young entrants aspire to own a small business by the age of 30 years. Upon employment readiness, Kwong & Thompson (2016)

use a time framework within which students can become entrepreneurs and found two groups. One is that immediately after graduation they want to become entrepreneurs, this is 'potential rapid entrepreneurs' and second is 'entrepreneurs-in-waiting' prefer to work first for the period of three to 10 years and then become entrepreneurs after getting enough knowledge and experience.

The study conducted by the Danish Foundation for Entrepreneurship-Young Enterprise in 2011 found a significant difference between ordinary students with those who received entrepreneurship education, mostly on their view of future and ambition level. The students who received entrepreneurship education had a higher positive attitude on entrepreneurship and 53 percent regarded entrepreneurship as a potential employment option (Vestergaard, Moberg, & Jørgensen, 2012). Similarly, Tingey et al., (2016) found Apache Youth Entrepreneurship Programme in North America scaling up preventive initiatives for youth against substance abuse and suicide by unlocking their potential through imparting vocation and social knowledge and skills, improving self confidence that help in occupation aspirations.

Douglas and Shepherd (2002) used an economic analysis of the utility maximization model of career choice for assessing Australian University Students' self-employment option. Using a conjoint analysis method, the study analysed attitude to work, risk, independence and income on alternative career options. Findings show that intention to become self-employed was significantly related to the respondents' tolerance for risk and their preference for independence. The higher the individual's tolerance for risk, and the

stronger is their preference for decision-making autonomy, the stronger is their intention to be self-employed.

Kahando and Mungai (2018) examined the influence of cognitive factors on self-employment intentions among students Technical and Vocational Education and Training in Kenya and found a significant and positive relationship between cognitive factors and self-employment intention whereas entrepreneurship education enhances the cognitive factors.

Wang et al., (2010) surveyed individual and environmental factors on the motivation to become self-employed in the United States. The individual factors are entrepreneurial self-efficacy and risk taking while environmental factors are self-employment background social networks, social norms, legal and government support. The findings show that with exception of family self-employment background, the rest had a strong impact on motivation for self-employment.

Ayalew and Zeleke (2018) investigated the impact of entrepreneurial attitudes on self-employment intentions on university students in Ethiopia. The study sampled 907 university students and used a quantitative approach to examine the problem. The entrepreneurial attitudes factors are information and opportunity seeking, creativity and problem-solving skills, achievement and instrumental readiness, self-confidence, and self-esteem. The results of study show that entrepreneurial training and attitudes significantly predicts self-employment intention. Juračak and Tica (2016) investigated attitudes and intentions of graduate students to self-employment in Croatia. The study used factors such



as previous entrepreneurial experience, perceived desirability and perceived entrepreneurial self-efficacy and found positive relation with self-employment intention.

Caliendo, Fossen, & Kritikos (2014) investigated individual personality influences on the entry and the exit decision from self-employment in German using household panel data. The study found that some traits like openness to experience, extraversion, and risk tolerance affect entry while agreeableness and values of risk tolerance affect exit decision from self-employment. It was found only locus of control had a similar influence on both the entry and exit decisions. The explanatory power of all observed traits among all observable variables amounts to 30 percent, with risk tolerance, locus of control, and openness having the highest explanatory power.

De Gobbi (2014) found positive perception (self-efficacy), entrepreneurial culture, education, age, and social capital are factors determining successful youth entrepreneurship in Sub-Saharan Africa. Positive perception enables youth to undertake entrepreneurial activities; young people who believe they have necessary skills to start business are 5 to 6 times more likely to venture into business. Entrepreneurial culture enhances youth to engage into entrepreneurship, however, young women are less favourable to the entrepreneurial culture. It is reported that only 45 percent of students complete high education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Despite education making good entrepreneurs, it is a major challenge for successful youth entrepreneurship in Sub Saharan Africa. In case of age, 25- 34 youth are more likely to engage into opportunity driven

entrepreneurship than 15-24. It is revealed that social capital, particularly family and friends, play a pivotal role in the development of youth entrepreneurship.

Sharma (2014) examined the impact of family capital and social capital on youth entrepreneurship in India. The study employed quantitative design using human capital theory and Chi-square Test with 530 final year students at higher education of Uttarakhand, India and found that financial capital of family had no influence on career choice of starting business rather than influence intention to go to higher education. However, the study found that students with higher social capital networks had higher intention to join entrepreneurship as a career. It is important to note that the study used father income as family income excluding mother. In addition, the study still is in the intention of students, not the behaviour of entrepreneurs.

Sambo (2016) investigated factors affecting youth entrepreneurship development within Kibera, Kenya. The focus variables were entrepreneurship education and level of education towards youth entrepreneurship. The study used 300 young entrepreneurs using OriginPro 9.1. 5 to perform correlation analysis. The study found entrepreneurship education has a strong positive relationship with youth entrepreneurship development, but weak positive relationship with level of education. The study was constrained in the use of only correlation analysis to test hypotheses and not regression or structural equation modelling which give more predictive power.

A study by Elizabeth, Babatunde and Oluwabunmi (2020) on influence of entrepreneurship training, access to finance, entrepreneurial capacity, entrepreneurial atmosphere towards youth entrepreneurship. This study was done in South Africa whereby 365 students in the universities in Gauteng province of South Africa participated in the study. The study was quantitative in nature guided by institutional theory using structural equation modelling (AMOS 25) found that all factors had positive influence on youth entrepreneurship. The study is based on student's intention to entrepreneurship with minimum samples of youth in Universities.

Adams and Quagraine (2018) conducted a qualitative study uncovering youth's journey into entrepreneurship in terms of access and challenges behind it. The study used a narrative analysis framework with 69 youth entrepreneurs in Madina, Ghana. The study found that youth were motivated by push factors such as need for income, association with a family business and motivational speeches on entrepreneurship. However, youth face the challenge of innovating or coming up with new ideas, and lack of business support. Although the study provided practical experience of youth in entrepreneurship, it failed to show the extent of these factors that influence youth entrepreneurship.

Dzomonda and Fatoki (2019) investigated the role of institutions of higher learning towards youth entrepreneurship development in South Africa. The study employed quantitative design with 150 university business students conveniently selected. The study found that universities are doing well in career guidance towards entrepreneurship careers but there is limited practical entrepreneurship education and financial support to youth

through corporate social responsibility programmes. However, the study utilized only descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation, with small sample size which left a lot to be known on the effect of factors towards youth entrepreneurship.

### 3.3 Individual Factors influencing Youth Entrepreneurship

#### 3.3.1 Entrepreneurial Learning

Entrepreneurial learning (EL) is an integral part of the entrepreneurial process, from starting to managing ventures (Cope, 2005; Xiao, Marino, & Zhuang, 2010a). EL is an important research area in the interface of entrepreneurship and organizational learning, and its applicability goes beyond pedagogical context (Pittaway, 2018). In principle, EL has provided a great role to the paradigmatic shift of entrepreneurship from a static, traits-based approach to a dynamic, learning based approach and advancing interdisciplinary nature of entrepreneurship (Wang & Chugh, 2014). EL, therefore, becomes an important construct for youth entrepreneurship for developing entrepreneurial skills (Kucel & Teodoro, 201), enhancing entrepreneurial attitude, opportunity spotting and mobilizing resources necessary for starting business (Sondari, 2014). It also induces youth entrepreneurial mindset which helps see problems as opportunities and unlock their economic potential (Schoof, 2006; Smith, 2017).

There are three main perspectives regarding human learning, namely behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism (Kozlinska, 2016). Behavioural perspective of learning describes learning process as a result of a change in behaviour gained through repetition,

by appraising correct actions and discouraging bad actions. According to this perspective, responses to environmental stimuli influence behaviour, more than internal cognitive processes. The perspective upholds Aristotelian and Darwinist truth that any behaviour can be observed, measured, and changed (Kozlinska, 2016). The paradigm highlights learning as a result of the transmission and reproduction of knowledge from the teacher to the student. The learner is regarded as a passive receiver of the knowledge and application of procedures in forms of lectures, reading, watching and listening (Hunter & Lean, 2018). Unlike behaviourism, cognitive perspective acclaims the power of human cognition and rationalism, explaining that behaviour is a result of the thought process. That is, learning is a process inside a person and consists of a constant relation of new information to the previously acquired information. The process of learning, therefore, follows the rule of algorithms of mental function. It is argued by psychologists that the capacity to associate prior knowledge with the existing information or concepts enhances learning of the individuals. The paradigm uses the concept of individual information processing to understand the human mind and the ability to learn (Hunter & Lean, 2018).

Constructivism explains learning as an active process where individuals construct their own reality, deriving sense and meaning from activities and events through individual experience. It acknowledges the active role of individuals in charge of their own development and progress. However, prior knowledge, mental structures and the beliefs of the learners influence the learning process (Kozlinska, 2016). There are five issues of constructivism regarding learning include i) reality, ii) knowledge, iii) the purpose of knowing, iv) the role of learner, and v) the role of teacher (Löbner, 2006) as described in Table 3.4.

Table 3. 4 Components of constructivism on learning

| Issues                 | Description  |
|------------------------|--|
| Reality                | The reality does not exist separate from the the observer, depends on the observer's frame of reference  |
| Knowledge              | Knowledge involves not only facts, principles and theories deducted from the observation but also ability to use information and interpretation of the meaning of events and phenomenon. |
| The purpose of knowing | The purpose of knowing goes beyond the discovery of reality but adaptability of change of world  |
| The role of learner    | The learner has active role of constructing meaning not receiver of information  |
| The role of teacher    | The teacher has the role of guiding learners on new ways of thinking about events and phenomena.   |

Source: (Löbler, 2006)

Social constructivism is a logical continuation of the constructivism claims that learning is taking place in a social setting, where learners get knowledge through interaction with others (Cope, 2005; Gibb, 1999; Korsgaard & Anderson, 2011). The learner has to actively explore and experience the world beyond the classroom and be able to connect the two loops: the classroom and the social context (Löbler, 2006). "Learning is a sense- making process of socially constructed and contextual activity in which new reality is constructed, by talking and doing, as people learn" (Rae, 2003:2).

Hunter and Lean (2018) associate entrepreneurship as a value creation process in social context which necessitates the learners to engage with the social context to gain relevance. Thus, the learning content must empower learners to understand the world alongside knowledge of entrepreneurship to transform the particular social context.

Wang and Chugh (2014) maintain that entrepreneurial learning is an individualized and fragmented concept, which needs more theoretical and empirical development in order to get more understanding of how and when learning takes place in the entrepreneurial process. Categorically, Minniti and Bygrave (2001:7) contend “entrepreneurship is a process of learning, and a theory of entrepreneurship requires a theory of learning”. EL has benefited from theoretical insights of organisational learning, experiential learning, population ecology, social cognitive theory, and configuration theory, which later on influence diverse definitions of EL (Wang & Chugh, 2014).

Using cognitive perspective, Young and Sexton, (1997) describe EL as a mental process of acquiring, storing, and using entrepreneurial knowledge in the long term. However, entrepreneurial learning depends on attitudinal, emotional, and emotional and personality factors such as motivation to achievement, confidence, efforts, desire for challenge, and determination (Cope & Watts, 2000). EL depends on the absorptive capacity of individuals to internalize entrepreneurial information and knowledge and use them for commercial ends (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990). EL can be at individual level involving an individual in acquiring knowledge or skills and collective level in the form of team, organization or regional level where accumulated knowledge is coordinated for achieving specific tasks (Wang & Chugh, 2014).

Entrepreneurial learning is related to a complex transformative process of converting career experiences into entrepreneurial knowledge (Thompson, Scott, & Gibson, 2010). In this case, EL is related to experiential learning based on learning by doing, meaning, in

order to learn about entrepreneurship, one has to engage on it (Karen, Sabine, Per, Helle, & Tunstall, n.d.). Thompson et al., (2010) suggest more studies on understanding process of EL in the context of entrepreneurial education and differentiated two models of EL in relation entrepreneurship context, learning based and teaching based. Scholars emphasized on learning perspective because it focuses on an output orientation where both content and process are evaluated to achieve the desired output while the teaching perspective focuses on inputs based, specialized content and knowledge where the curriculum design reflects the faculty's framework for knowledge and not essentially the students' priority (Kickul & Fayolle, 2007).

Entrepreneurial learning is a reflection of four inputs: formal education inputs, reading of various books, work experience and interaction and listening to people. The effects of entrepreneurial learning in entrepreneurship education is done through lecture, case studies, stimulation & games to new venture based learning/ real life new ventures. (Thompson et al., 2010).

Löbler (2006) uses constructive perspective to explain how entrepreneurs learn in a dynamic and uncertain business environment beyond guidelines taught from management and entrepreneurship textbooks by developing and using new guideline "roadmap" to find their way through unknown territory. In addition, entrepreneurs have to learn about learning contrary to their past experiences. In order to help entrepreneurs to achieve this learning style, entrepreneurship education should adopt a more process driven pedagogy with an open learning process. This would enable entrepreneurs to question common



knowledge and creating new knowledge, what Schumpeter called “Creative Destruction”. However, for entrepreneurs to apply the creative destruction principles they have to have a bundle of competences, skills and characteristics obtained in an open-learning environment supported by teachers who adopt a learning-oriented way instead of a teaching-oriented way.

Indeed, constructive perspective asserts that prior-knowledge and experience play a significant role in the learning process and facilitates entrepreneurs in decision making and problem solving. Entrepreneurs’ experience is obtained through both prior success as well as prior failure (Politis, 2005). Politis insists the need for the transformation of experience into knowledge in order to have more impact. Even though people differ on how to use prior-knowledge and experience, they are the foundation for discovering and creating certain opportunities, i.e. market structure, ways to serve the market and customers (Shane, 2000) and overcome challenges of liability of newness (Politis, 2005).

Learning from failure is therefore important aspect of EL which has drawn attention of many researchers (Jason, Cope, & Jason, 2011; Politis, 2005; Shepherd, Wiklund, & Haynie, 2009) and regard failure as pervasive and inevitable (Cacciotti, Hayton, Mitchell, & Giazitzoglu, 2016; Singh, Corner, & Pavlovich, 2015). Entrepreneurial failure is a result of poor performance which causes business to be insolvent and less attractive to new debt and equity financing. The failure is associated with financial and emotional loss (Jenkins, Brundin, & Wiklund, 2010), whereby the self-employed individuals experience negative emotion response, i.e. grief (Shepherd, 2003; Singh, 2011b) as well as positive

(relief) in the later stage (Jenkins et al., 2010), which provide learning opportunities for entrepreneurs (Singh, 2011b).

Scholars have investigated how entrepreneurs experience and manage failure (Corner, Singh, & Pavlovich, 2017; Shepherd & Haynie, 2011) and the grief recovery process (Jenkins, Wiklund, & Brundin, 2014; Pittaway, 2018; Shepherd & Kuratko, 2009). Overall and Wise (2016) assert that entrepreneurs associate success as a result of learning from failure. Entrepreneurs should learn from ‘intelligent failure’ which are the basis for changing future behaviour (Politis 2005). Entrepreneurs, therefore, should utilize feedback information of the failure in order to manage the existing firm effectively. Through the grief recovery process, entrepreneurs are more able to learn from the failure. Conversely, failure may constrain cognitive ability, decision making, which result in poor organization change and adaptation. (Shepherd, 2003). Minniti and Bygrave (2001) argue that entrepreneurs have to learn from both failure and success, because the combination of two builds knowledge which determine an entrepreneur's choice of improving existing practices or coming up with new one. In general, learning from failure upholds learning - by-doing proclaimed by experiential learning perspective (Minniti & Bygrave, 2001) and effectuation logic of entrepreneurial decision making (Sarasvathy, 2001).

Using social constructive perspective or networking perspective, Rae, (2006:3) defined EL as “learning to recognise and act on opportunities, through initiating, organising and managing ventures in social and behavioural ways. Jack and Anderson, (2002) maintained that EL is a product of social interaction. According to this perspective, entrepreneurs learn

more about business, identify opportunities and resources when they embed in social structure i.e. social networking (R. Lee & Jones, 2008). Anderson, Dodd, and Jack (2012) maintained that entrepreneurial learning is about connecting to people.

Scholars conceptualized EL by developing a number of models such as five dimensions model of EL (Cope ,2005), a triad model of entrepreneurial learning (Rae, 2005), model of entrepreneurial learning within the process of opportunity identification and exploitation (Corbett, 2005), architecture of entrepreneurial learning ( Holcomb et al., 2009), a dynamic model of EL (Minniti & Bygrave, 2001), model of the process of EL (Politis, 2005), a situated perspective model of learning (Xiao et al., 2010).

Cope (2005) described five dimensions of entrepreneurial learning. First, learning about oneself, entrepreneurs must understand strength and weakness with regard to the business they operate, and understand areas for personal development, interests and motivation. Second, learning about the business, entrepreneurs must have detailed knowledge of the business dynamics and growth drivers. Third, learning about the environment and entrepreneurial networks, entrepreneurs need to know how to manage relationships with existing and potential customers, suppliers and competitors, advisory agencies and support services such as the bank, lawyers and accountant. Fourth, learning about business management, which focuses on understanding how to run and control business effectively, includes understanding important procedures and systems of recruitment, reward structures and financial management. Lastly, learning about the nature and management of

relationships, which focus on learning about internal and external relationship management and being able to integrate the above four tasks.

Rae (2006) asserts that knowledge and skills about and for entrepreneurship is much learned in a business environment which shares social identity and learning through inductive, practical, and social experience rather than an educational environment. Therefore entrepreneurial learning is a situated and active experience rather than a purely educational and theoretical process. Man (2012) emphasized that entrepreneurial learning is an active interpretation of experience by entrepreneurs which help modify new concepts.

To zero in the process of entrepreneurial learning, (Rae, 2005) developed a triad model of entrepreneurial learning as an intersection of contextual learning, personal and social emergence as well as negotiated enterprise. The personal and social emergence include role of family, identity as practices, tension between current and future identity as well as narrative construction of identity. Negotiated enterprise consists of participation and joint enterprise, negotiated meaning, structure and practices, changing roles over time, and engagement in networks of external relationships. Lastly, contextual learning involves learning through immersion within the industry, opportunity recognition through participation and practical theories of entrepreneurial action.

Scholars differentiated exploratory and exploitative learning in the entrepreneurial process. Exploratory learning centred on discovery or creation of new knowledge usually includes search, risk taking, experimentation, flexibility, discovery and innovation (Wang & Chugh,

2014; Xiao et al., 2010). Knowledge obtained from these activities is detached from organization's or individual existing knowledge bases. Exploratory learning is associated as a variance-seeking learning aimed at increasing performance variance (McGrath, 2001). Contrarily, exploitative entrepreneurial learning or acquisitive learning involves acquiring or assimilating existing knowledge that exists outside the firm (Kreiser, 2011). The main tasks of entrepreneurial learning include refining and improving the existing practices through trial-and-error learning. Exploitative learning is associated as a mean-seeking learning for improving mean performance and reducing variance (McGrath, 2001). In their model of learning, Xiao et al., (2010) found that higher information uncertainty results in a lower degree of exploratory entrepreneurial learning while higher resource uncertainty results in a higher degree of exploratory entrepreneurial learning.

In their review of EL, Wang and Chugh (2014) identified other two types of learning namely intuitive and sensing learning. Sensing learning concerns with learning by understanding facts or details based on external contact through physical, sights and sound sensations. Sensing learners are more concrete and practical thinkers, inclined to discover and identify opportunities existing in the environment by understanding and examining the relationship of market conditions. Conversely, intuitive learning or improvisational learning entails learning by knowing the relationship of facts through conceptual thinking and discovering possibilities. These learners are more abstract thinkers, inclined to a new opportunity based.

Since entrepreneurship occurs in a complex and dynamic environment, which makes individuals differ in response to such dynamism, dynamic capability helps entrepreneurs change and adjust with such change through effective use of networks that can facilitate the ability to adjust (Markman, 2007). Therefore, Markman (2007) relates entrepreneurial learning with entrepreneurial competence, meaning an aggregate of knowledge, skills and ability of entrepreneurs in the entrepreneurial process. Specifically, knowledge competence includes an access to unique information and experience. Young entrepreneurs should understand the industry, the venture, and the type of business approach the venture is pursuing and understand how to create, build and harvest new ventures (Mathews, 2016). Skill competence involves technical skills (organizational, management, product and industry skills) and human skills (human and social capital and social skills). Ability competence consists of the capability to cope with and overcome adversity and the cognitive ability to discover opportunity.

Empirical studies show that entrepreneurial learning is an important construct in building entrepreneurial capability of youth for starting and developing ventures (David Rae & Carswell, 2000). Scholars connected entrepreneurial learning and error mastery orientation (Funken, Gielnik, & Foo, 2018), entrepreneurial learning with opportunity recognition and exploitation (Corbett, 2005; Corbett, 2007; Rae, 2006; Sanz-Velasco, 2006; Holcomb, Ireland, Holmes, & Hitt, 2009), and promotion of innovation in entrepreneurial activities (Ravasi & Turati, 2005). Zhao, Yang, Hughes, and Li (2020) found that entrepreneurial learning mediates the relationship between entrepreneurial alertness and business model innovation.

Hongdiyanto, Teofilus, Sutrisno, & Dewanti (2020) conducted a study on the effect of entrepreneurial learning on entrepreneurial intention of Indonesian women. The study was quantitative in nature with 149 respondents purposely selected from different regions of Indonesia. Using Structural Equation modelling, the study found that entrepreneurial learning influenced entrepreneurial intention of Indonesian women with the aid of attitude towards entrepreneurship and perceived behavioural control. Although the study provides a good conclusion, it had very small samples which sometimes distorted reality.

Rae and Carswell (2001) related entrepreneurial achievement and learning due to its dynamic influence on entrepreneurial behaviour by recognizing and acting on entrepreneurial opportunities, organizing and managing ventures. Through interpretive method such as life story and in-depth interview, it was found that entrepreneurial learning is applicable in five broad stages of early life, early career, engaging and entering a venture, growing a venture, moving out and on from a venture, and has close link with confidence and self-belief (David Rae & Carswell, 2000).

Prianto, Zoebaida, Sudarto, and Hartati (2018) examined the effectiveness of entrepreneurship Learning Model in growing competence and entrepreneurial intention of Vocational High School Students in East Java Indonesia. The study found that entrepreneurial learning activities become effective when combined with theoretical studies and involving students to business activities enhance students' entrepreneurial competence of particularly entrepreneurial skills and attitude dimensions.

Man (2012) used a competency approach to investigate entrepreneurial learning of entrepreneurs in China. Employing qualitative design, the study sampled 12 successful entrepreneurs and found three transformative processes, accumulating experience through carrying out entrepreneurial tasks, consolidating learning outcomes from experience and transferring and applying learning outcomes. The study concluded that entrepreneurial learning is an open, generative, iterative and self-reinforcing process.

Pittaway (2018) evaluated entrepreneurial learning from failure through a grief lens and found that entrepreneurs experience grief during business failure. Grief is a negative emotion that happens during failure time. In addition, the study found interaction learning and grief is very complex because grief recovery interferes with learning.

Beliaeva, Laskovaia, and Shirokova (2017) examined the link between entrepreneurial learning and students' entrepreneurial intention from the dataset of 84,452 of 24 countries using the Global University Entrepreneurial Spirit Students' Survey (GUESS) project. The study found a positive relationship between entrepreneurial learning and students' entrepreneurial intentions.

### 3.3.2 Entrepreneurial networking

Networking is part of human civilization and exists in all economic systems, but with increased technology the world becomes more connected. Networks have been studied within several different disciplines such as transaction economics, industrial marketing,



organization theory, small business management, entrepreneurial marketing, transnational entrepreneurship, ethnic entrepreneurship and strategic entrepreneurship.

Allen (2009) defines networking as the exchange of information and resources among individuals, groups or organizations whose common goals are mutually beneficial and create value for members. The ability to build a network or developing values depend on language skills, conscious and proactive process. Networking is more than going to local meetings and engaging in small talk or exchanging business cards. Really, it is a personal, trust building relationship, happen when other members perceive you as a potential or actual value- adding members to the network (Carsrud & Brännback, 2007). Therefore, the actual benefits accrued from networking depend on entrepreneur's network capability (Möller & Svahn, 2003). Chen and Tan, (2007) described network capability as the ability to identify, establish and maintain relationships with different players in the market. The more sharing of resources among network members the more benefits they feel to their individual business (Miller, Besser, & Malshe, 2007).

The study of networks is historically traced back to the 1930s in organization research, and contributed much from sociology, anthropology and role theory (Jack, 2008). In entrepreneurship theories, network approach was brought by Piore and Sable in their book of 1984 as they praised the industrial districts in northern Italy as an alternative economic model (Bjerke & Ramo, 2011). Literally, networks are configurations of nodes connected by links to represent a meaningful interaction. The links can grow by adding new members or decline by dropping some members. In social context, the nodes represent actors who

create links with others in the interaction. Networks have an impact on individuals and organization formation and growth (Jack, 2008).

Dubini and Aldrich (1991) classified two types of entrepreneurial networks namely personal network and extended network. Personal network is “an interrelation set of pairs of relationships that directly or indirectly include him/her” (Johannisson, 1987b:3). Personal networks are individually focused whereby an entrepreneur's personal ties are extended to friends who are not necessarily engaging in business. Personal network sometimes is faced with problems such as time consuming, opportunism, uncertainty and exit. It is important to extend personal networks in social context in order to establish trust, increase predictability and use voices that exist. Personal network is featured in propensity to network, network activity, network density and network intensity (Ostgaard & Birley, 1994). The study about personal network, therefore, helps understand the adaptive strategies the entrepreneurs use to enter into business and foster entrepreneurial orientation of new firm (Ripollés & Blesa, 2010).

Extended network is a collective in nature, happening due to interconnected personal networks. It involves the relation between owners, managers, and employees, which forms a formal structure of coordination and control among themselves. The shift from personal to extended networks is important for start-ups or family business (Dubini & Aldrich, 1991)

Networks can also be horizontal and vertical in nature (Casson & Della Giusta, 2007; O'Donnell, Gilmore, Cummins, & Carson, 2001). Vertical networks represent actors who are in the value addition system or distribution chain across suppliers to end users. Vertical network is a conduit for the flow of complementary resources. Horizontal networks represent members of the same industry or stage doing similar work such as actual or potential competitors. Although horizontal networks may contribute to economic performance, they are prone to collusion that promote monopoly power (Casson & Della Giusta, 2007).

Klyver (2005) categorized two types of entrepreneurs' social networks according to the nature of activities and decisions entrepreneurs undertake in their ventures namely divergent network and convergent network as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3. 5 Social Networks by Entrepreneurial process and characteristics

| <i>Entrepreneurial process</i> | <i>Characteristics</i>   | <i>Types of social network</i> |
|--------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| <i>Emergence stage</i>         | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Actively stage of starting business</li> <li>2. Final decision whether to start a business or not</li> <li>3. Alignment stage of career fit and career ambition</li> <li>4. Integrating and exploiting existing direction</li> <li>5. Bootstrapping</li> </ol>   | Convergent network             |
| <i>Young business stage</i>    | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. A newly established business ranging from 3 months to 42 months</li> <li>2. Developing a sustainable financial and market</li> <li>3. Establishing relationship with new business partners, customers and suppliers</li> <li>4. Need to establish legitimacy to potential business partners</li> </ol> | Divergent network              |
| <i>Operating stage</i>         | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2 A business run older than 42 months</li> <li>3 Maintaining existing business operations and develop new one in order to survive</li> <li>4 Expand new market and new market segment</li> <li>5 Organization and administrative procedures well established</li> </ol>                                   | Divergent network              |

Source: Klyver (2005)

Divergent networks consist of various members whose activities and decisions focus on finding new customers or suppliers, getting information about new market segments as well as creating new ideas or expanding existing ideas. Divergent networks have many structural holes which give heterogeneous ideas and non-overlapping resources important for entrepreneurial success (M. Adams, Makramalla, & Miron, 2018). In principle, scholars have acknowledged the significant contribution of structure holes in resource acquisitions, especially at start up phases (Aarstad, 2012; Batjargal, Hitt, Texas, Jiao, & Webb, 2013; Rost, 2011; Sullivan & Ford, 2014; Cowan & Jonard, 2009).

Conversely, convergent networks represent activities or decisions of members focused on integration. The members usually are in small, close and dense networks. The activities and decisions including resolving the final decision for starting business or making the existing business alive. Social networks play an important role in business activities in emerging economies than developed economies (Danis, De Clercq, & Petricevic, 2011), because of the uncertain environment (Matanda & Freeman, 2009).

Casson and Della Giusta (2007) categorize two types of network configurations, web and hub. Web network configuration happens in unstructured networks, where every member is directly connected to every other member in a symmetrical relationship. Hub network configuration represents a point whereby large numbers of connections converge. That is, the central person/individual is directly linked to everyone else and other members are only indirectly linked through the centre. Thus, hub configuration manifests in an

asymmetrical relationship of influence or authority, from low status to higher status at the centre.

Entrepreneurial networking is sometimes referred to as a strategic networking particularly when used to achieve a firm success (Miller et al., 2007) or network capabilities when a firm develops and utilizes inter-organizational relationships (Äyväri & Jyrämä, 2007; Walter, Auer, & Ritter, 2006). Hite (2005, p 113) describes entrepreneurial networking as ‘ability to provide conduits, bridges and pathways to external resources and opportunities’ Entrepreneurial networking also is viewed as borderless from business or international perspective and is limited/ boundary from social perspective (Skriver, 2013).

The philosophy behind entrepreneurial networking is that, entrepreneurship does not take place in vacuum, it takes places within social cultural structures and interaction (Stam, Arzlanian, & Elfring, 2013) whereby entrepreneurs can leverage its potentials in term of assistance and goodwill for starting and growing the business (Urban, 2011). However, young entrepreneurs have small networks and use less time networking in the early stage than the latter stages (Greve, 1995). Scholars of entrepreneurial networking stressed the argument that individuals are important actors in entrepreneurship since they are the one who create and manage relationship, exchange contacts and reactivating the former relationship in the market for the starting and developing the business venture (Johannisson, 1995; Äyväri & Jyrämä, 2007). Entrepreneurial networks therefore contribute to new venture creation (Carolis, Litzky, & Eddleston, 2009), survival of new firm (Littunen, 2000) and growth of the ventures (Stuart & Sorenson, 2007) as they are entrance ticket to external resources (Lechner & Dowling, 2003). Comparatively,

networking becomes more critical at the start-up phase than other phases (Möller & Svahn, 2003).

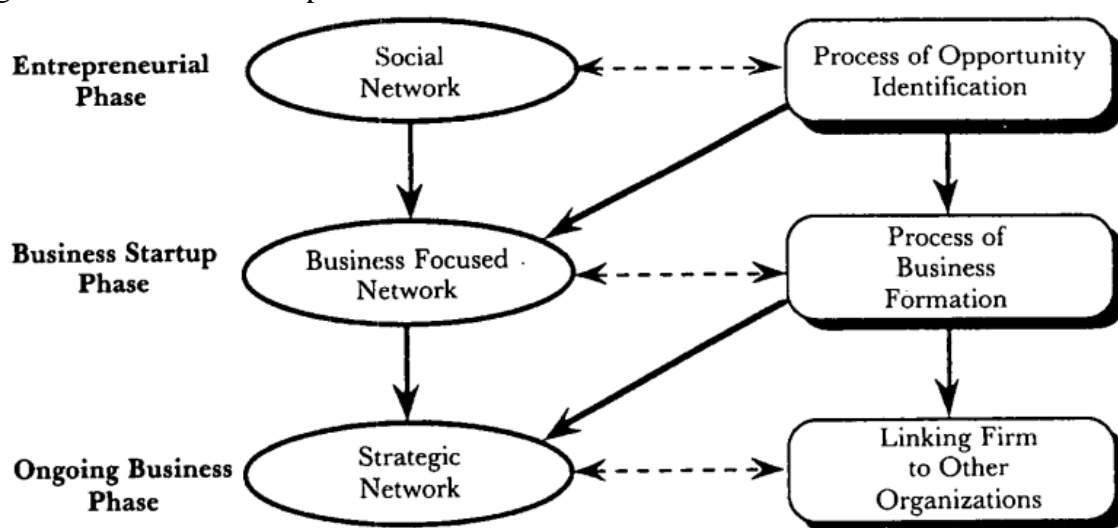
Entrepreneurial networking is an important aspect in youth entrepreneurship particularly in the start-up stage as it allows connecting with different stakeholders including business partners, suppliers, family members, customers, employees, bankers, mentors and others. Entrepreneurial networking manifests through social and professional ties (Omar et al., 2017). Indeed, multiple networking is characterized by unique qualities, diverse and performing different role to the development of entrepreneurial venture (Martinez & Aldrich, 2011a). Working in networks, entrepreneurs have to have more people skills than ever before; they need to learn to interact effectively with their fellow entrepreneurs other in the same network or with other networks (Dana, 2007). For this case, the role of negotiation skills for successful deals in the network is much worthwhile.

Since entrepreneurial networking is a strategic action (Bat Batjargal, 2006), persuasion and communication are also important components of networking. Johannisson (1987) maintained that networking is about establishing a set of interrelated dyadic ties among actors, where the relationship outcome of one actor depends on outcome of others. Thus, entrepreneurs must use communication skills to communicate with diverse stakeholders, create and manage the networks (Lans, Verstegen, & Mulder, 2011). Higher mastery of communication helps nascent entrepreneurs in resource acquisition and overcoming liability of newness in business (Ulvenblad et al., 2013) and influencing financial performance (Baron & Markman, 2003; Baron & Tang, 2009). Lans, Blok, and Gulikers

(2015) accentuate the need for the social competence of young entrepreneurs in order to extend their ties to different actors, which are important to their venture. Social competence incorporates social perception, impression management, expressiveness and social adaptability (Baron & Markman, 2003). Thus, networking becomes a strategic tool for business integration among actors (Plotnikov & Vertakova, 2015).

Butler and Hansen (1991) modeled the entrepreneurial network evolution to describe the link of network and venture development process. At the entrepreneurial phase, social networks play a role for opportunity identification, while at business start-up, business networks are helpful for the process of business formation and take advantage of opportunities. At the organization level, the network becomes more strategic for linking with other organizations, see Figure 3.3.

Figure 3. 3 Model of entrepreneurial network evolution



Source: Butler and Hansen (1991)

When entrepreneurs attempt to network with others, there are two fundamental questions to consider: “Who networks?” and “Networking with whom?” The first question is about the actor who initiates the networks, can be an individual or an organization. The second question is about the actor who receives the proposed ties; can be interpersonal or intergovernmental ties. Studies about entrepreneurial networks combine both social and business network approaches. Social approach focuses on interpersonal relationship while business approach is on inter-organizational interaction. Meanwhile Johannisson (1995) have contrasted network characteristics using objective and subjective approaches as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3. 6 Network characteristics by objective and subjective approaches

| Network characteristics | Objective approach       | Subjective approach |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Basic function          | Reduce uncertainty       | Manage ambiguity    |
| Node unit               | The organization         | The individual      |
| Exchange logic          | Pro-action/reaction      | Inter-action        |
| Generic contents        | Information/resources    | Images/confirmation |
| Tie composition         | Multiple roles           | Multidimensional    |
| Control                 | A personal trust         | Personal trust      |
| Organization boundary   | Defense line             | Perforated coat     |
| Network boundaries      | Strategically controlled | Fluid               |

Source: Johannisson (1995)

Entrepreneurial networking is an important factor in differentiating a successful entrepreneur from an unsuccessful one. It is not enough to be a member of a network, but the quality and vitality of the network is significant (Carsrud & Brännback, 2007). Successful entrepreneurs use their network to build business and are committed to the



success of the people in their network, are active listeners, and approve every contact with an open mind (Allen, 2009). Entrepreneurship is not only about know-how- knowledge but also knowing who – networking, is an incredible phenomenon. Successfully, most likely entrepreneurs belong to many networks that have been chosen purposely. Networking therefore is source for generating and developing ideas, information, motivations, advice and legitimacy (Potter et al., 2014; Semrau & Werner, 2014), learning (Lefebvre, Radu Lefebvre, & Simon, 2015; Xiao, Marino, & Zhuang, 2010) and horizontal knowledge relationship (Theodorakopoulos & Figueira, 2012). It also provides role models for potential entrepreneurs and offers general and professional encouragement for entrepreneurial endeavour and a good environment for entrepreneurial activities (Backman & Karlsson, 2016). Entrepreneurial networking plays a protagonist role in the establishment of entrepreneurial ventures (Nicolaou & Birley, 2003) and the success of nascent entrepreneurs (Quan, 2012).

The strength of entrepreneurs lies in the diversity and reach of the network (Carsrud & Brännback, 2007). Entrepreneurial network, therefore, is an “opportunity set” that can be used to gather both tangible and intangible resources for launching new ventures (Adams, Makramalla, & Miron, 2018; Sullivan & Ford, 2014; Premaratne, 2008). The denser the network is, the larger the stimuli for entrepreneurial activities, because the denser network provides vast information and knowledge to potential entrepreneurs; facilitates integration and acquisition of multi-disciplinary knowledge from different people and speeds up decision making that is needed to cope with uncertainty. In nutshell, a denser network redresses asymmetry of information and knowledge to entrepreneurs (Backman & Karlsson, 2016).

Entrepreneurial networks help individuals and firms to go beyond their country borders and overcome the liabilities of foreignness. Entrepreneurial networking is a source of relationship for resources and an instrument for obtaining other resources (Skrifter, 2013; Slotte-Kock & Coviello, 2010). Farooq et al.,(2018) identified four benefits of networks to entrepreneurs namely; 1) emotional support in the form of encouragement, empathy, trust and caring (Casson & Della Giusta, 2007), 2) instrumental or tangible support in the form of finance, technology, machinery, goods and services (Edelman, Manolova, Shirokova, & Tsukanova, 2016; Powell & Eddleston, 2013), 3) informational support in the form of advice, guidance, suggestion or useful information and 4) companionship or social support meaning connection with others or giving someone sense of belonging. Amodu and Ama (2016) concluded that entrepreneurial networking increases the propensity of risk taking to entrepreneurs because of the different supports. Entrepreneurial networking, therefore, acts as a perseverance strategy, what Johannisson, (1987b) called it “social bricolage” that enables entrepreneurs to face challenges such as scarcity of resources, uncertainty and ambiguity (Lamine, Mian, & Fayolle, 2014).

Entrepreneurial networking can provide a significant source of social capital, what Casson and Della Giusta (2007) called it ‘invisible infrastructure’ and overcome venture liability of newness (Cooper, Folta and Woo, 1995), which, in turn contributes to an individual or venture’s likelihood of success. Social capital is an information channel (Coleman, 1988), providing a pool of goodwill (Anderson, Park, & Jack, 2007). Social capital is both a product of entrepreneurial networks and an enabler of the continued development of the networks, facilitating more access to information, strengthening network ties by bonding

the parties in the network. Social capital, therefore, is a gateway of connection to mentors, customers and partners or contracting opportunities (Smith & Lohrke, 2008).

Networking involves web contacts for information, support and assistance. It is the responsibility of young people in building, cultivating and sustaining trustful relationships with diverse stakeholders both inside and outside the business and being able to articulate vision. Young people must continually develop both exchange relationship structure and quality in an effort to obtain the resources necessary to launch and sustain a new venture (Smith & Lohrke, 2008). Entrepreneurial networks are deepened through strengthening of the existing ties, from simple to complex ties or broadened through the development of the new network contact, shifting the level from lower level to higher level of managerial position and status (Dodd, Anderson, & Jack, 2015).

However, youth are not good at entrepreneurial networking which limits their social capital (Green, 2013) due to lack of experience in entrepreneurship, labour market and lack of resources (Potter et al., 2014). They are not aware of expert advice and assistance (Green, 2013). Young entrepreneurs face challenges in extending and sustaining relationships. They need to be trustful and have power in order to be good players in the interaction with a number of stakeholders who are essential to venture growth (Premaratne, 2008). Hayter (2013) argues that entrepreneurs vary widely in utilizing resources deriving from their entrepreneurial networks. Youth can leverage networks for resource acquisition through developing competent teams that would interact effectively since opportunity is an interaction outcome with others (Anderson & Jack, 2002).

Entrepreneurial networking starts from building and managing a team that would help during the initial, launching, and growing stages of a venture. In team building, the entrepreneurs should understand the composition of the team and roles of each member in the network. A good team is the one whose members have diverse knowledge, skills and experience that would make them undertake different tasks. To be successful, a team must have shared vision, value, and motivation regarding their endeavours, which will help in team cohesion and continuity. Even though at the beginning founding entrepreneurs undertake many roles to ensure the venture standing, they are obliged to delegate roles to other members or recruit others to accomplish the tasks. However, entrepreneurs have to be aware of team dynamics which require more networking skills to manage as their ventures grow (Blundel & Lockett, 2011b). This is possible when entrepreneurs build absorptive capacity that would enable them to leverage their relationship to acquire more resources (Martinez & Aldrich, 2011a).

Neergaard (2005) identifies six entrepreneurial networking activities played by a founding team member. These are building a new venture team, raising capital, recruitment, finding customers/outlets, obtaining access to relevant advice/knowledge, and lastly establishing network contacts. The team performance determines the success of the venture. Elfring & Hulsink (2007) indicates the role of entrepreneurs in networking is to add, upgrade, and drop ties depending on the needs and development of business.

Entrepreneurial leaders not only create a team, but they are responsible to build and make use of a much broader network around the venture. Network begins with entrepreneurs' personal contacts and then involves other venture members. Sole entrepreneurs must

convert the pre-organization networks or personal networks into emerging ventures; they must use their personal network as an asset for their ventures. In addition, they have to create new ties, developing existing ties as well as reviewing and pruning existing ties (Blundel & Lockett, 2011b).

Entrepreneurial networking is essential for enabling young people in building teamwork. Interestingly, research underscores the need for and importance of team building and teamwork in the successful creation of a new business venture and the development of new innovative practices (Lans, Verstegen, & Mulder, 2011). Entrepreneurs use networks to address their inadequacy in institutional structure (Hoyos-ruperto, Romaguera, Carlsson, & Lyytinen, 2013). The type of networks entrepreneurs embedded with have influences on their perception of opportunities (Arenius & Clercq, 2005).

Crowley, McAdam, Cunningham, and Hilliard (2018) identified five networking roles critical to firm position and identity; promoting members of networks to support others, platform for cooperation and learning from experienced peers. However, other members perceive the network as somewhat beneficial but risky because of increased competition and leakage of information and they do not actively participate in the network because of the belief that there is limited benefit.

Äyväri and Jyrämä (2007) differentiated the skills set needed in establishing and maintaining an entrepreneurial network. The skills of establishing a network include visioning and contact seeking ability, ability of identifying the needs of one's own firm, and informing other actors about those needs, ability to utilize other's contacts to identify potential new partners. In relation to maintaining a network, the entrepreneurs must have social skills and social flexibility, ability to share knowledge and utilize others' knowledge, ability to manage time and nurture relationships, coordination capability as well as customer-oriented product modification and tailoring ability.

There are different categorizations and measurements of entrepreneurial networking. Hoang & Antoncic (2003) differentiated three important parts of networking namely the content of the relationship, the governance and structure of the relationship, which subsequently determined entrepreneurial outcomes.

The content of relationships is the way in which individuals or firms get access to different types of resources (Bembom & Schwens, 2018). The most notable resources are information and advice which are more critical for start-up than the existing grown business. In addition, through this gateway, the actors get emotional support as well as drive to their involvement and engagement in entrepreneurial activity and become a signal for justifying reputation as entrepreneurs.

The governance of relationships is the second part of the network which is defined as the mechanism for resource exchange (Bembom & Schwens, 2018), enabling the network to sustain through trust among actors resulting in the quality of resource flow. Literature shows that trust is an indispensable aspect of network, it enables both actors to assume that each party take some actions that are predictable and mutually acceptable (Sabatini, Modena, & Tortia, 2014; Hans-hermann & Friederike, 2004; Hoang & Antoncic, 2003) and it is sources of competitive advantage (Sarbah & Xiao, 2013). It is an individual's willingness to be vulnerable to another party and the expectation that an exchange actor will not behave opportunistically even when such behaviours cannot be detected (Sarbah & Xiao, 2013; Hans-hermann & Friederike, 2004).

Bergh, Thorgren, and Wincent (2011) described three types of trust building, namely commitment trust based on dialogue, rules and goal setting; companion trust based on interaction, socialization and communication; and lastly competence trust focused on experience sharing, time and feedback. It denotes the solidarity of the link and permanence of ties in the network (Dubini & Aldrich, 1991; Smith & Lohrke, 2008; Martinez & Aldrich, 2011a). . In their book of Blue Ocean Strategy, Kim and Mauborne (2015) assert that trust is an intangible capital which enhances confidence of an individual's intentions and actions. Nevertheless, trust is fragile in nature; it is easier to breach than to build trust as it depends on willingness among people in dyadic relations to sacrifice their short-run, individual self-interests for the realization of joint goals or longer-term objectives (Sarbah & Xiao, 2013).

The third aspect of networking is the structure or pattern emerging in relationships. It refers to the amount and diversity of resource exchange (Bembom & Schwens, 2018). The structure exists in the form of direct or indirect ties between actors. The network structure not only determines network size but also impacts on access to resources, inward flow of information and ideas, and then facilitates organization emerging (Semrau & Werner, 2014; Tornikoski & Newbert, 2007; Greve, 1995). Network structure is dynamic in nature in order to accommodate emergent changes such as increasing access to market or resources, knowledge and skills or changing approach to manage the network (Batjargal, 2014; Soetanto, Huang, & Jack, 2018). Batjargal (2014) argued that networking skills determine network dynamics, which later on influence new venture development. Dana (2007) furthermore analyzed four key components of entrepreneurial networking.

- a) *Actors* - individual actors within the network, who have diverse characteristics in terms of their age, gender, family affiliation, education, nationality and ethnicity (Martinez & Aldrich, 2011).
- b) *Link* - relationship between individuals within the network. The link of individuals within a network varies according to formality (informal or formal), intensity (frequency of interaction), trust (expectation among members), multiplicity (degree of relations and role linking members), and motive behind the network and ties (strong and weak ties).

Entrepreneurship scholars differentiate between strong tie and weak ties (Granovetter, 1973; Kozan & Akdeniz, 2014) and dynamic nature (Elfring & Hulsink, 2018; Elfring & Hulsink, 2007; Elfring & Hulsink, 2019; Engel, Kaandorp, & Elfring, 2017). Strong tie is bonding in nature associated with family, friends or close work colleagues resulting to dense network, while strong tie or sometimes referred to as bridging tie connecting



individuals outside cliques, stimulate venture growth (Sharafizad & Coetzer, 2016; Martinez & Aldrich, 2011a; Jack, 2005; Kozan and Akdeniz, 2014). However, strong ties are constrained with over-embeddedness (Uzzi, 1996), susceptible to exogenous shocks and blind to new development as well as diverse perspectives among members (Johannisson, 2000; M. Adams et al., 2018; Kozan and Akdeniz, 2014). Weak ties are associated with less interaction, weak socio-emotional bonds and short term duration of relationship (Sullivan & Ford, 2014; Jack, 2005), important for growth of family firms (Dodd, Anderson, and Jack (2015; Jenssen & Koenig, 2002).

c) *Flows*- the exchange of individuals within the network. Flow within the network can be associated with affect, power, information and goods sharing within the network.

d) *Mechanism*- modes of interaction between the individuals within the network. Individuals may interact using different modes such as using telephone, social media or face-to face meeting.

Studies on entrepreneurial networks are diverse from evolution of the network, structure, and development process to network management (Möller & Svahn, 2003). Mostly studies on entrepreneurial networking focused at firm level, which link networking with performance (Abbas, Raza, Nurunnabi, Minai, & Bano, 2019; Lin & Lin, 2016), innovation (Baker, Grinstein, & Harmancioglu, 2016; Ostendorf, Mouzas, & Chakrabarti, 2014; Teirlinck & Spithoven, 2013; Huggins, 2010), internationalization (Bembom & Schwens, 2018; Oparaocha, 2015; Sullivan Mort & Weerawardena, 2006; Vasilchenko & Morrish, 2011), growth (Martins, 2016); resource acquisition (Sullivan & Ford, 2014), firm competitive strategy (Lechner & Dowling, 2013; Ostgaard & Birley, 1994),

entrepreneurial intention (Farooq et al., 2018), opportunity (Zheng, Ahsan, & DeNoble, 2019), and small firm marketing (O'Donnell, 2014). Nevertheless some studies indicate that opportunity cost and governance problems in the network undermine performance of firms or individuals (Rauch, Rosenbusch, Unger, & Frese, 2016; Jack, 2010; Watson, 2007).

Robson and Bennett (2014) measured the impact of the relationship of business advice and external collaboration on business performance and found strong positive relationships among those variables. The business advice and collaboration with business friends, relatives, lawyers, suppliers and custom focused on business strategy and staff recruitment. However, there was little evidence of statistically significant relationships between government-backed providers of business advice such as business relationships and small and medium enterprise (SMEs) performance.

Albourini, Ahmad, Abuhashesh, and Nusairat (2020) investigated the effect of networking behaviour on the success of entrepreneurial start-ups in Jordan. The study used quantitative design with focus on 162 start-ups companies using regression analysis. The study found that the better entrepreneurs networking, the more influence on the success of their start-ups. Similarly, Song, Min, Lee, & Seo (2017) found that network reliance positively influences opportunity recognition.

Mwinuka (2012) examined the role of networking in internationalization of SMEs in Tanzania by employing both quantitative and qualitative research methods and interviewed 51 SMEs dealing with export and import business. The results show the big role of networking in internationalization of SMEs is to increase exports of products and knowledge of business and market information. Nevertheless, most SMEs have limited networks for international trade opportunities. However, the study applied only descriptive analysis to examine complex issues of networking and internationalization at firm level.

Using mixed methods with social capital and strategic network theory, Miller et al., (2007) examined the influence of networking to small business success in the United States of America (USA). The study sampled 377 business owners and found that entrepreneurial networking promotes shared vision and resource sharing among members, thereby promoting business success and growth. Since this study was carried out in the USA in a more favourable business environment for supporting entrepreneurs and small business, the need for testing the influence of entrepreneurial networking on Youth entrepreneurship under developing economic context is paramount.

Vannoni (2019) investigated the impact of the formal business network on SMEs performance in Italy. Although findings of the study revealed no correlation between network and positive profitability, there was a positive relationship between networking and value added and export. Martins (2016) examined the network usage and growth of firms as moderated by entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in Spain. Using structural equation of modelling (SEM), analyzed the impact of network to the growth of 121 manufacturing

firms. The results show the importance of network and EO on the growth by showing positive effects of network usage on firm development. However, these research works focused on organization networking in Europe rather than individual networking, which might have different outcomes.

Using data from Global Entrepreneurship Monitor of 35 countries with a sample of 311, 720, Klyver and Grant (2010), examined the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and entrepreneurial participation. From a gender perspective the major question of the study was: how are individuals more likely acquainted with an entrepreneur networking? The study found that entrepreneurial networking increases the likelihood of entrepreneurial participation, and there was no significant difference between male and female. This implies that having many female role models and connecting them with their female counterparts enhances female's participation in entrepreneurship. Likewise, other researchers found that networks increase transition to entrepreneurs (Kacperczyk, 2012; De Clercq & Arenius, 2006) and reduce barriers for the establishment of enterprises in Germany (Konrad, 2013).

Semrau and Werner (2014) analyzed the effect of network size and relationship quality on access to start-up resources particularly financial resources, information/knowledge and additional contacts. The study sampled 379 nascent entrepreneurs in Germany by employing a quantitative approach in analysing the problem. Findings of the study found that there was a positive relationship between network size and relationship quality on access to start up resources. However, the study observed a curvilinear relationship

between networks and resource acquisition, meaning the more extending network size and relationship quality the diminishing resource return.

Farooq et al. (2018) examined the influence of support of social networks on entrepreneurial intention of fresh business graduates with an average of 22 years in Malaysia. Using quantitative approach and partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) with 381 samples, the study found the positive influence of social network on entrepreneurial intention, which was mediated by attitude towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control.

Quan (2012) examined the effects of social networks on entrepreneurial intentions in the USA. The study was quantitative in nature applying theory of planned behaviour with 2,273 respondents of different ages ranging from 18 years to above 50 years. Findings show strong influence of social networks on entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, Jabeen Zafar, Yasin, and Ijaz (2012) found that networking increases the entrepreneurial intention of the entrepreneurs in Pakistan. Since these studies focused on intention that does not guarantee action, the findings might be different from this study that would focus on the practices.

Alistair, Anderson, Dodd, and Jack (2010) investigated networking practices on entrepreneurial growth process using qualitative longitudinal approach by interviewing two entrepreneurs for three times in different three years (1991, 2000/2001 and

2003/2004). The study applied Pierre Bourdieu's idea of habitus, in order to detect the connection of people as a shared way of doing and being. Therefore, the study revealed that entrepreneurial growth is co-created through five spans of strategic networking practices namely, liberating, inspiring, visioning, articulating and implementing. In order to undergo the liberating phase, entrepreneurs must delegate day-to-day- responsibilities to trusted individuals in order to network with others. After the liberating phase, entrepreneurs seek inspiration in terms of conversation to explore latent future with external actors. Entrepreneurs embed the inspiration into specific visions shared with internal actors and become the strategic direction of the business. Once after sharing the vision, the entrepreneurs articulate the products and services that will move forwards for the implementation. The study could use mixed methods to give a more comprehensive picture of the problem.

Martinez and Aldrich (2011) reviewed the effect of network cohesion and diversity on three entrepreneurial activities of opportunity development, technological and organization creation, and exchange. The findings show strong ties and diversity ties had different outcomes at the opportunity stage. The strong ties were much unfavourable for innovation compared to diversity ties, which increase both self-efficacy and innovation. The review revealed that at the technology and organization creation phase, entrepreneurial teams become more homogenous which increase commitment. However, the third stage of exchange entrepreneurs attempt to balance the weak and strong ties in order to get more access to resources and customers. The scholars observed an increased impact of diversity ties in the later stage of the venture's life cycle. However, the results from the review were not backed up by empirical evidence to support the claim.

Asad, Sharif, and Alekam (2016) examined the moderating effect of entrepreneurial networking on the relationship between access to finance and performance of SMEs in Punjab, Pakistan. The study adopted a survey method to collect data from 384 respondents and structural equation modelling for data analysis using resource-based theory. The study found that the relationship between access to finance and performance of SMEs positively moderated by entrepreneurial networking. The moderation interaction of the value of  $R^2$  increased from 36.4 percent to 47.1percent.

Jenssen and Koenig (2002) examined the impact of network ties on access to resources and success of business start-ups. The study used the social network approach, ego centred perspective (use of entrepreneur's point of view) and classified resources into three types namely information, motivation and material/finance. The study used a combination of emails and telephone techniques to collect data from 100 entrepreneurs in Norway. The study hypothesized whether an entrepreneur's weak ties give more information resources than the strong ties do, or the entrepreneur's strong ties give access to motivation and finance resources than weak ties do. The findings show that strong ties are more gateway for information than that of weak ties on access to finance.

Kozan and Akdeniz (2014) tested whether strong rather weak ties influencing small business growth particularly on production expansion and knowledge acquisition in Turkey. The study was quantitative in nature using regression analysis. Conveniently the study sampled 92 business owners. Findings show that strong ties positively influenced both types of growth, but weak ties were not effective to the growth of small business.

However, the use of mixed methods would address the flaw of the small sample size of this study and provide a better analysis of the problem.

Using a qualitative approach, Jia and Phillips (2014) explored the efficacy of networking on entrepreneurs' financial mobilization in North West England, whereby eight entrepreneurs were interviewed on the content, governance and structure of networks as proposed by Hoang and Antoncic (2003). The study found that entrepreneurs depended on their networks in raising finance from investors. However, the study did not explain the extent of dependence of entrepreneurial networks on raising finance to entrepreneurs. Likewise, Sharafizad and Coetzer (2016) conducted a qualitative study on networking interactions of 28 women small business owners in Australia using social network theory. The study found that business and personal needs influence frequency of interaction and strength of ties had an impact on member's networking. Considering the small sample size of the respondents and the context of developed economies, it is difficult to generalize such findings in developing economies.

Dawa and Namatovu (2015) examined the influence of networking on the growth aspirations of women entrepreneurs in Uganda. Using social network theory, the study sampled 540 women entrepreneurs in five regions through multistage stratified sampling. Correlation and logistic regression analysis techniques were used to test the relationship of networks and growth aspirations of women entrepreneurs. Although findings show strong correlation of networks and growth aspirations, the model was weakly attributed by some indicators such as social support within the network, discussion of business ideas with



members and equality of status within the network as they were not in line with growth objectives of the members. However, this study was gender biased only to women entrepreneurs and was a quantitative approach in nature, which limited broader understanding of the problem.

Omar (2015) conducted a qualitative study on the dynamic role of strong and weak ties of Muslim female entrepreneurs in Malaysia. The study therefore explored the way the two ties are used during the crisis “tipping point” and their influence on the performance of the small business. The study used a critical incident interview technique by interviewing four owner managers. The study affirmed the importance of the dynamic role of strong and weak ties during the tipping point.

### 3.3.3 Entrepreneurial mindset

Entrepreneurial mindset (EMS) is an important construct of measuring youth entrepreneurship, and it is gaining more popularity in entrepreneurship (Lynch, Kamovich, Andersson, & Steinert, 2015; Neneh, 2012; Ireland, Hitt, & Sirmon, 2003). Studying mindset helps understand the way youth entrepreneurs behave, perceive and value entrepreneurship (Bosman & Fernhaber, 2018). Universities and training institutions are under pressure to develop curriculum that will develop EMS of the graduates (de Figueiredo-Nery & Figueiredo, 2008; Laalo & Heinonen, 2016; Nadelson et al., 2018; Ridley, Davis, & Korovyakovskaya, 2017; Rekha et al., 2014; Pollard and Wilson, 2013). Mohapeloa (2017: 6) claims, “The development of an EMS is a process that requires diverse activities and interventions that will stimulate and influence thinking processes

whilst imparting skills and knowledge at the same time”. The scholars are more positive about EMS on the performance of business. Naumann (2017: 2) argues, “If an EMS can be learned and developed, it could positively impact companies’ survival”.

In entrepreneurship context, positive mindset easily enables to start new business as opposite to negative mindset (Isah and Garba, 2015), and thereby becomes a gateway for the expansion and growth of the business, because an individual with EMS is ready for continuous learning, self-education, and embracing changes (Kurczewska et al., 2018). EMS is able to cope with rapid, dynamic and uncertain business environments (Naumann, 2017; Shepherd, Patzelt, & Haynie, 2010). EMS is not only significant to entrepreneurs, but also to CEOs, managers, and employees (Haynie, Shepherd, Mosakowski, & Earley, 2010).

According to Pollard and Wilson (2014), EMS is used interchangeably with terms such as entrepreneurial perspective (Kuratko, 2005), entrepreneurial personal capabilities (Laukkanen, 2000), entrepreneurial can-do attitude (European Commission, 2013), entrepreneurial cognition (Busenitz & Arthurs, 2007). EMS is differentiated with managerial mindset and entrepreneurial orientation, the former mostly deals with creating order and efficiency through controlling, evaluating and administrative policies while the latter based on the collective identity of firm that fosters innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking among individuals in the firm (Njeru, 2012).

Historically, the concept of mindset was conceptualized by Würzburg School of psychological research founded by Oswald Külpe in the end of the 19th century. The Würzburg School pioneered the experimental study of human motivation and mental functioning and found that most human thinking happens without image and named this new category of human thinking “Bewusstseinslage,” meaning “state of mind,” or “mindset” (“Einstellung”). It is understood to be an automated process of stimuli, responding to a certain environment (Mathisen & Arnulf, 2014).

The study of mindset, therefore, got attention not only in entrepreneurship but also in other fields such as cognitive and social psychology, business, and sociology. Scholars have underscored the importance of mindset on shaping individual’s behaviour and learning (Rae & Melton, 2016), motivation (Gollwitzer & Bayer, 1999), development of attitude (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987), decision process (Henderson, de Liver, & Gollwitzer, 2008), self-efficacy (Pollack, Burnette, & Hoyt, 2012), opportunity recognition (Smith, Mitchell, & Mitchell, 2008) and on the illusion of control (Gollwitzer & Kinney, 1989; Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1955). In addition, mindset is seen as a malleable strategy for interacting with the environment (Gollwitzer, 1990; Mathisen & Arnulf, 2014).

There is a debate among scholars as to whether mindset is an essential or cognitive aspect. The essential perspective argues that mindset is innate to entrepreneurs (personal traits) that tend to differentiate them from non-entrepreneurs and that could not be taught because of a fixed mental attitude (Njeru, 2012). The cognitive perspective asserts, mindset can be induced through entrepreneurship education. The cognitive perspective has gotten more

applause, shifting mindset from an individual innate to acquisition of cognitive habit of mind (Pollard & Wilson, 2014). EMS is a deeper cognitive phenomenon than intent (Nabi et al., 2016), happening due to transformative learning experience and enabling an individual to shift from a more novice mindset to a more expert mindset (Kurczewska et al., 2018).

Naumann, (2017) describes cognitive tuning as a component of EMS, which enables individuals to change over time depending on the activity. In relation to such change, EMS can be deliberative (elaborative) or implemental (Goiwitz, Heckhausen, & Steller, 1990). Deliberative mindset based on motivation which is open minded while implemental mindset based on volition, avoid alternative possibilities and negative thoughts. (Armor & Taylor, 2003). Currently, EMS is ingrained well in the entrepreneurial cognition, where cognitive and metacognitive skill models used to conceptualize it, Table 3.5 presents cognitive definitions of entrepreneurial mindset.

Table 3. 7 Cognitive based definitions of entrepreneurial mindset.

| #  | Authors                        | Definitions   |
|----|--------------------------------|---|
| 1  | McGrath and MacMillan (2000))  | It is a way of thinking, created by uncertainty that allows a person to rapidly identify and adaptively exploit an entrepreneurial opportunity.                                 |
| 2  | (Barney & Alvarez, 2002)       | It is a cognitive ability that utilizes heuristic to impart meaning to an ambiguous and fragmented situation.   |
| 3  | Ireland, Hitt, & Sirmon (2003) | It is the way of thinking about business that focuses on the benefits of uncertainty.   |
| 4  | Haynie & Shepherd, (2007)      | It is the ability to adapt thinking processes to a changing context and task demands.   |
| 5  | Senges (2007)                  | the innovative and energetic pursuit of opportunities and facilitates action aimed at exploiting these opportunities  |
| 6  | Dhliwayo & Vuuren (2007)       | It is a way of thinking and acting about business and its opportunities that aim at maximizing the benefits associated with uncertainty.  |
| 7  | Shepherd et al., (2010)        | It is the ability and willingness of individuals to rapidly sense, act, and mobilize in response to judgemental decisions under uncertainty about possible opportunity gain.    |
| 8  | Baron (2014)                   | It is about thinking, reasoning, making decisions, planning and setting goals in a relatively unique way.   |
| 9  | Davis & Hall, (2015)           | It is a constellation of motives, skills and thought process that distinguish entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs.   |
| 10 | McMullen & Kier (2016)         | It is the ability to identify and exploit opportunities without regarding the resources currently under control and only working when entrepreneurs experience promotion focus. |
| 11 | Naumann (2017)                 | It is the way of adaptable thinking and decision making in a complex, uncertain and dynamic environment.  |

Because of different naming and conceptualization, EMS is measured in different levels and consists of different characteristics. There are scholars who use EMS at individual level (Neneh, Ngeek Brownhilder Neneh, & Neneh, 2012), firm level (Ruhara & Kayitana, 2018; Njeru, 2012) and national/regional level (Smith et al., 2009). In addition, there is a broad conceptualization of EMS and relate with intention (Benchrif, Asli, & Zerrad, 2017; Sinclair, 2012), self-efficacy (Borchers & Park, 2010; Pfeifer, Šarlija, & Zekić Sušac

(2016). However, this study measured EMS at individual level and determined its effects on youth entrepreneurship.

McGrath and MacMillan (2000) explained five common characteristics of EMS, 1) The passionate seeking of new opportunities means individuals must embrace alertness which enables the readiness to grasp opportunities when they arise. 2) The enormously disciplined pursuit of opportunities i.e. goes a step beyond alertness to involve actual action. 3) The pursuit of only the best opportunities instead of chasing after every option, meaning focus on the determination of boundaries. 4) The focus of adaptive execution i.e. ability to perform and adjust to occurring change and 5) The engagement of energies of everyone in one's domain i.e. Engage individual relationships to garner resources, knowledge skills and abilities of respective individuals around.

Rekha, Ramesh, and Jaya Bharathi (2014) categorized entrepreneurship mindset as a set of four qualities namely risk-taking ability; learning from the mistake and success; a key in search of innovative ideas and being optimistic and motivated. Ireland et al., (2003) identified components of EMS as recognition of entrepreneurial opportunities, entrepreneurial alertness, real option logic, entrepreneurial framework and an opportunity register. Literature indicates that it is through EMS i.e. perception which differentiate entrepreneurs from others in seeing future risks and opportunities differently (Douglas, 2009), liberating them from flawed preconceptions and being able to detect and exploit lucrative opportunities (McMullen & Kier, 2016).

Referring to Kern Entrepreneurial Engineering Network, Li, Harichandran, and Nocitogobel (2018) related entrepreneurial mindsets with three scales (3Cs) namely curiosity, connection and creation of value. *Curiosity*—demonstrates perpetual inquisitiveness about the change of world and exploring appropriate solutions. It is about asking the “why” question first and followed by the “what” question, which enables us to unearth the underlying complex causes and issues and detect values driving the current trend. *Connection* – relates with a tendency of gaining insight of different sources of information in order to assess and manage risks; and *creation of value* – persists through and learning from the failure and identifying unexpected opportunities to create extraordinary values.

Putta (2014) identifies characteristics of entrepreneurial mindset include motivation, determination, passion, the insane hunger to succeed, flexibility, recognize opportunities and go after them, plan ahead and put in consistent effort to deal with uncertainty. Flexibility and adaptability of entrepreneurs to specific context and environment, openness to change attitude (Mooradian, Matzler, Uzelac, & Bauer, 2016) and open-feedback system (Stauffer, 2015) are important features of EMS that help adapt readily to changing circumstances, and undertake entrepreneurial activities well. Therefore, acceptance and learning from failure become important aspects in the entrepreneurial process. Scholars also argued that entrepreneurial alertness is an important component of EMS (Naumann, 2017), which was described by Kirzner (1979) as an ability to discover business opportunities, which was overlooked by others (Fatoki & Oni, 2015). Entrepreneurial alertness is related to information seeking which helps entrepreneurs to grasp opportunities even in an uncertain environment (Alvarez & Barney, 2007; Stewart, May, & Kalia, 2008; Tang, 2007).

Entrepreneurs who embrace EMS demonstrate cognitive adaptability, what Haynie, Shepherd, Mosakowski and Earley (2010b) called “metacognition”, thinking of thinking. Haynie, Shepherd, and Patzelt (2012) described cognitive adaptability as the ability to adopt decision making effectively, and appropriately in a dynamic business environment and entrepreneurial tasks regardless of prior knowledge. The cognitive adaptability of entrepreneurs is important for achieving outcomes from entrepreneurial actions (Haynie et al., 2010). Therefore, an entrepreneur is regarded as a ‘motivated tactician’ meaning engaged thinker who has distinctive cognitive strategies for exploiting opportunities (Haynie et al., 2010).

Dhliwayo and Vuuren (2007) associated EMS with thinking and actions about business and opportunities, which manifested through creativity and innovation for enhancing business creation and growth even under an uncertain environment. According to Zhao (2012), entrepreneurship is fundamentally about the desire to solve problems creatively, therefore creativity is critical for young people to start business. Creativity and innovation are cognitive resources that enable a person to be alert for the environment and easily recognize opportunities (Bellò, Mattana, Loi, & Bellò, 2017) and sources for entrepreneurs’ or firm’s competitiveness, growth, and sustainability. To be creative, young people have to think in non- conventional ways, to challenge existing assumptions and to be flexible and adaptable in their problem solving (Kirby, 2004). Creativity depends on imagination while innovation relies on actions, experimentation and iteration to introduce new ideas, methods and approaches (Mooradian et al., 2016). They are important means to unlock the entrepreneurial potential of young people (Ruhara & Kayitana, 2018).



Gundolf, Gast, and Géraudel (2017) associated EMS with the three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation at individual level namely risk taking, proactiveness and innovation. Innovation as an important aspect of EMS, relating to adding value to the product or process (Dhliwayo & Vuuren, 2007; McGrath and MacMillan, 2000). Young people with an innovative mindset are more likely to create and sustain business through continuous improvement (Ayalew & Zeleke, 2018). Schumpeter (1934) was the first scholar to relate innovation with entrepreneurship. Innovation can be manifested through improvisation activity as said by Mathews, (2016:8) innovation is “deliberate extemporaneous composition and execution of novel action”. Chirila and Constantin (2016) found that EMS influences personal goal achievement and motivational persistence.

Scholars link risk taking with EMS of entrepreneurs (Dhliwayo & Vuuren, 2007; Dunlap, 2008; Neneh, 2012; Nieuwenhuizen & Kroon, 2002). Forlani and Mullins (2000) defined risk as degree of uncertainty and prospective loss with regard to outcomes. Solesvik, Westhead, Matlay, and Parsyak (2013) classified risk taking into risk taking perception and risk-taking propensity. Risk-taking perception deals with assessment of risk in a given situation while risk-taking propensity describes ability to take or avoid risk. Delmar (1994) argues that entrepreneurs must have the ability to manage risk. Risk taking propensity differentiates entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs (Stewart & Roth, 2001). However, there are mixed results on the link between risk taking and the intention to become entrepreneurs. Some studies have shown positive relationship between risk-taking and entrepreneurial intention (Ertuna & Gurel, 2011; Franke & Luthje, 2003) and business success (Nieuwenhuizen & Kroon, 2002) while other have shown negative relationship (Fitzsimmons & Douglas, 2005; Dohse & Walter, 2012; Walter, Parboteeah, & Walter,

2013). Delmar (1994) found successful entrepreneurs perceived risk as a positive motivation factor and risk taking is domain specific.

The studies on EMS are early evolving, most of the information on EMS are on blogs with less scientific vigour, as such incorporating EMS construct would advance the science of entrepreneurship (Davis, Hall, & Mayer, 2014). Lynch et al., (2015) acknowledged the need for more studies in order to address some methodological challenges in studying how entrepreneurs think entrepreneurially. Global Entrepreneurship Monitors (GEM) have also contributed to studies related to entrepreneurial mindset. Nabi, et al., (2017:13) suggested the studying of the mediating effect of entrepreneurial mindsets on entrepreneurship. EMS is important in business success (Markman, 2007) and business survival (Ruhara & Kayitana, 2018). Conversely, lack of proper EMS to entrepreneurs results in a crisis or failure of the ventures.

Njeru (2012) measured EMS with creativity, innovation, and business alert on the performance of 625 small and medium manufacturers in Nairobi, Kenya. The study found that creativity, innovation, and business alert have greater contributions in business performance. Kumara (2012) found that in Sri Lanka undergraduates' tendency towards entrepreneurship is moderately positive and thus suggested for fostering a positive mindset towards youth entrepreneurship.

Ngek Brownhilder Neneh and Neneh (2012) explored entrepreneurs' level of EMS in the small and medium enterprise (SME) in South Africa. The study interviewed 86

entrepreneurs and found a low level of EMS, which mostly attributed to poor performance of SMEs in South Africa. Nevertheless, those entrepreneurs showing higher-level EMS (in creativity risk propensity and growth mindset) had better business performance.

Ngek (2015) examined the mediating role of EMS on the relationship of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and small business performance in South Africa. The study had a sample of 200 small businesses. The study found EMS influences firm performance and fully mediates the relationship between self-efficacy – performance relationship. Findings provide more insights of the role of EMS on performance and mediating effect on self-efficacy. However, the study does not relate EMS with youth entrepreneurship.

Lynch et al. (2015) used a qualitative approach to examine the linguistic content of successful entrepreneurs in relation to EMS. The study interviewed 51 high tech successful entrepreneurs in Silicon Valley. Using discourse analysis, the study found five features related to EMS ; a) action oriented, taking actions under limited information or in ambiguous situation; b) future oriented than focus on past since opportunities still there for entrepreneurs; c) collective perspective which relate to teamwork in order to leverage to other to create start-ups, d) customer orientation, having clear focus on customers and their needs and requirement; lastly, e) growth/learning oriented, focusing on learning and growing.

Neneh (2012) conducted an exploratory study on the level of EMS in the small and medium enterprise (SME) sector in South Africa. The study sampled 86 entrepreneurs and

used descriptive analysis techniques to understand the problem. The study found that the high failure rate of SMEs is attributed to the lack of an EMS.

Solesvik, Westhead, Matlay, and Parsyak (2013) conducted a study on EMS in relation to entrepreneurial intention. The study sampled 189 students in three universities in the Ukraine. Specifically, the study tested the impact of entrepreneurship education on student's entrepreneurial alertness and risk-taking assets in both entrepreneurship students (EES) and non-entrepreneurship students (NES). Hierarchical multiple ordinary least squares regression analysis and slope analysis were used to test presented hypotheses. Findings indicate EES were more oriented to a higher entrepreneurial mindset when they had accumulated a high connection entrepreneurial alertness asset. Although EES were more oriented to higher EMS, they perceive less risk. This suggests when risk perception increases, entrepreneurial mindset decreases. The study recommends further study on this area.

Ndururi (2015) examined the role of EMS to the success of enterprise operated by entrepreneurship university graduates in Kenya. Specifically, the study used regression analysis to determine the effect of metacognitive resources, metacognitive monitoring, and feedback on the EMS of the graduates. Findings show a positive correlation between metacognitive resources on EMS and success of the enterprises. However, there was weak positive correlation between metacognitive monitoring and feedback mechanisms on EMS.

Jabeen, Faisal and Katsioloudes (2017) analyzed factors influencing youth's EMS in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) in choosing entrepreneurship in their future employment. The study found a positive attitude among young people toward entrepreneurship. However, there was no difference in entrepreneurial intention between youths from a business-oriented background and those from a non-business background. This is attributed to higher youth awareness on business and the role of the government in supporting entrepreneurship.

### 3.3.4 Entrepreneurial Motivation

Entrepreneurial motivation is an important dimension for young people to engage in entrepreneurship and has an impact on the success of the venture beyond the start-up stage. It is the driving force behind action in entrepreneurial processes from opportunity identification, resource mobilization to venture creation and growth (Santos, Caetano, & Curral, 2013). Kaur (2018:3) defines entrepreneurial motivation as “the drive of an entrepreneur to keep up an entrepreneurial will in all actions”. Motivation is the inner psychological emotion (Kaur, 2018) and deepest preference that drive individuals towards achieving goals despite facing challenges (Goleman, 2010).

Entrepreneurial motivation is, therefore, a function of emotion and passion of people which differentiates entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs, as entrepreneurs have a strong sense of self-conception (Farmer, Yao, & Kung-Mcintyre, 2011). Entrepreneurs have pull motivation towards entrepreneurship while others have push motivation, which takes away from entrepreneurship activities. Motivation can be intrinsic involving personal interest on

the task, called achievement motivation, or extrinsic based on external rewards that follow a certain behaviour. However, the distinction of motivation should help determine the ultimate success or failure of a venture (Carsrud et al, 2009; Vanevenhoven, 2015).

Intrinsic entrepreneurial motivation related to growth mindset (Ng, 2018), driving entrepreneurs to engage in youth entrepreneurship as vocation reasons or need for personal development and autonomy. Higher Intrinsic entrepreneurial motivation is associated with innovation and growth vision. Meanwhile, extrinsic motivation drives entrepreneurs more for economic rewards or material achievement (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; Guzmán & Santos, 2001).

The study on motivation is traced from the works of Freud in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, who associated it with “instinct” to change an internal state by external activities (Cachon, Codina, Eccius-Wellmann, McGraw, & Myers, 2013). The motivation construct became popular following the work of Maslow (1946) who defined motivation as the human drive to satisfy the body’s need for survival, with its highest form reflected in achievement motivation (Ach) (Carsrud et al, 2009). Other motivation theories developed by psychologists are Herzberg’s (1968) two-factor mode or motivation -hygiene theory; McClelland’s theory of the needs for achievement (NAch) of 1962, expectancy theory by Vroom 1964. Entrepreneurship research adopted these theories to explain choice of self-employment and entrepreneurial behaviour (Cachon et al., 2013).

The interest on motivation, as connected to entrepreneurial traits, declined in the 1990s but the resurgence of cognitive psychology in entrepreneurship in 2000s gave its due recognition in the entrepreneurial process (Fayolle, Liñán, & Moriano, 2014). Motivation is seen as an activator, a latent intention to action towards venture creation (Carsrud, Brännback, 2011; Estay, Durrieu, & Akhter, 2013). Scholars describe motivation as an individual's self-image and needs (Cromie, 2000) and become stronger if there is a relationship between action taken and expectation (Naffziger, Hornsby, & Kuratko, 1994). Edelman et al., (2010) emphasized a need for more research on this area.

The earlier studies on motivation featured in the organizational psychology field in the 1950s, started from static, content-oriented theories to dynamic, process-oriented theories. These studies of motivation were principally focused on three major questions; a) what activates a person? b) What makes a person choose one venture over another? And c) Why do different people respond differently to the same stimuli? From these questions three fundamental components of motivation arose, namely activation, selection-direction, and preparedness of response. Activation is ingrained in the decision to initiate a behaviour example, starting self-employment activities. Selection-direction or persistence is the continued drive towards a goal despite the challenges that might exist on the pursuit. Lastly, preparedness of response or intensity based on concentration and vigour involved in pursuing the goal (Carsrud et al, 2009; Shane, Locke, & Collins, 2003).

In general, entrepreneurial motivation influences individuals on their decisions to start business and become the driving force to run business despite the challenges on the way (Shane et al., 2003). Jahn and Geissler (2016) emphasized that the focus of entrepreneurial

motivation should also go beyond the new venture creation stage. However, Murnieks, Klotz, and Shepherd (2020) observed that entrepreneurial motivation drives essential behaviours related to venture creation, initiation, and growth and exit phases. Vik and Mcelwee (2011) found that variation in motivation resulted in different types of diversification and suggested that we need to study variation of entrepreneurial motivation on entrepreneurship.

In relation to entrepreneurship, both drive and incentive theories are useful in explaining responses to entrepreneurial activities. The drive theories explain internal stimuli, pushing youths to engage in entrepreneurship. Push factors are regarded as negative motivations influencing individuals into entrepreneurship. Those who are internally pushed into entrepreneurship are necessity entrepreneurs; they are survivalists who engage in entrepreneurship for meeting basic needs. These are entrepreneurs who lose jobs and are forced to enter into business, and they are sometimes called "forced entrepreneurs" (Eijdenberg & Masurel, 2013). They are easily to exist in entrepreneurship because of the business failure than opportunity entrepreneurs (Zwan & Hessels, 2013; Oberschachtsiek, 2012), they have less survival rate (Block & Koellinger, 2008) and low growth expectation (Patel, Wolfe, & Williams, 2018).

Incentive theories concern the pull of incentives motivating individuals to engage in entrepreneurship. Those who are incentivized to exploit opportunity at their disposal are known as opportunity entrepreneurs (Carsrud et al, 2009), primarily focusing on the achievement of success and need for independence, they have more self-confidence while



necessity driven entrepreneurs are highly influenced by job security (Tyszka, Cieřlik, Domurat & Macko, 2011). Opportunity entrepreneurs (Block & Sandner, 2009) stay longer in business than necessity entrepreneurs (Block and Sandner, 2009).

Scholars differ in categorizing components related to entrepreneurial motivation. (Santos et al., 2013) associate desire for independence and economic motivation as the main components of entrepreneurial motivation. Entrepreneurial motivation is divided into general and specific motivation factors. The general factors include need for achievement, locus of control, vision, desire for independence, passion and drive while specific factors are goal setting and self-efficacy (Shane, Locke, and Collins, 2003).

The review of the literature shows seven common factors related to entrepreneurial motivation namely need for independence/autonomy, material incentives/make money, need for achievement, job satisfaction, need to escape negative situation, contribute to community and flexibility with family responsibility as follows:

***Need for achievement and learning:*** Zeffane (2013, p6) defined need for achievement as “an individual’s desire for significant accomplishment”. Referring to McClelland (1961), (Kirby, 2004) argues that entrepreneurs have a higher need for achievement, and choose the situation characterized by individual responsibility, moderate risk taking, and positive anticipation of future possibilities. A combination of higher need for achievement and low affiliation motivation promote entrepreneurial behaviour (Decker, Calo, & Weer, 2012). Need for achievement is an important determinant for the success of small business (Zeffane, 2013; Johnson, 1990). Entrepreneurs have higher awareness and ability to seek

opportunity-laden information for achieving internal motivators such as need for achievement and enhancing competitive urge (Ali et al., 2011).

Need for achievement is goal driven; related to personal characteristics of self-confidence, great initiative, directed by clearly established goals, taking moderate responsibilities and risks and favouring situations that can provide feedback for performance ( Ferreira, Loiola, & Gondim, 2017). Need for achievement motivates an individual to face challenges to achieve success and excellence by becoming responsible for decision making (Estay et al., 2013); daring to take risk in relation to their abilities and be ready to learn for the outcomes from the decision taken. In this case, a person with higher need for achievement always thinks to do better, and continues to work to realize the desired goal (Baidi & Suyatno, 2018).

McClelland (1965) suggested four ways of developing the need for achievement for young people; goal setting, motive syndrome, cognitive support and group support. Group support entails the use of groups to promote better insights and feedback to young people. Cognitive support relates with the promotion of intense reflection that enables young people to connect their motives and actual reality. Motive syndrome concerns promoting the integration of thinking, action, and context, to allow young people to adjust to their goals with a situation they face in life. Lastly, goal setting is to encourage young people to take on responsibilities (Ferreira et al., 2017). Entrepreneurship is regarded as an option for personal development through continuous learning to achieve personal vision through

efforts (Jayawarna, Rouse, & Kitching, 2013), creating business, and having a chance to influence their lives (Akehurst, Simarro, & Mas-Tur, 2012).

***Desire for independence and autonomy:*** Individual engaging in entrepreneurship want to have the authority to make important decisions (Kaur, 2018; Santos et al., 2013) and be flexible to combine work with personal live (Akehurst et al., 2012; Jayawarna et al., 2013; Friedman, Aziz, Keles, & Sayfullin, 2012). According to Schumpeter (1962), an entrepreneur is a dynamic actor who wants to be autonomous. They are afraid of external control, which makes them value individualism and freedom more than the general managers or public and hate rules, procedures and norms. As a result, sometimes entrepreneurs are seen as deviants in society (Kirby, 2004). The desire for autonomy and job satisfaction are more predominant than economic motives (S Cromie, 1998). Literature shows that an attitude towards independence contributes to an individual's entrepreneurship. Intention to be entrepreneurs is stronger to those who have a positive mindset towards risk and independence.

***Income security & financial success/Economic motivation:*** Entrepreneurs are also economically motivated to start and grow their business because they want to increase incomes and achieve financial security (Kaur, 2018; Akehurst et al., 2012; Edelman, Brush, Manolova, & Greene, 2010; Fernández-Serrano & Romero, 2012; Muhumad, 2016).

***Recognition & status:*** Under this component entrepreneurs are motivated to engage into entrepreneurship t activities in order to gain more recognition and respect from cross section of people including friends, family, and community in general (Akehurst et al., 2012; Edelman et al., 2010; Jayawarna et al., 2013; Friedman et al., 2012).

***Family & individual roles:*** Under this dimension, individuals are much interested to proceed with a family tradition and imitate other role models of creating a family legacy (Aziz, Friedman, Bopieva, & Keles, 2013; Edelman et al., 2010; Jayawarna et al., 2013)

***Dissatisfaction:*** This component shows that individuals are motivated to engage into entrepreneurship because of dissatisfaction of the prior work procedures (Akehurst et al., 2012; Giacomini et al., 2011). This reason is like necessity motivation which is not much discussed in motivational research (Fernández-Serrano & Romero, 2012).

***Community & social motivations:*** Under this dimension, entrepreneurs are motivated to contribute back to their communities either through philanthropy or the business itself, which sometimes called social entrepreneurship (Estrin, Mickiewicz, & Stephan, 2013; Levie & Hart, 2011). Therefore, they struggle to make their venture an environmentally friendly company (Jayawarna et al., 2013).

The empirical study on entrepreneurial motivation is essential to understand entrepreneurs' behaviour, which provides the link between intention and action; transforming a latent intention into actual reality (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011). Entrepreneurial motivation is linked with cognition since in human action; motivation (example desire) and cognition (knowledge and belief) always operate together. Knowledge or belief in the absence of motivation leads nowhere, and motivation in the absence of knowledge and belief results in random or production outcomes (Baum & Locke, 2007). Therefore, studies show entrepreneurial motivation is associated with launching of venture and performance of small business (Morris, Miyasaki, Watters, & Coombes, 2006), entrepreneurial intention/aspirations (M. Z. Solesvik, 2013). Nevertheless, many studies on entrepreneurial motivation focus on venture formation than subsequent stages (Gundolf et al., 2017).

Cachon, Codina, Eccius-Wellmann, McGraw, and Myers (2013) examined the role of entrepreneurial motives on performance expectation in three North America countries, Canada, U.S and Mexico with 1,272 respondents. The study found that economic survival was a major motive for Mexican business while Canada and U.S respondents were much inclined to intrinsic rewards. Likewise, Robichaud, Cachon, and Haq (2010) found that Canadian female business owners were much more motivated by intrinsic motives than that of monetary motives. Conversely, Benzing and Chu (2009) found in Kenya, Nigeria and Ghana women were motivated by income factors to engage into business.

Marques, Ferreira, Ferreira and Lages (2013) investigated the mediating effect of motivation on psychological and cognitive factors to entrepreneurial orientation in creating health related business in Portugal. The study measured motivation through self-recognition, necessity/family influence and social status and applied quantitative design using structural equation modelling (SEM) whereby 367 health care professionals were sampled for the study and used sociological/cultural theory to explain the problem. The study found that motivation enhances the willingness of business venture creation. The study found motivation mediated the relationship between psychological and cognitive factors on entrepreneurial orientation to start business.

Decker et al., (2012) examined the affiliation motivation patterns among students interested in pursuing self-employment careers as compared to students less interested in pursuing entrepreneurial careers. The affiliation motivation entails the desire for social contact and positive interaction with others. The study used a quantitative approach

applying SEM with a sample of 423 college students enrolled in upper-division business courses in a public institution in the Mid-Atlantic region of the USA. The study found that the need for emotional support and positive stimulation related to self-employment interests more than that of need for social comparison and need for attention.

Using mixed methods, Farhangmehr, Gonçalves, and Sarmiento (2016) determined the main drivers of entrepreneurial motivation of 465 university students in Portugal and whether entrepreneurship education moderates the impact of knowledge base and entrepreneurship competencies on entrepreneurial motivation. The results of the study revealed that entrepreneurial motivation is predicated by entrepreneurship competence and not knowledge base. Nevertheless, entrepreneurship education does not improve entrepreneurial motivation of the students to become entrepreneurs. Contrary, other studies found entrepreneurial motivation has a strong relationship with entrepreneurial intention (Mahendra, Djatmika, & Hermawan, 2017; Solesvik, 2013).

Eijdenberg and Masurel (2013) examined pull and push motivation factors among 106 medium and small enterprises in Uganda. The study found pull factors were more dominant than push factors. Specifically, financial success had 4.09 mean, 0.88 standard deviation followed by goal setting (4.08 mean, 0.82 standard deviation) and role models with 4.01 mean but high standard deviation of 1.16.

Moen, Heggeseth, & Lome (2016) investigated the relationship between motivation for growth on SMEs performance in Norway. About 247 firms were studied using regression analysis and structural equation modelling and found that entrepreneurs' firms without international orientation despite a strong growth motivation tend to perform poorly. In other words, entrepreneurial firms with international orientation and growth motivation perform well.

Gundolf, Gast, and Géraudel (2017) analyzed the impact of entrepreneurial motivation on diversified innovation behaviour of start-ups in France. The study used multiple regression analysis to determine the link of entrepreneurial motivation and innovation behaviour of 48,000 start-ups. Findings indicate desire for independence and desire to increase financial position have negative significance on diversified innovation behaviour of start-ups.

In nutshell, most of the studies were not exclusive for youth entrepreneurs and conducted in developed economies, which drove the need for undertaking the study on youth perspective in a developing economy.

### 3.3.5 Entrepreneurial Self Efficacy

Entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) is an important construct in explaining individual capacity to create and run business ventures successfully. Over the past two decades, there is a growing research interest of studying it because of its influences on motivation, intention, behaviours and performance as well as outcomes on education (Newman, Obschonka, Schwarz, Cohen, & Nielsen, 2018; Drnovšek, Wincent, & Cardon, 2010).

According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy is a person's belief about his/her capabilities to achieve something. Self-efficacy is understood through two types of assessment or expectation: efficacy and outcome expectation. The former refers to a belief about an individual's own competence that can successfully perform a certain action. The latter refers to the belief that an individual action will result in a desired outcome such as education achievement and business performance. When young people embark on the journey of youth entrepreneurship, they must face ups and downs, so the need to determine their self-efficacy is paramount.

From cognitive perspective, (Wennberg et al., 2013:1-2) defined self-efficacy as "cognitive estimate of individuals' capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and the will of action needed to exercise control over events in one's life". This suggests variability of individuals in struggling towards the attainment of goals and their endurances in a challenging time. For this case, there is a difference between possessing skills and the ability to use them well and consistently under difficult or adverse conditions.

Self-efficacy is dynamic in nature as it develops and changes overtime by skills obtained through experiences. There are four sources of self-efficacy namely, enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience or modeling, verbal persuasion which is mostly linked with feedback after performance and lastly physiological and affective state. Enactive mastery experience occurs when young people are given a chance to try an assignment themselves, such as participating in the project. Vicarious experience usually is a product from role models, usually occurs when young people see others who have achieved



success. Meanwhile, social/ verbal persuasion occurs when young people are convinced that they have necessary capability to master a specific task. This encouragement inspires them to continue with the task despite the difficulty. However, entrepreneurs are mostly considered as over-confident and driven by wishful thinking than other individuals (Wang, Prieto, & Hinrichs, 2010). Lastly, physiological and affective states refer to the way individuals respond to challenges or constraints in their undertakings.

In the context of youth entrepreneurship, enactive mastery experience refers to the success of youths in the establishment of the business venture. Youth acquire vicarious experience through participating in business (actual self-modeling) and learn from others, through mentoring and coaching or business development services (symbolic modeling). Verbal persuasion refers to positive feedback or encouragement that young people receive from their peers, family or society on their business performance or youth entrepreneurship decision. Lastly, physiological and affective state or sometimes known as emotional arousal refer to how youth self-employed respond to their challenges and constraints regarding their businesses.

Although some researchers examine self-efficacy perspective as the capability to solve tasks of any kind, it is now agreed by most experts that self-efficacy is more domain specific- targeting specific behaviours as the case of entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Newman et al., 2018).

ESE as an extension of self-efficacy emerged from the psychology and medical research field (Xu, 2013) through career choice research (Mauer, 2009), denoting feeling of capability and becoming a useful indicator of entrepreneurial action (Baum & Locke, 2004). It is an individual's belief on the ability and competence to discover and exploit opportunity during business creation and development (Klyver & Thornton, 2010). There are two major reasons as to why self-efficacy was incorporated into entrepreneurship. First, the ambition of entrepreneurship scholars to produce more entrepreneurs because of their positive economic influence, a fulfilling style and an attractive life option. Second, the need to complement personality traits that fail to differentiate entrepreneurs from other groups and searching for unique entrepreneurial characteristics both specific enough to be descriptive of core entrepreneurial concepts and at the same time broad enough to incorporate all varieties of entrepreneurs (Mauer et al 2009). In other words, entrepreneurial self-efficacy carries both the characteristics of personal traits and environmental factors and is regarded as a strong predictor of intention and action (Mcgee, Peterson, Mueller, & Sequeira, 2009).

Therefore, ESE was adopted to cater such a need as a combination of a task-specific psychological concept and entrepreneurship as a bundle of tasks that represent the entrepreneurial career choice. The works by Bird (1988); Scherer, Adams, Carley, and Wiebe, (1989); Boyd and Vozikis (1994); Krueger and Brazeal (1994) and Chen, Greene, and Crick (1998) contributed profoundly to the adoption of self-efficacy in the field of entrepreneurship. Since 1998, the number of articles on entrepreneurial self-efficacy has been growing from focusing on creating and testing the scale for entrepreneurial self-

efficacy, examining its impact on entrepreneurial intention, its mediating and moderating effects, and its associated antecedents (Mauer et al, 2009).

ESE is a good construct of identifying reasons for avoidance in entrepreneurship. Because having skills is not enough, a belief of the individual that can engage successfully in entrepreneurship is paramount. ESE can be used therefore to diagnose and treat not only entrepreneurial potential of an individual and a community but also real entrepreneurs (Chen et al., 1998). These authors suggest two approaches to induce and boost self-efficacy. First, entrepreneurship training should consider the cognition and belief system of the students in order to boost their self-efficacy through involving students in real-life business by the use of guest speakers, verbal persuasion from instructors and successful entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship education helps increase self-efficacy and awareness to starting business (Lucas & Cooper, 2004). Second, through creating a supportive environment which indirectly will increase ESE.

ESE is grounded in a social cognitive perspective and agency approach that individuals are seen to interact reciprocally with internal and external environments whereas cognitive, motivational and affective processes are associated with an individual's decision to engage in entrepreneurial activities. It plays a critical role in the continuum of entrepreneurship, starting from intention for start-up, controlling cognition during adversity of starting up a new venture, and key to entrepreneurial success. It mediates individual level factors such as entrepreneurial learning, risk taking and readiness to self-employment. Self-efficacy is an incredible precondition for supporting entrepreneurial mindset (Pollard & Wilson, 2014;

Drnovšek et al., 2010). ESE is, therefore, an important way of investigating whether or not youth self-employed have necessary entrepreneurial skills for the successful engagement in entrepreneurship (Xu, 2013).

Self-confidence is an important part of self-efficacy (Ismail, 2010), which indicates an inner strength enabling a person to justify the decision and not be easily intimidated or pressured. According to Goleman (2010) an individual with self-confidence has three major characteristics. 1. Efficacious i.e. having talent and believing it 2) being able to take on challenges and master new jobs or skills 3) catalyst, mover and initiator and that the ability stack up favourably in comparison to others.

However, one challenge related to self-efficacy is overconfidence of the entrepreneurs, which lessens their efforts to action and mobilizing resources. Referring to hubris theorists, (Trevelyan, 2011) reports that overconfidence causes entrepreneurs to suffer from a bias of making decisions about which course of action to follow. Overconfidence is related with the illusion of control, meaning the unjustified belief in the capacity to influence the outcomes that someone faces. According to the hubris theory, overconfidence is an important success factor for the establishment of business but it increases more possibilities for failure during the running of the business (Klyver & Thornton, 2010). Nevertheless, Hayward, Forster, Sarasvathy, & Fredrickson (2010) maintain that high confidence resulting in team commitment and resilience.

Literature also shows that the influence of ESE on performance is determined by other factors such as optimism, environment, gender and training. For instance, high entrepreneurial efficacy positively influences firm performance in a dynamic environment with moderate optimism rather than with high optimism. Conversely, ESE is weakly moderated by optimism under a stable environment (Hmieleski & Baron, 2008).

In addition, gender-stereotyping impacts ESE (Sweida & Reichard, 2013). There are strong gender effects on entrepreneurial self-efficacy and intention. Men have higher ESE towards entrepreneurial intuition than women. Therefore, Wilson et al., (2007) underscore the need for entrepreneurship education to reduce gender differences for the women with entrepreneurial aspirations.

Loi Di Guardo (2015) found entrepreneurship training increased the level of entrepreneurial self-efficacy to make decisions and high probabilities for starting business and optimism for the future. At the national level, scholars also observed the role of ESE is moderated by national cultural practices (Schmutzler, Andonova, & Diaz-Serrano, 2014; Wennberg et al., 2013). The study by (Manag & Siddiqui, 2016) found that impact of entrepreneurial efficacy of performance of small and medium businesses was mediated by entrepreneurial passion.

Scholars differ on what constitutes ESE, and that diverse understanding led to different measurements of ESE. There are scholars who study the role of self-efficacy at business

start-process, being a good predictor of start-up intention while others on business growth phase, being a key determinant of new venture growth and personal success (Drnovšek et al., 2010). The cleavage is also featured on whether it is seen as task or outcome oriented. The big question; is it having self-confidence or having ability? According to (Drnovšek et al., 2010), there is a need to view self-efficacy as a multi-dimensional character( e.g. domain context, content and valence of self-efficacy) in order get better understanding on why some individuals and not others succeed during start up process or growth stage. The multidimensional perspective attempts to see the whole elephant of ESE i.e. consisting goals and beliefs and is domain specific in entrepreneurship process and outcome; as well as identifying its role on task performance and outcome attainment in entrepreneurship.

According to Ali, Topping, and Tariq, (2011), ESE consists of five factors namely marketing, innovation, management, risk-taking, and financial control. ESE is regarded as a part of the psychological capital of entrepreneurs that keeps increasing with work experience. ESE enables youths to set challenging goals, striving to accomplish them even under difficult conditions and recuperate from failure and enhancing job satisfaction of entrepreneurs (Hmieleski & Carr, 2007). Pauli (2014) explained three dimensions of self-efficacy namely, initiative, efforts and persistence.

In a systematic review of ESE, Newman et al., (2018) have identified six antecedents of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. These include culture and institutional environment; firm characteristics, education and training, work experience, role models/mentors, and individual indifferences which occur at individual and firm level. Barbosa, Gerhardt, &

Kickul (2007) identified four types of ESE namely opportunity identification, relationship, management and tolerance. Herath, Mahmood, and Mahmood (2013) explained six dimensions of ESE in relation to firm performance. These are developing new products and market opportunities, building an innovative environment, initiating investor relationships, defining core purpose, coping with unexpected challenges and lastly developing critical human resources.

McGee et al. (2009) reviewed the measurement of ESE in order to refine and standardize the measurement. The scholars developed 19- items for measuring ESE in four entrepreneurial phases of searching, planning, marshalling and implementation by asking the respondents (5 -point Likert scale: 1=very little, 5 = very much) to indicate confidence in their ability to carry out each phase. The analysis shows significance of self-efficacy in each phase. However, it was recommended more study works on moderating the condition of ESE in the stage of venture development and growth goals of entrepreneurs.

Scholars associated ESE with positive feeling and passion experienced by engaging in entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial passion can be in terms of intensive positive feeling and identity centrality youth may experience in quest for opportunity recognition. Intensive positive feeling manifests into drive, zeal and deep longing of something while entrepreneurial identity allows individuals to comprehend what it means to be an entrepreneur is known as identity centrality (Ali, Topping, & Tariq, 2011). Entrepreneurial identity is the self-reflexive belief with regard to certain social groups or roles, giving meaning to life and a sense of belonging, self-awareness, individuality and continuity

(Obschonka, Silbereisen, Cantner, & Goethner, 2015). Self-identity being part of entrepreneurial passion, is the deep belief that guides and motives action. Individuals therefore behave in line with their salient self-identity to confirm and support their self-concept. As propounded by theory of cognitive dissonance, people strive to avoid inconsistencies between their values and wishes against their decisions and behaviour (Obschonka et al., 2015).

Self-efficacy also manifests through resilience of the individual in striving for the accomplishment. Since youth entrepreneurship is a challenging activity, entrepreneurs must be resilient to face emerging constraints. Resilience is the ability to bounce back from negative experience and adapt to dynamics and stressful life demands (Singh, 2011a). In order to be successful, young people must be resilient to face challenges and resource constrained conditions. To understand whether an individual is resilient or not, such an individual must have experienced some kind of adverse or threatening event(s) and the degree to which the individual was able to overcome and/or succeed under the threats that he or she confronted. However, this research area has not been thoroughly studied (Hmieleski & Carr, 2007).

One important characteristic of a successful entrepreneur is about being proactive, taking initiative and action to influence the environment by identifying opportunities and acting on such opportunities. Proactivity influences success in entrepreneurship through the choice of strategy of scanning the environment for more new opportunities, engaging in product development and market research which enable it to cope with competition



(Vantilborgh, Joly, & Pepermans, 2015). Santoro, Bertoldi, Giachino, & Candelo (2018) stressed that entrepreneurs adapt their behaviour in unpredictable environments in order to survive and grasp new opportunities.

ESE has been differently measured as antecedents, outcome, and moderator as well as mediating variables or construct at individual and firm levels (Newman et al., 2018). Javadian, Opie, and Parise (2018) determined the contextual factors influencing ESE among black and white entrepreneurs in United State of America, found significant, positive relationship between emotional carrying capacity and network ethnic capacity on entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Emotional carrying capacity is “relationship partners’ mutual abilities to express more of their positive and negative emotions in a constructive way” while network ethnic capacity is coexistence of diverse ethnicities in the network. The high connection provides psychological safety, knowledge and value of identity (Javadian et al., 2018).

The study by De Grez & Van Lindt (2012) on the influence of a ‘Learning-by-Doing’ Program on Entrepreneurial Perceptions of Economics Students in Belgium found that, entrepreneurship programmes raise entrepreneurial self-efficacy of the participants though “learning – by-doing programme”. Similarly, (Karlsson & Moberg, 2013) found that entrepreneurship programmes are effective in increasing ESE and start up behaviour among students. (Barbosa et al., 2007) found that cognitive style and risk preference influence the level of entrepreneurial self-efficacy in terms of opportunity, management, relationship and tolerance. Specifically, the study found that higher risk preference resulted

in higher opportunity identification self-efficacy; low risk preference had higher level of relationship efficacy and tolerance efficacy. Conversely, an intuitive cognitive style was associated with low relationship, management and tolerance efficacy.

Partinen (2018) examined the influence of role models on self-efficacy and found that there was no influence of multimedia stories of entrepreneurs on the ESE and intention as a result many students do not see entrepreneurship as first career choice in Finland.

Strossmayer (2016) investigated the impact of ESE on students' entrepreneurial motivations and behaviour with a sample of 324 students at the University in Croatia. The results of the study revealed a moderate positive correlation between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and motivation to start a business ( $r = .390$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and propensity to entrepreneurial behaviour ( $r = .466$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The study recommended for the adoption experiential-based learning in the universities in order to increase entrepreneurial potential of the students. The observation is confirmed by Combs & Luthans (2007) who found an increase of entrepreneurial self-efficacy through the training which incorporated self-efficacy.

Scholars ascertained ESE as a positive antecedent of entrepreneurial intention (Baidi & Suyatno, 2018; Nowiński, Haddoud, Lančarič, Egerová, & Czeglédi, 2017; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014; Pihie & Bagheri, 2013; Martinez, Campo, Martinez, & Campo, 2011; Pihie, 2009). Studying ESE from a cultural legitimacy perspective from 51 countries using

regression models, (Klyver & Thornton, 2010) found a universal association between ESE and entrepreneurial intention after controlling age, gender, education and the year of survey. However, the association tends to be significantly weaker in societies where the choice of entrepreneurship is more culturally appreciated.

Wennberg et al., (2013) found that positive effects of self-efficacy to entrepreneurial entry are moderated by the cultural practices. Xu (2013) examined the interrelationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy, perceived accessibility of resources and entrepreneurial intention in China. The study found that ESE has a positive relationship with perceived accessibility of resources and entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, Pfeifer, Šarlija, & Zekić Sušac (2016) found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention.

A study by Trevelyan (2011) on the impact of self-efficacy on the effort in new venture development hypothesized that self-efficacy is positively associated with effort on action tasks while it is negatively associated with effort on judgment tasks. The research studies two Australian entrepreneurial networking organizations where 394 entrepreneurs were sampled to the study. The results show self-efficacy has a direct, positive impact on effort in entrepreneurial activities, regardless of the type of task entrepreneurs do. In addition, the author found that motivational force comes from higher self-efficacy than to overconfidence bias in determining efforts.

In opportunity framing perspective, Engel, Dimitrova, Khapova, and Elfring, (2014) examined the influence of ESE on decision making under uncertainty using effectuation logic. The study assumed that when individuals feel confident regarding their entrepreneurial ability, they treat an uncertain environment as an opportunity by relying on effectual logic in decisions. Using a randomized experiment of 93 business students (low ESE group Vs high ESE group) at a Dutch University, the study found that a low ESE group, novices experiencing high ESE had more possibilities of using effectuation under uncertainty. Zhang, Cui, Zhang, Sarasvathy, & Anusha (2019) affirmed that high entrepreneurial self-efficacy controls entrepreneurial decision-making logics (effectuation and causation).

Pauli (2014) examined the impact of ESE on opportunity development as being moderated by sense breaking using mixed methods in the Netherlands. The results reveal low impact of self-efficacy on opportunity development due to weak relationship to opportunity development and sense making.

In general, ESE is attributed to the achievement and success of different human endeavour such as achievement of goal difficulty (Baron, Mueller, & Wolfe, 2016), leadership effectiveness (McCormick, 2001); entrepreneurial investment decision (Cassar & Friedman, 2009); entrepreneurial orientation of small scale entrepreneurs (Mohd, Yahya, Kamaruddin, Hassan, & Muda, 2014) and strategic decision making (Forbes, 2005). ESE also has impact on behaviour of readiness for change (Emsza, Eliyana, & Istyarini, 2016); passion for work (Johri & Misra, 2014); consumer innovativeness (Kumar & Cevahi,

2010); risk taking and perceptions of opportunity but decreases perception of threats (Krueger & Dickson, 1994); and enterprise's dynamic capability enactment in various forms such as responding with customers' needs, negotiating with suppliers, developing ideas, building team, resource mobilization (Kevill, Trehan, & Easterby-Smith, 2017). ESE is therefore important for performance as move intention to action (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994b).

Scholars have examined the moderating effect of ESE on entrepreneurial output and found inconsistent results. ESE has a moderate role on the relationship between entrepreneurs' creativity and firm innovation i.e. product and process innovation. However, the study recommended more studies on the role of individual-level capacities in entrepreneurship (Ahlin, Drnovšek, & Hisrich, 2014). Relationship between self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention is not moderated by gender (Martinez et al., 2011).

Indrawati, Salim, Djumahir, & Djawahir (2015) examined the moderating effect of ESE on the relationship between entrepreneurial alertness and environmental dynamism together with entrepreneurial commitment. The study found the relationship between environmental dynamism and entrepreneurial alertness was weakly moderated by ESE. However, other studies by (Bacq, Ofstein, Kickul, & Gundry, 2017; Tang, 2008) found strong moderation effect of high level of entrepreneurial self-efficacy on the relationship between entrepreneurial alertness and environmental munificence (the availability of critical resources for the firm in the environment).

Tsai, Chang, & Peng (2016) examined the relationship between ESE and entrepreneurial intention with 308 respondents. The study found a positive effect of ESE on intention through both attitudes towards entrepreneurship and planned entrepreneurial control. It was also found directly that the effect of ESE decreases when the subject norms increase.

Prabhu, McGuire, Drost, & Kwong (2014) tested whether ESE mediates or moderate the relationship between proactive personality and entrepreneurial intent of undergraduate and graduate students China, Finland, Russia, and the USA. The study found that ESE played both a moderating and mediating role on the relationship between proactive personality and entrepreneurial intent.

Studies found mediating effects relationship between ESE and entrepreneurial intention (Zhao, Hills, & Seibert, 2005; Naushad & Malik, 2018; Liguori, 2012), behaviour (Darmanto & Yuliari, 2018), career option (Yarima & Hashim, 2016) and founder's passion (Dalborg & Wincent, 2015). Oyugi (2015), found partially mediating effects of ESE on relationships between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention of the University students.

Kazumi and Kawai (2017) tested the mediating effect of ESE on the relationship between institutional support and firm performance using 202 female entrepreneurs in Japan. The study found that women ESE strongly and positively mediate the relationship of informal institutional support and firm performance. However, formal institutional support does not correlate with ESE.

Khedhaouria, Gurău, and Torrès (2015) hypothesized the role of general self-efficacy and firm performance mediated by entrepreneurial orientation. The test was done in 256 French small firm owners, found self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial orientation both positively and directly associated with firm performance.

### 3.4 Relevant Theories

This study is guided by entrepreneurial cognition theory as an underpinning theory, complemented by human capital theory and social network theories as follows.

#### 3.4.1 Entrepreneurial Cognition Theory

In the 1980s, entrepreneurial cognition theory (ECT) came as a response to the lacuna of personality trait approach, which claimed that people become entrepreneurs because of inborn traits such as needs for achievement, risk taking and high locus of control. The ECT was adopted from cognitive psychology, which focuses on perception, learning, decision-making and problem solving (Mitchell, 2014a; Krueger, 2003). There is a great need for the customization of cognitive perspective in entrepreneurship by developing questions, concepts and relationships distinct from cognitive psychology, though sometimes there should be a cross-boundary exchange with other domains since the ECT is still in the emergent stage (Mitchell, et al., 2004). Therefore, the major issue of cognitive research is to investigate “How do entrepreneurs think, reason, and behave such that they create value and wealth through the identification and implementation of market opportunities” (Mitchell et al., 2007: p5).

The theory was popularized by scholars including (Gartner, 1988; Gartner, 1989; Katz & Gartner, 1988; Shaver & Scott, 1991; Katz, 1992; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994. In particular, Bird (1992) and Busenitz & Lau, 1996) were first to use the term entrepreneur's cognition and entrepreneurial cognition respectively.

Entrepreneurial cognitions are "the knowledge structures that people use to make assessments, judgement, or decisions involving opportunity evaluation, venture creation, and growth" (Mitchell, et al., 2002: p 97). The definition focuses on knowledge structures (either script or heuristic), and decision making (assessment and judgement) in the context of opportunity evaluation (Mitchell et al., 2007). Entrepreneurs use mental models (mind-set) to connect information for grasping opportunity, and necessary resources to start and grow business. The knowledge structures are part of cognitive structures while cognitive processes concentrate on how knowledge is received and used (Grégoire, Corbett, & McMullen, 2011; Sánchez, Carballo, & Gutiérrez, 2011).

The concept of knowledge structure connected to social cognitive theory (SCT) which emphasizes thinking and doing used to achieve individual effectiveness in a certain environment (Sánchez et al., 2011). This creates a close connection between ECT and SCT, which considers that individuals exist within a total situation or configuration of forces described by two pairs of factors: one being cognition (mind-set) and motivation, and the other being the person in the situation. In other words, this also explains that cognition is dynamic, shaped by individual and situation interaction (Mitchell, Randolph-Seng, & Mitchell, 2011). ECT explains the role of cognitive factors in venture creation



decisions and entrepreneurial differences (Lau, Dimitrova, Shaffer, Davidkov, & Yordanova, 2012). Therefore, individual belief i.e. self-efficacy and motivation are important cognitive factors for starting and developing entrepreneurial ventures. Youth entrepreneurship pertains to an individual's capacity to engage in entrepreneurship activities by devoting efforts to compete with others as well as adopting strategies to cope with emerging challenges in business.

The ECT provides a theoretical breakthrough in understanding how entrepreneurs think and make strategic decisions (Barney & Alvarez, 2002; Mylonakis, 2014), i.e. thinking-doing connection of entrepreneurship. It also helps understanding the role of individuals in the venture creation and growth, and thereby contributes to a multidisciplinary perspective of the entrepreneurs (Mitchell et al., 2007). In the mid -1990s and 2000s, ECT became a dominant theory in entrepreneurship explaining entrepreneurs' thinking patterns, action, decision-making and opportunity recognition (Mitchell, 2014). Therefore, not only ECT focuses on understanding individuals and their behaviour, the environment in which mental processes take place (Mitchell et al., 2002), but how individuals use entrepreneurial mindset to make sense of their world (Baron, 2004 ; Cope & Down, 2010; Krueger, 2003). The ECT also helps understand the essence of entrepreneurship, how it emerges and evolve ( Krueger, 2003).

The ECT incorporates issues such as cognitive styles / thinking (Baron, 1999; Krueger, 2007); Cools, & Van Den Broeck, 2008; Kickul et al 2010; Armstrong, Cools and Sadler-Smith, 2011; Grégoire, Corbett and McMullen, 2011; Zahra, Korri and Yu, 2003; Sánchez,

Carballo, & Gutiérrez, 2011), entrepreneurial decision making such as heuristics and cognitive biases (Busenitz & Lau, 1996; Baron, 1998; Wright, Hoskisson, Busenitz & Dial, 2000, Mitchell, 2014, McGrath 1999, Simon, Houghto and Aquiro 2000 ). Other issues are cognitive scripts/schema Smith et al., 2008), entrepreneurial mind-set (Krueger, 2007); Hynie et al 2010, (Smith et al., 2008).

Entrepreneurial mind-set developed from the theory of ECT, meaning ‘ability to sense, act and mobilize in uncertain conditions (Hynie et al 2010) (Dewinnar and Scholtze, 2019). Krueger (2007) argues that deep beliefs influence entrepreneurial thinking, which enable the shift from novice entrepreneurial mind-sets to expert entrepreneurial mind-sets grounded on individual development experiences.

Entrepreneurial cognition therefore enables entrepreneurs to navigate in an uncertain business environment and exploit opportunity differently than non-entrepreneurs (Smith, Mitchell, & Mitchell, 2009), though it varies across national culture (Mitchell, Smith, et al., 2002). Entrepreneurs use heuristics extensively in decision-making; mental shortcuts (Busenitz & Barney, 1997). However, extensive use of heuristics in decision making can lead to the development of blind spots, what Baron (2014) called cognitive errors (See Table 3.6). Heuristics is better in a new and volatile environment while fact-based decisions style is better in a stable and predictable environment.

Table 3. 8 Cognitive errors: potential dangers for entrepreneurs

| Cognitive errors     | Description   | Relevance for entrepreneurship  |
|----------------------|---|---|
| Confirmation bias    | Tendency to notice, process, and store only information consistent with current beliefs   | Reduce capacity to be flexible in the face of changing condition, and capacity to respond to negative information                       |
| Heuristics           | Rules of thumb for making decision and judgement quickly  | Efficient in terms of reducing cognitive effort, but can lead to serious errors when more systematic and detailed analysis is required  |
| Self –serving bias   | Tendency to attribute positive outcomes to one’s own talent, efforts etc., but negative ones to external factors beyond one’s control | Reduce capacity to learn, since negative outcomes are perceived as generated by external agencies or factors                            |
| Optimistic bias      | Tendency to expect more positive outcomes that is rationally justified  | Leads to unrealistically high goals and aspirations, and to understanding the amount of time or effort needed to complete various tasks |
| Fast thinking effect | Fast speeds of thinking enhance risk tasking  | Entrepreneurs must often make decisions rapidly and this may increase their tendency to assume high risks                               |
| Affect infusion      | Influence emotions and feelings on key aspects of cognition (e.g. decision making, evaluation of various alternatives)                | Can seriously distort judgements and decision by entrepreneurs in a range of context  |
| Sunk costs           | Tendency to get trapped in bad decision or failing course of action   | Can prevent entrepreneurs from “cutting their losses” by walking away from poor decisions of strategies.                                |

Source: (R Baron, 2014)

Youth entrepreneurship is, therefore, a result of interaction of entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurial context (Mathews, 2016). The entrepreneurial characteristics such as mindsets, self-efficacy and motivation are important to enable young people to take advantage of opportunity, and resources in a given context. However, to be more effective, young entrepreneurs must extend their network to different players who have a bundle of resources in terms of finance and advice for their ventures. In their interaction with the entrepreneurial environment, young entrepreneurs must learn how to cope with its dynamic and uncertain nature.

### 3.4.2 Social Network Theory

Social network theory is the social science theory used to explain relationship and linkage among actors in society. Its origin can be traced since the 19th century from structural ideas of sociologists such as Emile Durkheim, Georg Simmel and anthropologist Radcliffe-Brown, whose research works are dedicated to understanding the structure and impact of social relationship between and among people in the society. In the 1930s, a psychiatrist, Jacob Moreno investigated group dynamics, and a psychologist, Helen Jennings measured interpersonal structure of groups called *sociometry* contributed to the foundation of the theory (Quatman & Chelladurai, 2008). Social structure determines the nature of interaction and relationship among individuals in the society (Cote, 2019). Therefore, social network theory shifted from inborn traits and minds of entrepreneurs to the social context of the individuals.

The scholars who popularized social network theory and its adoption in business setting and organization behaviour are: 1) Barne (1954) who contributed to an understanding of network of ties across a social class system, 2) Granovetter (1973; 1983) contributed to the understanding of weak and strong ties, and 3) Burt (1992) revealed the effect of structural holes of network through providing networking opportunities by connecting individuals to others who are not connected (Cote, 2019). In particular, during the 1980s social network theory was adopted in entrepreneurship following the work of Howard Aldrich (1980) and became popular following the major criticism of the trait theory (Baum et al., 2007). Social network theory has benefited much from resource-based view as was popularized in the 1980s by number of scholars (e.g. Wernerfelt, 1984; Barney, 1986, Rumelt, 1991; Lippman & Rumelt, 1982). Networks as resources for entrepreneurs provide sustained

competitive advantage for their business (Barney, 1986; Barney, 1991; Dierickx & Cool, 1989; Peteraf, 1993; Wernerfelt, 1984).

Literally, network means a web of relationships in which individuals or entities are embedded (Quatman & Chelladurai, 2008). The nature of a relationship can be simple, involving few actors or complex with multiple actors. Networks constitute a constellation of dyadic, triadic and multiple ties between actors (Sarah Jack, Moulton, Anderson, & Dodd, 2010). Thus, the theory is applicable for a variety of levels of analysis from small groups to global systems (Kadushin, 2004).

The basic principles of social network theory include relationship between actors, which either constrains or gives opportunity. The relationship is manifested through ties either strong (bonding) or weak (bridging) ties, which provide resources to entrepreneurs (Granovetter, 1973). Weak and strong ties vary depending on the level, frequency and reciprocity of relationship among actors (Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986). Team formation becomes also an important aspect of entrepreneurs' networking, which is formed through 1) pragmatic instrument criteria of complementary skills or experience and 2) a socio-psychological model that focusing on the interpersonal fit between team members and the need for smoothly functioning group process (Aldrich & Kim, 2007).

Referring to relationships, Aldrich & Zimmer (1986) identified three characteristics of social networks, namely communication content- passing information from one actor to

another, exchange content – exchange of goods and services and normative content-expectation individuals have to others due to possession of particular attributes. In this case, trust is an indispensable characteristic of social networks, whereas actors show their willingness and expectation in relationships.

Social network theory has been applied in entrepreneurship to explain entrepreneurial intention (Quan, 2012) and growth aspiration (Dawa & Namatovu, 2015). This study therefore adopts social network theory to establish a relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. Team and network building, use of network, trust, persuasion, and communication are key dimensions forming the construct of entrepreneurial networking.

Social network theory provides a useful theoretical framework for understanding how young entrepreneurs are ready to access opportunity and resources in the course of relationships with various actors for improving their business ventures. The theory emphasizes the needs for establishing connection for leveraging opportunity to the given resources at disposal (Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986).

#### 3.4.3 Human Capital Theory

This study adopts Human capital theory (HCT) to understand how entrepreneurial learning is associated with youth entrepreneurship. HCT was developed by Becker (1964) who accentuated the significance of investing in education and training for improving productivity. The theory was used to estimate employee's income distribution from the investment in human capital (Unger, Rauch, Frese, & Rosenbusch, 2011). According to

Becker (1964), the social and economic returns of the individuals are directly correlated with education and training. Human capital consists of knowledge and skills acquired through formal education and professional experience. Unger et al., (2011) identifies a number of variables related to human capital such as formal education, training, employment experience, start-up experience, owner experience, parent's background, skills, and knowledge.

Initially, the theory was applied in both education and labour economics, whereby the experts measured the investment in education and training based on knowledge and skill acquisition in relation to increasing productivity and individual's employability (Bruce, McNally, & Kay, 2013). In the 1990s, HCT was adopted in entrepreneurship research to explain the link between learning and entrepreneurial outcomes (Bruce et al., 2013) such as new venture formation, performance and survival (Dimov, 2017). Therefore, HCT used to differentiate the performance of individuals based on levels of knowledge, skills and other competencies. Those individuals having greater levels of knowledge, skills and other competencies will perform better than those who have lower levels (Ployhart & Moliterno, 2011) and they have wider choice of career (Aliaga-Isla, 2015). The theory has been used to show the relationship between human capital and entrepreneurial performance at individual (e.g. Cassar, 2006), group (e.g. Zarutskie, 2010) and venture (e.g. Colombo & Grilli, 2005) levels of analysis.

Human capital theory originated from a resource-based view (RBV) because, in principle, entrepreneurship requires individual-level resources (Brieger & Clercq, 2019). Scholars have extended RBV to human capital resources (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Soriano &

Castrogiovanni, 2012; El-Hamidi, 2011; Hitt et al., 2001). RBV is the influential theory in the field of strategic management, which started its intellectual origin from Penrose (1959), who explained the role of resources as competitive advantage in organization growth (Kellermanns et al., 2016; Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Alvarez & Busenitz, 2001; Barney, 1991; Barney, Wright, & Ketchen, 2001; Foss, 2011).

At the outset, the human capital (HC) was perceived static, relating to accumulated education and experience with various forms of success (Rauch, Frese, & Utsch, 2005; Cassar, 2006). The theory does not expound the process of transfer of HC (Unger et al., 2011). Of recent, scholars recommended a dynamic view of HC in entrepreneurship (Bruce et al., 2013; Unger, Rauch, Frese, & Rosenbusch, 2011). Bruce et al., (2013) differentiate between HC investment and HC asset ; the former related to inputs, such as time and money used in entrepreneurship process; whereas HC assets representing the capability emanated from the investments such as knowledge, skills and entrepreneurial outcomes; starting or growing a start-up.

Scholars differentiated between general HC (example education and experience) from task-related or specific HC (e.g. Becker, 1964; Zarutskie, 2010). The review done by Unger et al., (2011) show that HC assets specific to entrepreneurship show a stronger link to positive new venture performance than general HC. Conversely, general HC such as education was not significant for both perceiving entrepreneurial opportunities and increasing a business performance (Aliaga-Isla, 2015; Lee, 2019).



Considering dynamic and task-specific human capital perspective, this study tested the relationship of entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial learning is a composite of entrepreneurial knowledge, skills, and failure learning experiences. Entrepreneurship studies show that HC is important in discovery and exploitation of opportunities, increasing entrepreneurial alertness, planning for the venture, assisting in getting other resources such as financial and physical resources as well as further learning (Unger et al., 2011). Thus, this study will extend human capital research by coalescing entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship.

### 3.5 Hypothesis Formation

The study develops a series of hypotheses concerning relationships between individual factors and youth entrepreneurship in study context. The key to operationalizing the research questions involves identifying the most predicting individual antecedents and the extent of the influence in youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

Following sections present the hypotheses concerning the independent variables and the mediating variable on their relationship with dependent variables. This study argues that youth entrepreneurship for youth is achieved if they engage in entrepreneurial learning, developing entrepreneurial motivation and self-efficacy as well as embracing networking in their entrepreneurial ventures. Entrepreneurial mindset can not only be perceived to have positive effects on youth entrepreneurship and influence other constructs in their relationship with youth entrepreneurship.

### 3.5.1 Entrepreneurial Learning and youth entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurial learning is an integral part of the entrepreneurial process, from starting to managing ventures (Cope, 2005; Xiao, Marino, & Zhuang, 2010a). Wang and Chugh (2014) maintain that entrepreneurial learning is an individualized and fragmented concept, which needs more theoretical and empirical development in order to get more understanding of how and when learning takes place in the entrepreneurial process. Markman (2007) relates entrepreneurial learning with entrepreneurial competence, meaning an aggregate of knowledge, skills, and ability of entrepreneurs in the entrepreneurial process.

Empirical studies show that entrepreneurial learning is an important construct in building entrepreneurial capability of youth for starting and developing venture (David Rae & Carswell, 2000) through opportunity recognition and exploitation (Corbett, 2005; Corbett, 2007; Rae, 2006; Sanz-Velasco, 2006; (Holcomb et al., 2009), and promotion of innovation in entrepreneurial activities (Ravasi & Turati, 2005). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H1: Entrepreneurial learning positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

### 3.5.2 Entrepreneurial Networking and youth entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurial networking is an important construct in the analysis of its influence on youth entrepreneurship. Scholars assert entrepreneurial networking differentiating between successful entrepreneurs from non-successful ones (Carsrud & Brannback, 2007) and its effects are visible at venture creation and growth (Omar et al., 2017; Butler & Hansen,

1991; Adams, Makramalla, & Miron, 2018, Sullivan & Ford, 2014). Studies found entrepreneurial networking positively influencing dimensions of youth entrepreneurship such as resource acquisition, vision and opportunity (Miller et al., 2007; Semrau & Werner, 2014; Dawa & Namatovu, 2015). However, it is claimed that youth are not good at entrepreneurial networking, which constrains access to resources and opportunities (Green, 2013; Potter et al., 2014). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H2: Entrepreneurial networking positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

### 3.5.3 Entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) and Youth Entrepreneurship

ESE determines the level of youth entrepreneurship. Klyver and Thornton, (2010) defined ESE as an individual's belief on the ability and competence to discover and exploit opportunity during business creation and development. ESE has positive impact on students' entrepreneurial motivation and intention (Strossmayer, 2016; Baidi & Suyatno, 2018; Nowiński, Haddoud, Lančarič, Egerová, & Czeglédi, 2017; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014; Pihie & Bagheri, 2013; Martinez, Campo, Martinez, & Campo, 2011; Pihie, 2009). In particular, ESE has a positive impact on new venture development Trevelyan (2011), behaviour of readiness for change (Emsza et al., 2016); passion for work (Johri & Misra, 2014). However, Pauli (2014) found a low impact of self-efficacy on opportunity development due to weak relationship to opportunity development and sense making. Therefore, it is hypothesized that

*H3: Entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

#### 3.5.4 Entrepreneurial motivation and Youth Entrepreneurship

Kaur (2018:3) defines entrepreneurial motivation as “the drive of an entrepreneur to keep up an entrepreneurial will in all their actions”. It is the driving force behind action in entrepreneurial processes from opportunity identification, resource mobilization to venture creation and growth (Santos et al., 2013). Studying entrepreneurial motivation is essential to understand entrepreneurs’ behaviour, which provides the link between intention and action, transforming a latent intention into actual reality (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011). Studies indicate entrepreneurial motivation is associated with launching of venture and performance of small business (Morris, Miyasaki, Watters, & Coombes, 2006), venture formation (Gundolf et al., 2017; Marques, et al., 2013) and influence innovation behaviour of start-ups in France Gundolf, Gast, and Géraudel (2017). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H4: Entrepreneurial motivation positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

#### 3.5.5 Entrepreneurial mindset and its mediation role

Studying EMS helps understand the way youth entrepreneurs behave, perceive and value entrepreneurship (Bosman & Fernhaber, 2018). It is related to thinking and actions about business and opportunities, which in turn enhance business creation and growth even under an uncertain environment (Dhliwayo and Vuuren, 2007). Therefore, EMS is important in business success (Markman, 2007; Njeru, 2012), business survival (Ruhara & Kayitana, 2018), business ideas and opportunity (Kuratko et al, 2020). Conversely, lack of proper EMS to entrepreneurs results in a crisis or failure of the ventures (Neneh, 2012). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H6: Entrepreneurial mindset positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania*

Nabi, et al., (2017:13) suggested studying the mediating effect of EMS on entrepreneurship. Scholars argue that an individual with EMS is ready for continuous learning, self-education, and embracing changes (Kurczewska et al., 2018). Scholars argue the need for instilling entrepreneurial mindset to students and youth through practical training and education (Bosman, 2019; Zupan, Cankar, & Setnikar Cankar, 2018; Bellotti et al., 2014). According to Handayati, Wulandari, Soetjipto, Wibowo, & Narmaditya, (2020) found that EMS significantly mediated the relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intention. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H5a: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

As for mediating the role of EMS on the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial mindset helps entrepreneurs to interact easily with different actors in the business environment. Entrepreneurs who capitalize on networking with a positive mindset easily facilitate the successful adoption of smart services (Töytäri et al., 2018). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H5b: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

EMS plays a role to connect the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship. Burnette et al., (2019) conducted the study on growth mindset intervention on relation between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and career development. The study found that a growth mindset played an indirect effect on the relationship between

entrepreneurial self-efficacy and career development. Ngeek (2015) found EMS fully mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and firm performance. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H5c: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

Scholars in neuroscience associate intrinsic motivation to growth mindset (Ng, 2018) which helps individuals in engaging in entrepreneurship. Education psychologists validate that intervention of mindset stimulates motivation towards actions ((Burgoyne, Hambrick, Moser, & Burt, 2018; Chirila & Constantin, 2016). Rhew, Piro, Goolkasian, and Cosentino (2018) found that growth mindset intervention had significant differences in motivation on improving adolescent special education. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

*H5d: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.*

### 3.6 Literature Gap

From the preceding review, this study has identified areas of potential importance especially concerning youth entrepreneurship and individual antecedents. In this section, the study highlights the gaps in the literature that deserve greater attention in research and studies on youth entrepreneurship at individual level.

The review of the empirical research literature on youth entrepreneurship revealed most of earlier research studies based on intention from students' perspectives (Isah and Garba, 2015). It is acknowledged that intention is a good predictor of entrepreneurship, but it is

not always the case that intention ends in action because of personal, institutional, and cultural constraints. In other words, intention studies do not actually reveal the practical experience of entrepreneurs in entrepreneurship. People fail to implement their intentions because of procrastination, self-handicapping, temptation and distraction (Gollwitzer, 2014), and change of person's preferences (Van Gelderen et al., 2015).

This study tends to fill this gap by focusing on the actions of youth entrepreneurs in order to understand their practical experiences on the endeavour to push their ventures into another stage. As recommended by Fayolle (2014) that, entrepreneurship research must focus on the behaviour of real-life entrepreneurs. It is important to understand few youth champions who have an urge to engage in entrepreneurship, embracing “culture of doing/trying” while the majority of youth, particularly graduates, are reluctant to make such a decision, embracing “culture of thinking”. It is well known that most start-ups fail or die in early years of the establishment, because of lack of experience, resources and vision of the founders. Testing youth who engage in entrepreneurship, particularly understanding their capacity in opportunity recognition, garnering resources, growth vision and willingness to continue with their self-employment option helps predict growth potential of ventures.

Through examining youth entrepreneurship, the study helps build the bridge between industry and academia, which is very important for the development of entrepreneurship. Students are taught entrepreneurship, like training someone how to swim, with the aim of creating a new venture afterwards. Testing youth entrepreneurship therefore is to assess

how young people swim, ‘practicing’ their knowledge and skills, the way they perceive failure, and forging a strong team to make ventures competitive and growing. This symbiotic relationship helps exchange theoretical and practical experiences, thereby designing business development service packages suitable for youth entrepreneurs’ needs.

The review of the literature indicates youth entrepreneurship is an evolving and fragment issue; there has not been a uniformed measure for it. The measure of youth entrepreneurship thus depends on the angle or perspective the researcher intends to carry. Most studies still have measured youth entrepreneurship in relation to intention at organizational and national level, because they have been influenced by the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) while few perceive it as personal and psychological traits. This study attempts to develop a scale to measure youth entrepreneurship at the individual level beyond intention, with emphasis on the ability of youth to pursue entrepreneurship upon recognizing and developing opportunities and marshalling resources not only launching and managing new ventures while others have not done but also make it grow to another stage.

Youth entrepreneurship (YE) is yet an under researched area (Halim et al., 2017), where most studies do not target youth who are practising entrepreneurship. This study exclusively targets young people who are important agents of change in a society, engaging in entrepreneurship in a developing economy of Zanzibar, Tanzania.



Understanding of youth entrepreneurship is a complex phenomenon that needs synergy of theories to explain its nature and antecedents. Since youth entrepreneurship is a process with four components: intention, entry, success, and persistence/commitment. As noted earlier, the majority of studies used TPB to explain entrepreneurship intentions. Because youth entrepreneurship is a multidimensional concept involving both psychological and social parts, the use of single theory beyond intention is hardly sufficing. This study, therefore, positions youth entrepreneurship in the theory of entrepreneurship, using entrepreneurial cognition theory, complemented by human capital theory and social network theory.

### 3.7 Theoretical Framework of the study

This figure below provides a framework that will guide this research. According to Kumar et al, (2013) conceptual framework is the researcher's own position on the problem and gives the direction to the study. It specifies the variables that can be observed directly quantitatively or qualitatively. This framework indicates effects of entrepreneurial learning, networking self-efficacy, motivation, and mindsets on youth entrepreneurship. However, entrepreneurial mindset mediates the relationship of the rest of individual constructs and youth entrepreneurship.

The framework is underpinned by entrepreneurial cognitive theory which entails knowledge structure that entrepreneurs use to make decisions about entrepreneurial ventures. This relates to learning, where entrepreneurs use information necessary for identifying and exploiting opportunities. Entrepreneurial learning enhances entrepreneurial

capability to grasp opportunity and resources for starting and growth of entrepreneurial ventures. According to human capital theory, youth entrepreneurs imbued with entrepreneurial learning differentiate behaviour of youth entrepreneurs in entrepreneurship by increasing alertness and planning for venture growth.

Theoretical framework shows the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship. With reference to entrepreneurial cognitive theory, self-efficacy is the cognitive ability and belief of individuals to perform tasks related to entrepreneurship successfully particularly in relation to business creation and development. Therefore, entrepreneurial cognitive theory helps to show the relationship and influence of entrepreneurial self-efficacy to youth entrepreneurship.

The entrepreneurial cognitive theory also explains the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship whereby youth entrepreneurs have driving forces to engage in entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial motivation plays a significant role in influencing youth entrepreneurs to run business despite the challenges on the way. Entrepreneurs therefore become motivated to engage into entrepreneurship because of the need for achievement and learning, desire for independence and autonomy, income security and financial success and social recognition.

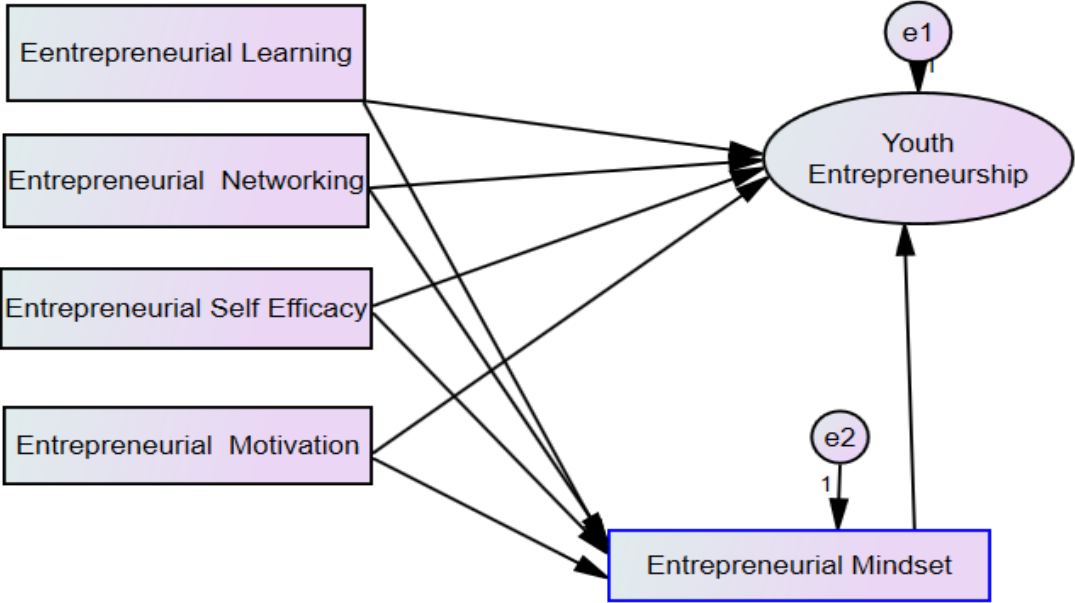
Entrepreneurial cognitive theory is very useful in explaining the relationship between entrepreneurial mindset and youth entrepreneurship. This is because the entrepreneurial

mindset is connected to cognition, meaning the ability to sense, act and mobilize entrepreneurial activities in an uncertain condition. Therefore, youth entrepreneurs use information through cognitive processes to make decisions about entrepreneurship (Mitchel, Randolph- Senge and Mitchell, 2011).

Lastly, the theoretical framework is built on the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. Through the eye of entrepreneurial cognitive theory and social network theory, entrepreneurial networking entails the way youth entrepreneurs extend relationships to different players for acquiring resources and opportunities necessary for entrepreneurial ventures. In other words, in the interaction with partners and actors, youth entrepreneurs must learn how to cope with the dynamic business environment to make their venture competitive and growing.

Figure 3.4 shows the theoretical framework of independent constructs such as entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial networking on a dependent construct, youth entrepreneurship. Such a relationship is further mediated by entrepreneurial mindset.

Figure 3. 4 Theoretical Framework



## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

Based on the literature review in Chapter 3, a conceptual framework, research hypotheses and research questions are developed to evaluate, validate, and test the theoretical connection and relationship between individual antecedents and youth entrepreneurship. This study employed quantitative design in the assessment of its research hypothesis and questions. Therefore, the chapter starts with research paradigm, design, operationalizing the research hypotheses, deconstructing dimensions of youth entrepreneurship and individual factors. The chapter also explains quantitative sampling strategy, data collection methods, and proposed data analysis techniques.

#### **4.2 Research Paradigm**

Any research work is guided by a philosophical perspective, which acts as an overarching framework, which is referred to as the research paradigm. This research is quantitative in nature guided by positivism emanated from ontological principles and doctrine that the truth and nature of reality is free and independent of the researcher. Positivist researchers frequently use deductive and quantitative analysis to reach into objective reality of the problem. Positivist researchers try to eliminate subjective thinking and opinions which may result in bias in outcome of the studies. This research therefore uses positivism to understand the effect of the individual factors on youth entrepreneurship (Lamotta, 2017; Gamage & Wickramasinghe, 2014; Somekh & Lewin, 2012).

### 4.3 Research Design

Research design is the plan for study that provides the specification of the procedures to be followed by researchers to accomplish research objectives or test hypotheses formulated for the studies (Kumar et al, 2013). The research design therefore describes the purpose of the study, type of the questions being addressed, techniques to be used for data collection, approach for selecting samples and how the data are going to be analyzed (Gray, 2017).

This study used quantitative methods designed to examine the influence of individual antecedents on youth entrepreneurship. Quantitative research uses statistics to test hypotheses and establish relationships between the variables. The study is ex post facto in nature since it was done after youth have got entrepreneurship training programmes and now engaging in youth entrepreneurship initiatives. Stratified sampling was used to select youth entrepreneurs from the incubation programme, ZNCCIA and Ministry of Youth, Culture, Arts and Sports (MYCAS). The main reason is to ensure each stratum is represented in the study.

This study therefore used a survey method to generate primary data to test the relationship between individual antecedents and youth entrepreneurship among youth entrepreneurs in Zanzibar, Tanzania. Primary data were collected through survey-structured questionnaires, which have been piloted to ensure its validity and reliability. Quantitative analysis is employed to data assigned with numerical values, which help in the generation of descriptive statistics, correlation, and various statistical tests.

#### 4.4 Study Population

In doing research, it is important to understand the population for the researcher to limit its scope, scientifically select samples, access for data collection and drawing of research conclusions. The study population includes all individuals, or items, which are relevant to study (Quinlan, 2011). The population of this study includes all youth who have started entrepreneurial activities in Zanzibar Tanzania. These young people got entrepreneurial education and/or training and thereby decided to engage in youth entrepreneurship activities in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The study chose this population because youth are the most affected segment in unemployment, underemployment, and poverty. However, youth are quicker in adopting new economic trends and opportunities and agents of change in bringing new ideas with fresh insight towards development (Kew et al., 2015). This study adopts African Union and Tanzania definitions of youth, meaning young people with age ranging from 15 to 35 years. Young people who decide to engage in youth entrepreneurship activities are expected to continue with their options and develop their business profitably.

The unit of analysis is the object of study within the research project, which can be individuals, groups, organizations, and systems. Unit of analysis stands as a main focus of the study. The unit of analysis of this study were individual youth entrepreneurs who have started entrepreneurial ventures after getting entrepreneurial training and education. The study therefore was interested to examine the influence of entrepreneurial learning, networking, motivation, self-efficacy, and mindset in their behaviour to entrepreneurship activities. Individual youth entrepreneurs were from different sectors mainly agribusiness, manufacturing and production, ICT, tourism, and restaurants. They have different

entrepreneurial experiences ranging from a year to five years with diverse education backgrounds.

#### 4.5 Sampling Strategy

The study employed probability sampling to ensure each element from the sample has an equal chance of being selected (Kumar et al, 2013)? Thus, the study used both stratified and simple random sampling techniques to draw samples of youth entrepreneurs to make inferences of the entire population. The stratified sampling was used to divide youth entrepreneurs under the incubation programme and those outside the incubation programme. The stratified sampling technique is adopted because the researcher knows the characteristic of the samples which will have an impact on the research (Kumar et al, 2013; Quinlan, 2011). Meanwhile simple random sampling was applied to draw samples from each group of youth randomly. In other words, the use of simple random sampling, which is a basic probability sampling, ensures each unit of the population an equal probability of inclusion in the study (Bryman & Bell, 2003). This was possible after getting a complete list of youth entrepreneurs from each group from the respective database.

The study, therefore, sampled youth entrepreneurs under the Zanzibar Technology Business Incubation (ZTBI) programme, those registered by Zanzibar National Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (ZNCCIA) and Ministry of Youth, Culture, Arts and Sports (MYCAS) as shown in Table 4.1 below. The study used this sample because they had the opportunity of getting entrepreneurship training and started business. The government in collaboration with ZNCCIA invested a lot to build the capacity of the youth



through entrepreneurship training. It was an expectation that they would start business and contribute to job creation. There were some youth who started business after the training and others expanded their business. Therefore, the study sampled this group of youth to understand the influence of entrepreneurial learning, networking, motivation, self-efficacy and mindset on their behaviour in entrepreneurship.

Table 4. 1 Category of Samples

| <i>Source</i> | <i>Number</i> | <i>Percentage of the population</i> | <i>Expected total sample</i> |
|---------------|---------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| ZTBI          | 350           | 26.7                                | 91                           |
| ZNCCIA        | 410           | 31.3                                | 106                          |
| MYCAS         | 550           | 42.0                                | 143                          |
| Total         | 1,310         | 100                                 | 340                          |

According to Hair et al (2009), three factors are essential in determining the appropriate sample size, these are:

- i. The first factor is the estimation of population proportion having the desired characteristics of the Population (p). For the population proportion is 85%
- ii. The second factor is the level of confidence desired in the estimate (CL). The higher the level of confidence desired, the larger the sample size needed. For this study, the desired level of confidence is 99%.
- iii. The third factor is the degree of precision desired in estimating the population characteristics ( $\alpha$ ). The more precise the required sample results, the larger the necessary sample size. For this study, the acceptable tolerance level of error is set at  $\pm 5.0\%$ . The standard formula used in calculating the sample size for a population proportion is:  $n = (Z^2 \cdot p \cdot q) / \alpha^2$

where:

$Z^2_{B,cL} = 2.58$ , the standardized z-value associated with the 99% confidence level

$P = 85\%$ , the estimate proportion of youth who could be involved in entrepreneurship

$Q = 15\%$ ,  $[1 - P]$

$\alpha = \pm 5.0\%$ , the acceptable tolerance level of error

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} n &= 2.58^2 ( [ 85 \times 15] / 5.0^2 ) \\ &= 6.6564 (1275 / 25) \\ &= 6.6564 (51) \\ &= 339.47 \text{ or } 340 \text{ youth self employed} \end{aligned}$$

#### 4.6 Data Collection Method

A well-designed research instrument is important for collecting data that are needed for research. Scholars emphasize that a researcher should know what kind of data and where the data to be found before deciding the data collection process. This helps the researcher to design the instrument that will yield the data required (Quinlan, 2011). The research sought permission from respective authorities for data access, this is important in reducing nonresponse cases (Bryman & Bell, 2003). The study used two main data collection methods:

##### a) Survey Questionnaires

Survey-questionnaire was the main data collection instrument designed with closed ended questions and distributed to entrepreneurs in person. It is important to design questionnaires simple, because the simplicity of the design not only impresses the

respondents, but also is a tribute to the amount of work and reflection the researcher engaged in during the drafting the questionnaires (Quinlan, 2011). The questionnaire was designed in Microsoft Excel to structure it well. The study used structured self-completion questionnaires using Likert scale of 1- 5 to ensure that each respondent is asked the same simple, clear and precise questions and make responses simple, clear and precise (Quinlan, 2011). The self-completion questionnaire is cheaper and quicker to administer, absence of interviewer effects and convenience for respondents (Bryman & Bell, 2003). In this case, the researcher ensures four critical issues of questionnaire design are considered as proposed (Quinlan, 2011). These are the content of the questions, the construction of each question, the order of the questions and the length of the questionnaire. The questions for each variable were adopted from literature to make easier comparison of the research findings with other research work (Table 4.3).

The questionnaire design involved both adoption and modification of existing instruments that had been developed by Lamine et al., (2014), Izquierdo, (2008), Fatoki and Oni, (2015), Washington (2013), Shepherd, Patzelt, and Wolfe (2011). The questionnaire is divided into two sections namely Section A and Section B. Section A consists of personal demographic information such age, marital status, education, experience in entrepreneurship training and youth entrepreneurship.

Section B consists of six parts, which capture the main constructs of the study, described in the form of statements that require response in the form of Likert scales ranging from 1 to 5. This is to ensure consistency in using measurement scales. A score of 1 indicates

‘Strongly Disagree’, a score of 2 means ‘Disagrees’, a score of 3 means ‘Neutral’, a 4 refers to ‘Agree’ while a score of 5 indicates ‘Strongly Agree’.

Table 4. 2 Constructs and Questions by Sources

| Constructs                           | Number of Items | Questions (Q) | Sources                     |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------------------|
| <b>Youth entrepreneurship</b>        |                 |               |                             |
| Opportunity Recognition              | 3               | Q 07 to Q09   | Lamine et al. (2014),       |
| Resource Competence                  | 3               | Q 10 to Q 12  | Izquierdo (2008)            |
| Vision                               | 3               | Q13 to Q 15   |                             |
| <b>Entrepreneurial Learning</b>      |                 |               |                             |
| Knowledge                            | 4               | Q16 to Q19    | Izquierdo (2008)            |
| Skills                               | 4               | Q20 to Q 23   |                             |
| <b>Entrepreneurial Mindset</b>       |                 |               |                             |
| Innovativeness                       | 3               | Q24 to Q26    | Bell (2016)                 |
| Curiosity                            | 3               | Q27 to Q29    | Jeraj and Marič (2014)      |
| Alertness                            | 7               | Q30 to Q36    | Fatoki and Oni (2015)       |
| <b>Entrepreneurial Networking</b>    |                 |               |                             |
| Trust                                | 3               | Q37 to Q 39   | Washington (2013)           |
| Team building                        | 3               | Q 40 to Q43   | Izquierdo (2008)            |
| Communication                        | 3               | Q44 to Q46    |                             |
| Network Usage                        | 4               | Q47 to Q50    | Wasik (2018)                |
| <b>Entrepreneurial Motivation</b>    |                 |               |                             |
| Desire for Independence              | 3               | Q51 to Q 53   | Isaga (2012)                |
| Economic Motivation                  | 3               | Q 54 to Q 56  |                             |
| Needs for Achievement                | 3               | Q57 to Q 59   |                             |
| Recognition                          | 3               | Q60 to Q62    |                             |
| <b>Entrepreneurial Self Efficacy</b> |                 |               |                             |
| Self confidence                      | 4               | Q63 to Q 66   | Lamine et al. (2014)        |
| Proactivity                          | 4               | Q67 to Q 70   | Mwangi (2018); Frese (1997) |
| Resilience                           | 4               | Q71 to Q 74   | Fatoki (2018)               |

Part I measures youth entrepreneurship whereby questions 7 to 9 measure opportunity recognition adopted from (Lamine et al., 2014), questions measuring resource competence (Q 10 to Q 12) and growth vision (Q13 to Q15) adopted from Izquierdo (2008). Part II measures entrepreneurial learning - questions 16 to 19 focus on entrepreneurial knowledge

and questions 20 to 23 measure entrepreneurial skills adopted and modified from Izquierdo (2008).

Part III tests entrepreneurial mindset; questions 24 to 26 based on innovativeness adopted from Bell, Robin 2016, questions 27 to 29 measure curiosity adopted from Jeraj and Marič (2014) and remaining questions 30 to 36 focus on alertness adopted from Fatoki and Oni (2015). Part IV measures entrepreneurial networking - questions 37 to 39 are related to trust adopted from Washington (2013), questions 40 to 43 based on team building, questions 44 to 47 based on communication adopted from Izquierdo, (2008) and the remaining questions 47 to 50 focus on use of network adopted from Wasik (2018).

Part V measures entrepreneurial motivation, questions 51 to 53 focus on desire for independence, question 54 to 56 measure economic motivation, questions 57 to 59 measure needs for achievement and lastly the rest of question 60 to question 62 focus on recognition and status. These questions were adopted from Isaga (2012).

Part VI measures entrepreneurial self-efficacy whereby questions 63 to 66 measure self-confidence adopted from (Lamine et al., 2014), questions 67 to question 70 based on proactivity adopted from Mwangi (2018) and Frese 1997, questions 71 to 74 measure resilience adopted from Fatoki, O (2018).

The questionnaire was translated into Swahili language, a mother tongue of all Zanzibaris. The translation was done by the researcher and edited by Swahili lecturer at the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA). In addition, two Swahili natives were given the edited

version in order to look for clarity and comprehension of the questions. This was done purposely in order to increase comprehensiveness and accuracy of the responses. The study will engage researcher assistants to help in the collection of data. Questionnaire will be tested for accuracy and clarity of research instruments and thereby establishing validity and reliability.

#### b) Interview of key Informants

Interview is a common data collection method used to collect qualitative data from key informants. Research interview involves a researcher, who coordinates the process of the conversation and also asks questions and an interviewee, who responds to those questions. Research interviews are a suitable method when there is a need to collect in-depth information on people's opinions, thoughts, experiences, and feelings. Interviews are useful when the topic of inquiry relates to issues that require complex questioning and considerable probing. Face-to-face interviews are suitable when your target population can communicate through face-to-face conversations better than they can communicate through writing or phone conversations (e.g., children, elderly or disabled individuals)(Quinlan, 2011).

This study employed semi-structured interviews with key informants to get an in-depth understanding of the context of youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar because of the dearth of literature. The study therefore involved seven participants who were responsible for youth entrepreneurship training and development through an in- depth interview. The participants were selected based on their experience in coordination and managing youth entrepreneurship programmes. This is critical because they would provide their practical

insights about youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. To get good interaction with participants, about 40 minutes to 60 minutes interview sessions were conducted. Interview sessions were guided by a pre-developed protocol and all interviews were electronically recorded for easier retrieval and transcription. Administrators were selected from seven organizations which are CUBE Zanzibar, Ministry of Youth, Culture, Arts and Sports, Ministry of Trade and Industrial Development, Small and Medium Industrial Development Agency (SMIDA), Zanzibar Technology Business Incubator (ZTBI), Zanzibar Empowerment Fund and Zanzibar Tourism Commission. The rationale for selecting the administrators is based on the fact that they have experiences in conducting youth-related entrepreneurship programmes, and thereby they frequently interact with youth and youth entrepreneurs.

Recorded transcripts were transcribed and before being translated by professional translators as all interviews were conducted using a local Swahili language to enhance more productive conversations with participants. Thematic analysis procedures described by Clarke and Braun, (2013) were opted to come out with themes elaborating youth entrepreneurship, its prospects and challenges. All themes and sub-themes were inductively derived from data collected through the interviews, that is, the frequency of certain words, phrases, expressions, and statements were identified to decide the themes or subthemes. For this case, each transcript was read meticulously, and gave deep attention to each word and sentence to determine essential expressions as early coding was conducted. The research interview was able to uncover strategic actions used to promote youth entrepreneurship, prospects and challenges of youth entrepreneurs as well as key stakeholders and their roles in the promotion of youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

#### 4.7 Construct measurements

This section presents constructs used to operationalize the research hypotheses. This study contributes to the literature and advances the research agenda in youth entrepreneurship by making theoretical connections between individual factors and youth entrepreneurship. The conceptual model is constructed on the belief that the selected individual factors influence youth entrepreneurship in developing economies. The operationalization of these variables was adopted from previous empirical studies and conceptual writings, and where necessary, the variables or items have been modified or amended to suit the context of the study.

##### a) Dimensions Youth Entrepreneurship

The study used three dimensions of youth entrepreneurship namely opportunity recognitions, resource competence and growth vision. Growth Vision is defined as the ability of entrepreneurs to inspire others to embrace the vision of the business at global level and become strong regardless of the competition. Resource competence is regarded as the ability to identify potential sources of funding and struggle to acquire resources for starting and expanding business in order to solve new challenges with the existing resources. Opportunity recognition is the ability of the entrepreneurs to detect and discover market needs and believe that external changes create opportunities for them.



## b) Dimensions of individual factors

The study employed five individual factors to examine their influence on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania (Table 4.3). The five antecedents are entrepreneurial learning, mindsets, networking, motivation and self-efficacy. With reference to conceptual framework and theories, the factors were tested whether they influence youth entrepreneurship or not. Each factor is a composite of several sub-dimensions.

Table 4. 3 Dimension of individual factors

| Factors                       | Description   | Sources  |
|-------------------------------|---|--|
| Entrepreneurial learning      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneurial Knowledge</li> <li>• Entrepreneurial Skills/Ability</li> </ul>   | Hunter & Lean, (2018), Kucel & Teodoro, (2017), Rae (2006)   |
| Entrepreneurial mindsets      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Innovativeness</li> <li>• Curiosity</li> <li>• Alertness</li> </ul>  | Naumann, (2017), Li, Harichandran, and Nocito-gobel (2018) Ireland et al., (2003)                  |
| Entrepreneurial networking    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Trust</li> <li>• Use of network</li> <li>• Team building</li> <li>• Communication</li> </ul>   | Sarbah & Xiao (2013), Bergh, Thorgren, & Wincent (2011) Neergaard (2005), Elfring & Hulsink (2007) |
| Entrepreneurial motivation    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Desire for Independence</li> <li>• Economic motivation</li> <li>• Need for achievement.</li> <li>• Recognition and status</li> </ul> | Kaur, (2018) Zeffane (2013) Jayawarna et al., 2013   |
| Entrepreneurial self-efficacy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Self-confidence</li> <li>• Proactive</li> <li>• Resilience</li> </ul>  | Drnovšek et al., (2010), Vantilborgh, Joly, & Pepermans (2015), Singh, 2011                        |

## 4.8 Pilot study

This work uses pilot study in order to test the questionnaire and identify any areas for the improvement that would be needed in the questionnaire. Scholars underscore the need for the pilot study because it helps find out how respondents will respond to the questions (Quinlan, 2011) and ensures the functioning of research instruments (Pallant, 2016; Bryman & Bell, 2003). In other words, the pilot study gives an advance warning of

potential areas that might affect the main research, determining the resources and logistics needed, familiarization with research protocol and context. The results of the pilot test formed the basis of a revised version, which became the final questionnaire. In nutshell, the pilot study sets the basis for testing validity and reliability of the study instrument by testing its adequacy.

The pilot study was conducted in Zanzibar, Tanzania by involving self-employed youth mostly benefited from entrepreneurship training. About 40 questionnaires were distributed, out of which only 36 questionnaires were returned. However, 32 questionnaires equal to 80 percent of all questionnaires were entered in the SPSS programme for analysis used for analysis, and four questionnaires were discarded because of their incompleteness.

Before the analysis, data were checked for type error and missing by minimum and maximum command. Four missing data were found in questions 35, 84, 90 and 93, thereby corrected by filling them. Questions 38 and 55 were detected with typos, which were then corrected. This process was very fundamental in ensuring quality data for data analysis. The pilot study tested reliability and validity of instruments, whereas overall Cronbach's Alpha was 0.86, which is above the 0.70 threshold, hence reliability of instrument was realized. After the cleaning of the data, the normality test was re-run to confirm whether data were good or not. The box plot was used to check any outliers in the dataset. Skewness and Kurtosis were below the -2 to +2 thresholds. Lastly, the pilot study confirmed that all variables were correlated which are basis for father data analysis.

## 4.9 Data Analysis Technique

Data analysis is an important aspect in the research process since it is through data analysis that research questions and hypotheses get answered. Data analysis starts with data entry into statistical software, preparing and transforming data into variables, checking the quality and describing them. Once these steps are completed, a researcher can use it for hypothesis testing and answering research questions. Therefore, this section will follow such a sequence, starting with data preparation and transformation, checking data quality and ending up with hypothesis testing.

### 4.10 Preparing and transforming the data

To do data analysis, there is a great need to prepare data ready for such purposes by checking and testing validity and their reliability. The procedures and analysis were performed using SPSS AMOS 23. The SPSS software developed by IBM is the main software used for all main steps in data analysis. The data cleaning and transformation is performed using SPSS before being exported to Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS)-SEM for further analysis. AMOS-SEM was utilized as it employed a multivariate data analysis method allowing the researcher to approach a complex model with many relationships contained within.

AMOS was used because assumptions underlying the statistical analyses are clear and testable, giving the investigator full control and potentially furthering understanding of the analyses; graphical interface software boosts creativity and facilitates rapid model

debugging (a feature limited to selected SEM software packages); provides overall tests of model fit and individual parameter estimate tests simultaneously; measurement and confirmatory factor analysis models can be used to purge errors, making estimated relationships among latent variables less contaminated by measurement error (Arbuckle, 2012). The data was entered into the SPSS to check any typographic error or missing values that will distort the data analysis process. This was done by running minimum and maximum checking for detecting any error during data entry.

Once the data is checked, the data transformation process becomes important to enable researchers to conduct further analysis. It is a process of replacing each data value by a different number to facilitate statistical analysis (Siegel, 2106). According to Hair et. al (2003) data transformation is procedure of changing original form of data to a new format in order to achieve certain research objective such as transform question into variables (Variable = question 1+ question 2+ question 3...) or variables into summated score (Summated score= variable 1+ variable 2+ variable 3). For this case, the questions were transformed into variables thereby changing ordinal into interval which allows further statistics analysis such as correlation and regression analysis, ANOVA and MANOVA as well as Conjoint Analysis (Hair et. al, 2003).

#### 4.11 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis started with indicating responses rate as compared number of distributed questionnaires and answered by the respondents. Descriptive analysis also was used to present demographic characteristics of respondents in terms of gender, age,

education and experiences. Distribution of respondents by sectors and training was also presented.

#### 4.12 Validity and Reliability Assessment

Tests for the reliability of the instrument are carried out and the validity of the measure is established as follows:

##### 4.12.1 Reliability

The study conducted a reliability test for questions and variables to assess the accuracy and consistency of scales. Reliability is based on the assumption that the observed measurement score includes a true score- the accurate degree of an individual's level of construct (Schjoedt et.al, 2014). It ensures consistent measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument (Kumar et al 2013), consistency of research findings (Hair at. al, 2003). Reliability is done through item analysis and internal consistency reliability test as follows:

##### *a) Item Analysis*

According to (Sekaran (2005), item analysis is mostly carried out to see if the items in the instrument belong there or not. Each item is examined for its ability to discriminate between those subjects whose total scores are high and those with low scores. Therefore, the study tested item analysis through the t-value, whereas the means between the high-score group and the low-score group were tested to detect significant differences. The items with a high t-value (test which is able to identify the highly discriminating items in the instrument) were then included in the instrument.

#### *b) Internal Consistency Reliability Tests*

Internal consistency assesses the correlation between multiple items in a test that are intended to measure the same construct (Sekaran (2005). The reliability test used in analysing internal consistency of measurement should have minimum Cronbach Alpha  $> 0.7$  to be accepted (Hair et al., 2003). To test for internal consistency in AMOS, the Composite Reliability (CR) is used to determine the reliability of the constructs. The value of CR is required to be above the value of 0.6 to achieve an acceptable level of reliability. Other than CR, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) index is also examined to check for reliability. The average percentage of variation that is being explained by the items of a construct should be above 0.5 to establish for reliability.

#### 4.12.2 Validity

Validity in essence is concerned about whether the correct construct is being measured. That is, how well does the instrument measure the particular concepts it is supposed to measure. It is of utmost importance to determine the accuracy of the scales in order to assess the extent to which the proposed construct has been captured. Assessing measurement validity is critical to the interpretation of substantive relationship in youth entrepreneurship and important for substantive and theory development (Schjoedt et al., 2014). It is the extent to which a test measures what is actually wanted to be measured (Hair et al., 2003). In research, validity can be measured into internal and external validity. Internal (contextual) validity measures the appropriateness of the instruments whereas the external validity focuses on the ability to generalize the findings to the target population. Sekaran (2005) proposes procedures of measuring different types of validity such as

construct validity, convergent and discriminant validity as well as concurrent validity as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4 Testing validity of measurement

| Testing  | Types   | Measuring Procedure             |
|----------|---|---------------------------------|
| Validity | Construct validity                            | Factor analysis                 |
|          | Convergent validity and discriminant validity | Correlational analysis          |
|          | Concurrent validity                           | Scores between different strata |

Sekaran (2005)

#### a) *Content Validity*

Content validity refers to as the extent to which a measure represent all facets of a certain construct. Testing of content validity is used to ensure that constructed items meet the requirement of the constructs under the study (Schjoedt et.al, 2014). Thus, content validity focuses on content of the test, questionnaires. The test tried to answer the question “Does the measure adequately measures the concept?” In order to ensure content validity of the questionnaire, it was first pre-tested and reviewed based on content, grammar, syntax, spelling, integration and comprehensibility by a professor in the Graduate School of Business, Universiti Tun Abdul Razak and peer view of the researchers.

### *b) Factor analysis*

It is multivariate technique that confirms the dimensions of the concept that have been operationally defined, as well as indicating which of the items are most appropriate for each dimension (establishing construct validity). It is used to describe variability among observed, correlated variables in terms of a potentially lower number of unobserved variables called factors. Therefore, factor analysis examines such joint variations in response to unobserved latent variables. The observed variables are modelled as linear combinations of the potential factors, plus "error" terms. The factor loading of a variable quantified the extent to which the variable is related to a given factor. The purpose of factor analysis is ensure interdependence of observed variables which later on help reduce the set of variables in a dataset. The study used exploratory factor analysis at pilot study to identify complex interrelationships among items and group items that are part of unified concepts and later used confirmatory factor analysis to test a measurement model whereby loading on the factors allows for evaluation of relationships between observed variables and unobserved variables

### *c) Construct validity*

Construct validity is used to assess the quality of instruments and related how well the theoretical constructs of causes and effects reflect the real-world context as construed in the intended model (Sekaran (2005). Constructs used in this study were adopted from theories such as entrepreneurial cognitive theory and human capital theory. Construct validity was further tested through convergent and discriminant analysis.



*d) Convergent and Discriminant Validity*

Convergent validity and discriminant validity mostly used to show correlation of measures used within the construct. Meanwhile, concurrent validity measures the relationship between the constructs made and existing tests. To achieve discriminant validity, the Average variance extracted should be higher than the squared roots of the value of Average variance extracted (ASV) and AVE should be higher than maximum shared variance (MSV).

*e) Criterion validity*

Criterion validity is established when the measure differentiates individuals on a criterion it is expected to predict. In other words, it entails the extent to which a measure is empirically associated with relevant criterion variables, which may either be assessed at the same time (concurrent validity), in the future (predictive validity), or in the past (postdictive validity). It usually focuses on the correlation of the test being validated with some well-respected outside measure(s) of the same objectives or specifications. Therefore, the test tried to answer this question “Does the measure differentiate in a manner that helps to predict a criterion variable?”

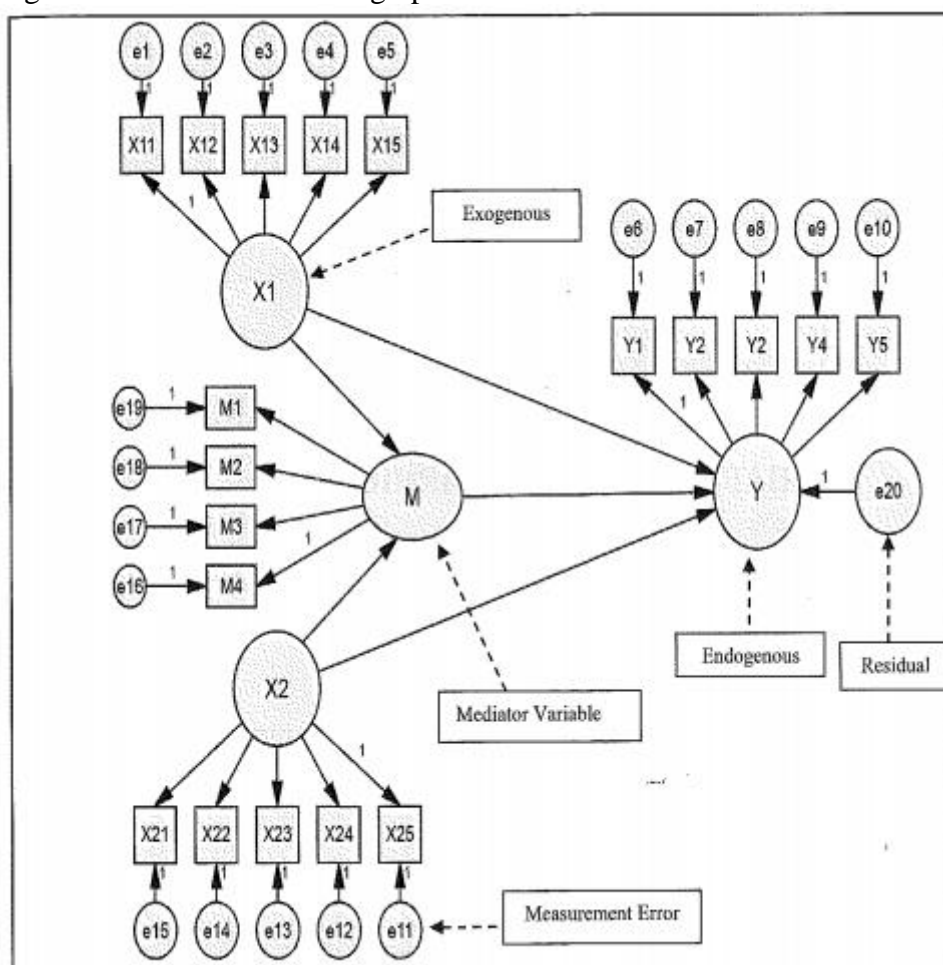
#### 4.13 Measurement Model

Measurement of the model was done through AMOS Graphics 23 using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for ensuring reliability and validity of measures. CFA is a special form of factor analysis, most used in social research. It is used to test whether measures of

a construct are consistent with a researcher's understanding of the nature of that construct (or factor). Therefore, CFA is aimed at whether the data fit a hypothesized measurement model. It is important to understand that CFA analyses require the researcher to hypothesize, in advance, the number of factors, whether or not these factors are correlated, and which items/measures load onto and reflect which factors.

AMOS is used for Covariance Based - Structural Equation Modelling (CB-SEM) to examine a series of dependence relationships simultaneously. CB-SEM is helpful in providing a straightforward method in dealing with multiple relationships and with statistical efficiency. SEM is also capable of representing unobserved concepts in relationships and account for measurement error in the estimation process (Hair, et al., 2017). It uses a graphic interface, with overall tests of model fit and individual parameter estimate tests simultaneously. It has the ability to fit non-standard models. CB-SEM is used to account for reflective measured constructs which forms part of the model Figure 4.1

Figure 4. 1 Model in AMOS graphics



The latent constructs in the AMOS environment are represented in oval shapes. While latent constructs are constructs which cannot be measured directly as it is a hypothetical concept in nature, the observed variable is a variable that can be measured directly. Observed variables are indicators for the latent variable and are represented as rectangles in the AMOS environment. To run a SEM model, the issue of sample size is of particular importance as it affects various aspects of the interpretation of results. The minimum sample size may depend on several factors including model complexity and communalities in each factor (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al., (2010) proposed for a sample of between 100

and 150 for SEM models containing five or fewer constructs, each with more than three items (observed variable) and with high item communalities ( $> 0.6$ ). From past research, a general rule of thumb for a reasonable sample size is 200 for SEM research (Zainuddin, 2014).

In AMOS, model fit indexes are used to determine validity of constructs. CB-SEM was used in establishing an appropriate measurement model and examining the hypothesized structural relationship among variables. The process of the measurement model begins with the examination for unidimensionality followed by validity and reliability tests. Model fit indexes include Absolute fit, Incremental Fit and Parsimonious Fit as shown in Table 4.5

Table 4.5 Category of fitness and indexes

| <b>Fitness Category</b> | <b>Index</b>                                    |
|-------------------------|---|
| Absolute Fit            | Discrepancy Chi Square (Chisq)                  |
|                         | Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) |
|                         | Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)                     |
| Incremental Fit         | Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI)                 |
|                         | Comparative Fit Index (CFI)                     |
|                         | Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)                        |
|                         | Normed Fit Index (NFI)                          |
| Parsimonious Fit        | Chi Square/ Degrees of Freedom (Chisq/df)       |

Parsimonious fit measures present indices that make it possible to examine the fit of competing models on a common basis. Chi Square/ Degrees of Freedom (Chisq/df) is a common measure of parsimonious fit. Chi Square is a traditional measure for evaluating overall model fit and, ‘assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices’(Arbuckle, 2012).

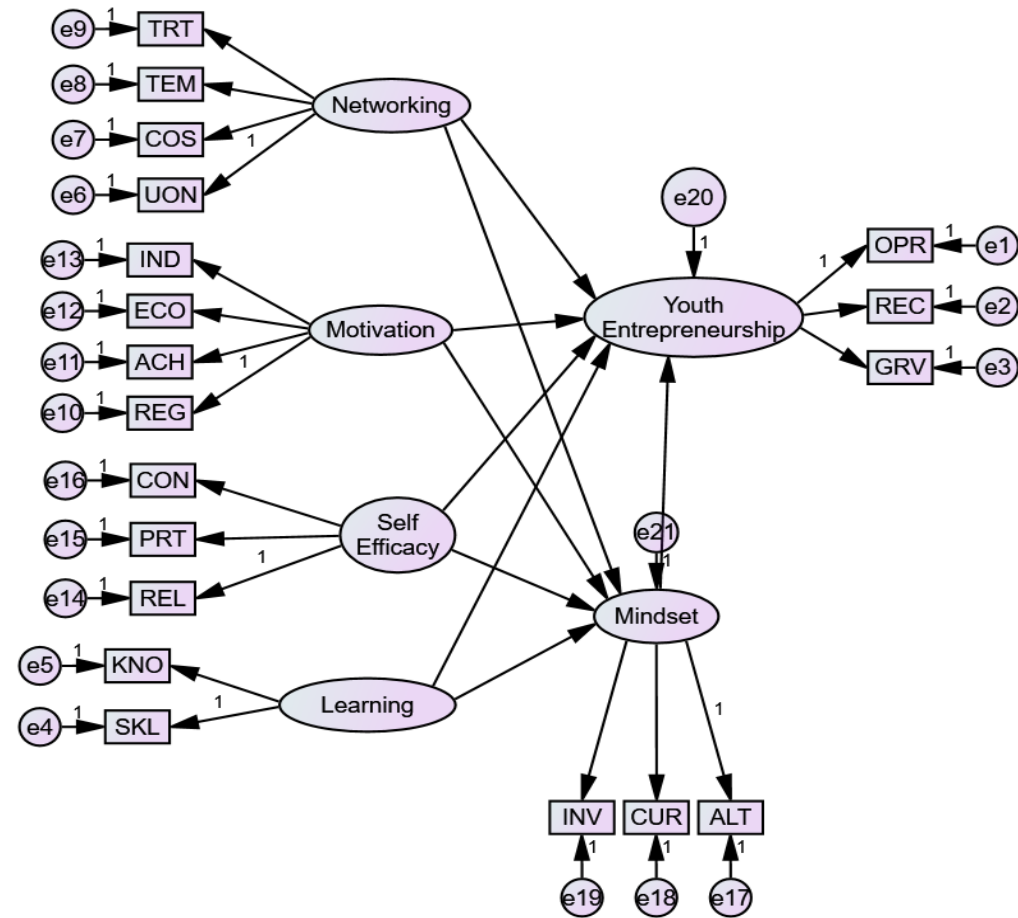
Absolute fit measures determine how well the a priori model fits or reproduces the data. The absolute fit measures include Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) and Goodness of Fit Index (GFI). RMSEA avoids issues of sample size by analysing the discrepancy between the hypothesized model, with optimally chosen parameter estimates, and the population covariance matrix. Recommendations for RMSEA cut-off points, the lower limit is close to 0 while the upper limit should be less than 0.08. GFI is a measure of fit between the hypothesized model and the observed covariance matrix, with a value of over 0.9 generally indicating acceptable model fit (Arbuckle, 2012)...

Incremental fit measures are sometimes called relative fit indices including a factor that represents deviations from a null model; these are sometimes called comparative indices. Common fit index (CFI) is most common index used in incremental fit measures with cut-off points above 0.9, other include Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Normed Fit Index (NFI) (Arbuckle, 2012).

#### 4.14 Structural model

Hypothesis testing was done through structural equation modelling. CB-SEM was used in examining the hypothesized structural relationship among constructs. The value of the paths connecting the constructs with a single-headed arrow represents the regression's beta weights. Critical values that are above 1.96 indicate the path coefficient to be statistically efficient. Figure 4.2 indicates the research framework, which guides in hypothesis testing. Therefore, it is done to decide whether the results of a study indicate a real relationship between variables, or if the results simply show the random fluctuation that would be the result of chance.

Figure 4. 2 Structural Model



#### 4.15 Hypotheses testing

Hypothesis testing was done to answer a set of hypotheses established as a part of understanding the problem. The purpose of hypothesis testing is to determine accurately if the null hypothesis can be rejected in favour of the alternate hypothesis. Hypothesis testing was done through structural equation modelling in AMOS.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter analyses data on youth entrepreneurship as proposed in chapter four on methodology of the study. This chapter focuses on the cleaning and transforming of data; measurement model and structural model for hypothesis testing using SPSS AMOS software (version 23). This chapter is structured into two sections: Section one presents an overview of the respondents' profile. Section two of this chapter enriches with quantitative findings answering three questions with their respective hypothesis as follows:

RQ1: What is the influence of the individual factors on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania?

RQ2: Which are the most significant factors associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania?

RQ3: Does entrepreneurial mindset play a mediating role in the relationship between entrepreneurial learning, self-efficacy, networking and motivation with youth entrepreneurship?

#### **5.2 Demographic Profile**

This section explores the overview of the respondents' profile. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed to the youths engaging in entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Out of them, 474 questionnaires equal to 94.8 percent were returned for data processing

and analysis. However, after data cleaning and checking outliers, the study used 450 questionnaires for data analysis.

The respondents were young entrepreneurs aged 18 to 35 years with different experience in entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The demographic profile of the respondents in this study consists of gender, age, highest academic qualification, entrepreneurial training, duration and sector of economy, forms of organisation and number of employees. The data was captured in Section A, question number 1 to 9, of the survey questionnaire used in this study. Respondents were asked to provide their background information by answering multiple-choice questions that were designed in the form of nominal scale and recorded into nominal values.

Analyses of frequency on the demographic variables of the respondents are shown in Table 5.1 and Table 5.2. A large majority of the respondents are male entrepreneurs, at 56.7 percent compared to 43.3 percent female counterparts. The largest respondent group is from the age group of between 30 to 35 years old having 32.2 percent and the second largest group is 20 to 25 years old having 32.4 percent. In general, the respondents of 26 to 35 years old occupy 56.4 percent as compared to 43.6 percent of those respondents with less than 20 to 25 years old.

In terms of education, entrepreneurs who are certificate holders are 39.8 percent compared with 23.3 percent of the respondents who have bachelor's degrees, followed by 22.2 percent with diploma education qualification. The highest level of education obtained by



the respondents is master's degree, who were very few, having 3.6 percent. In general, it was revealed that three quarters of the respondents are educated and knowledgeable. This is interesting findings as educated youth are now attracted to entrepreneurship, which provides a basis for socio-economic development of the country.

In experience, half of the respondents (50%) have 1 to 3 working experience in entrepreneurship, followed by less than one year (22.9%) in entrepreneurship. Meanwhile about 26.9 percent of the respondents have been engaging in entrepreneurship for over three years, and more experienced in the field.

Table 5. 1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

| Demographic variables |                   | Frequency<br>(n=450) | Percent |
|-----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------|
| Gender                | Male              | 255                  | 56.7    |
|                       | Female            | 195                  | 43.3    |
| Age                   | <20               | 50                   | 11.1    |
|                       | 20-25             | 146                  | 32.4    |
|                       | 26-29             | 109                  | 24.2    |
|                       | 30-35             | 145                  | 32.2    |
|                       |                   |                      |         |
| Education             | Certificate       | 134                  | 29.8    |
|                       | Diploma           | 100                  | 22.2    |
|                       | Bachelor's Degree | 105                  | 23.3    |
|                       | Master's Degree   | 16                   | 3.6     |
|                       | Others            | 95                   | 21.1    |
| Experience            | <1 year           | 103                  | 22.9    |
|                       | 1-3 years         | 226                  | 50.2    |
|                       | 4-6 years         | 62                   | 13.8    |
|                       | >6 years          | 59                   | 13.1    |
|                       |                   |                      |         |

The analysis also showed a large group of the entrepreneurs consisting 66.4 percent had entrepreneurship training as compared with 33.4 percent who were not trained in entrepreneurship. For those who got entrepreneurship training, 58.5 percent had less than three months followed by 32.8 who got between 3-4 months training, over 12 months (4.3%), 10 to 12 months (2.7%) and 7 to 9 months (1.7%). The largest group of entrepreneurs are sole appropriators at 63.3 percent compared with 36.5 percent in partnership business.

On the number of employees, a large group of the entrepreneurs (67.8 %) have no employees at all in their undertaking, while others have employees, ranging from 1 to 3 employees (20.2%), 4 to 6 employees (7.3%) and above 6 employees (4.7%). Findings therefore showed that although the large number of respondents are trained in entrepreneurship, they are still working alone without recruiting employees who can support them in their businesses.

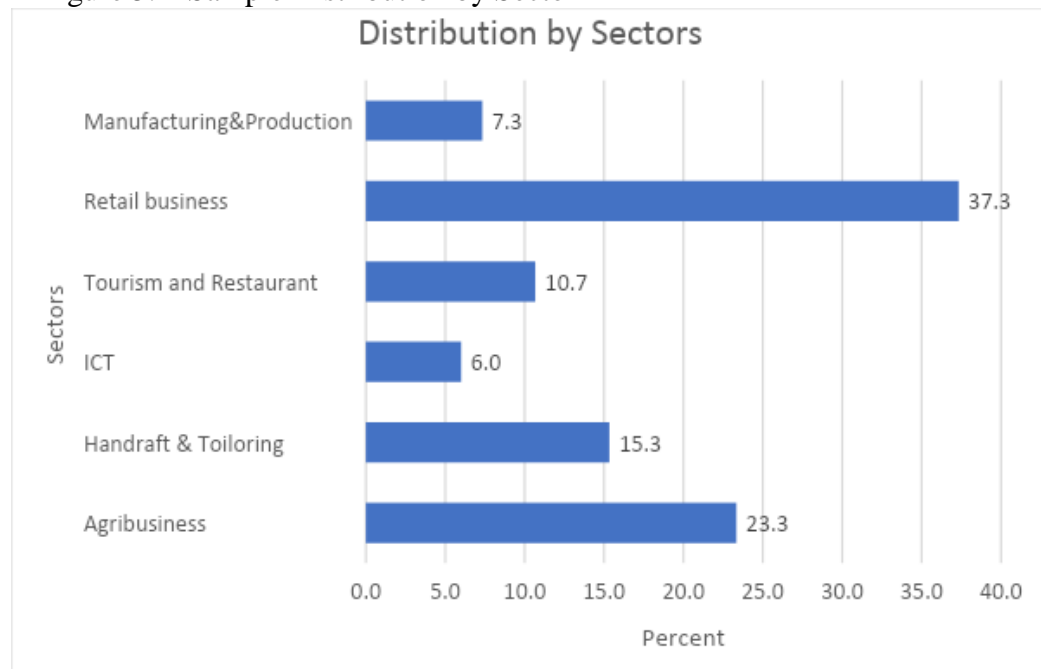
Table 5. 2 Sample Distribution by Training, Nature of business and Employees

|                          |              | Frequency<br>(n= 450) | Percent |
|--------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|---------|
| Entrepreneurial training | Yes          | 299                   | 66.4    |
|                          | No           | 151                   | 33.6    |
|                          |              |                       |         |
| Duration of the Training | <3 Months    | 175                   | 58.5    |
|                          | 3-4 Months   | 98                    | 32.8    |
|                          | 7-9 Months   | 5                     | 1.7     |
|                          | 10-12 Months | 8                     | 2.7     |
|                          | >12 Months   | 13                    | 4.3     |
|                          |              | 299                   | 100.0   |
|                          |              |                       |         |
| Nature of business       | Alone        | 285                   | 63.3    |
|                          | Partnership  | 165                   | 36.7    |
|                          |              |                       |         |

|                     |     |     |      |
|---------------------|-----|-----|------|
| Number of Employees | Nil | 305 | 67.8 |
|                     | 1-3 | 91  | 20.2 |
|                     | 4-6 | 33  | 7.3  |
|                     | >6  | 21  | 4.7  |

In sectors where entrepreneurs work (Figure 5.1), 37.3 percent of them work in retail business, followed by 23.3 percent in agribusiness, 15.3 percent in handcraft and tailoring, and 10.7 percent in tourism and restaurants, 7.3 percent in manufacturing and production and lastly 6.0 percent in Information Communication Technology (ICT).

Figure 5. 1 Sample Distribution by Sector



The study went further to conduct T-test to determine if there exist any significant differences between male and female young entrepreneurs with regards to youth entrepreneurship. Levene's tests showed p-value of greater than 0.05 and hence homogeneity of variances exists (one of the assumptions for independent group t-test). The t-value and corresponding p-value were found to be not significant at the 5% level of significance. Thus, it can be concluded that there exists no significant difference between

the means of male ( $M = 56.22$ ,  $SD = 7.05$ ) and female ( $M = 56.33$ ,  $SD = 6.83$ ) with regards to youth entrepreneurship. The magnitude of differences in the means (mean difference = 0.11) while eta value was 0.008 (eta square = 0.00006) indicating small effect size between male and female youth on youth entrepreneurship. The results are depicted in Table 5.4.

Table 5. 3 T- test for Gender, Training & Operations on Youth Entrepreneurship

|        | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances |       | t-test for Equality of Means |     |                |
|--------|---|-------|------------------------------|-----|----------------|
|        | F                                       | Sig.  | <i>T</i>                     | df  | Sig.(2-tailed) |
| Gender | 0.220                                   | 0.639 | -0.170                       | 448 | 0.865          |

The study also conducted analysis of variance to examine the differences of means between independent groups of more than two such as age, education, and entrepreneurial experiences. In addition to analysis of variance, a post-hoc analysis is also carried out to distinguish which of the groups are significantly different from another.

In the first set, Table 5.5 shows a significant difference of age in youth entrepreneurship. The results show significant differences between groups of various ages being detected ( $F(3,446) = 2.542$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ). This means that age is a determinant factor in youth entrepreneurship.

Table 5. 4 ANOVA for Age on Youth Entrepreneurship

| Variable   | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F     | Sig.  |
|--|----------------|----|-------------|-------|-------|
| Age  | 364.264        | 3  | 121.421     | 2.542 | 0.05* |
| *. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. |                |    |             |       |       |

In addition, the post-hoc analysis was conducted on various age groups and youth entrepreneurship. Using the Tukey Multiple Comparison Method, significant differences were found between the respondents from the under 20 years age group and 30-35 age group. The corresponding p-values were found to be significant at the 5% level ( $p < 0.05$ ). In other words, there was no significant difference to other age groups on youth entrepreneurship since there was violation of assumption  $p > 0.05$ .

Table 5. 5 Multiple Comparison of Means between Age Groups on Youth Entrepreneurship.

| Age Groups  |       | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. |
|---|-------|-----------------------|------------|------|
| <20   | 20-25 | -2.240                | 1.133      | .198 |
|   | 26-29 | -2.118                | 1.181      | .278 |
|   | 30-35 | -3.118*               | 1.134      | .031 |
| 30-35   | <20   | .878*                 | .810       | .700 |
|   | 20-25 | 1.000                 | .876       | .664 |
|   | 26-29 | -2.240                | 1.133      | .198 |
| * The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. |       |                       |            |      |

In the second set of tests, Table 5.7 shows a significant level of differences between entrepreneurs with different education qualifications ( $F(4,445) = 9.245$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This means that education is an important factor to enable youth to conduct entrepreneurship profitably.

Table 5. 6 ANOVA for Education Qualification on Youth Entrepreneurship

| Variable   | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F     | Sig.   |
|--|----------------|----|-------------|-------|--------|
| Education  | 1662.648       | 4  | 415.662     | 9.245 | 0.000* |
| *. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. |                |    |             |       |        |

The post-hoc analysis was conducted on different education qualifications and youth entrepreneurship. Using the Tukey Multiple Comparison Method, significant differences were found between the respondents with certificates against diploma and bachelor's degree, bachelor's degree and others, others and diploma. The corresponding p-values were found to be significant at the 5% level ( $p < 0.05$ ). In other words, there was no significant difference to other levels of education on youth entrepreneurship since there was violation of assumption  $p > 0.05$ .

In the third set of testing, entrepreneurial experience was tested to check if there is a significant difference between the groups on youth entrepreneurship. The results showed a non-significant difference between the number of employees and youth entrepreneurship. The corresponding p-values were found to be significant at the 5% level ( $p > 0.05$ ). In addition, there was no significant level of differences between entrepreneurs with different entrepreneurial experience on youth entrepreneurship since there was violation of assumption of  $p > 0.05$ .

Furthermore, using the Tukey Multiple Comparison Method, the post-hoc analysis of various entrepreneurial experiences was conducted and found youth entrepreneurship differences between entrepreneurial experiences to be weak. On further investigation, the assumptions of homogeneity of variance were violated which resulted in non-significant differences ( $F = 1.092$ ,  $\text{Sig} = 0.352$ ). Therefore, this research has shown that there are no significant differences between entrepreneurial experiences on youth entrepreneurship.

In summary, demographically, this study involved various age groups ranging from 20 to 35 years old, with different levels of education qualifications and experience in

entrepreneurship. Majority of respondents had access to entrepreneurial training and running entrepreneurial ventures themselves cutting across different sectors of the economy. This demonstrates that the study has been able to capture relevant and suitable respondents to further answer the problem and questions posed in this research. The findings show that there was an insignificant gender difference on youth entrepreneurship. This suggests that female and male youth do not differ substantially in youth entrepreneurship. As observed by (Nasiri & Hamelin, 2018) on study about effects of education, gender and occupation for Entrepreneurship Driven by opportunity and necessity in Middle East and North Africa (MENA), gender has no apparent effect on the motives for becoming an entrepreneur. However, Daoud, Sarsour, Shanti, and Kamal (2020) found females have more fear of failure in entrepreneurship and face great barriers in access to funding (Marques, 2017).

The study tested if there was any difference in age towards entrepreneurship and found significant difference towards entrepreneurship. This means that an increase with age entrepreneurs become more exposed with entrepreneurial opportunities. The finding concurred with (Lee & Vouchilas, 2016) who found that opportunities to start business increases with age due to higher accumulated socio and human capitals. Similarly, Kautonen, Down, & Minniti, (2014) found that entrepreneurial activity tends to increase almost linearly with age for sole proprietors but increases until late 40s and then decreases for people who aspire to hire workers (owner-managers) using European samples. However, Azoulay, Jones, Kim, & Miranda (2018) found that high growth entrepreneurship is associated with middle age starting 35years to 54 years.

The study also tested education differences among youth towards entrepreneurship. The study found significant differences in education on youth entrepreneurship. This finding suggests the significance of education on promoting youth entrepreneurship. The more educated youth engage in entrepreneurship, the more youth entrepreneurship thrives in the country. This is because formal education helps youth accumulate explicit knowledge and skills for entrepreneurship. Therefore, the mainstreaming of entrepreneurship education is essential to enable youth to become more entrepreneurial in thinking and actions. The finding advances more understanding of the role of education on entrepreneurship as proclaimed by Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1964) that investment in education increases productivity. The finding concurred with the study by Klyver & Schenkel (2013) who found different education qualifications have an impact on nascent entrepreneurship. However, other empirical studies found a non-significant link between education and entrepreneurship for the established business (Rotefoss, Beate and Kolvereid, 2005).

The study checked if there is a significant difference in entrepreneurial experience on youth entrepreneurship. The study found significant differences in entrepreneurial experiences on youth entrepreneurship. This implies that entrepreneurial experience is significant in youth entrepreneurship because it is a part entrepreneurial learning, understanding entrepreneurship dynamics. The findings provide more understanding on the role of entrepreneurial experience on entrepreneurship and support past empirical studies (Rotefoss, Beate and Kolvereid, 2005; Miralles, Giones, & Gozun, 2017; Vaillant & Lafuente, 2019; Peng, Zhou, & Liu, 2020). For instance, Vaillant & Lafuente (2019) found entrepreneurs become psychologically strong who manage to learn from both positive and negative experiences important for innovation, while Marvel, Wolfe, Kuratko,



and Fisher (2020) found entrepreneurial learning has impact on pre-launching customer learning and pre-technology learning affecting firm performance.

### 5.3 Correlation Analysis

The correlation analysis is employed to measure the strength of the association between numerical variables as well as the direction of the relationship. In interpreting the results, the value of (r) being closer to +1 or -1 and the direction of the relationship are noted. Referring to the analysis, Table 4, youth entrepreneurship engagement was positively correlated with entrepreneurial learning ( $r=0.431$ ,  $p<.01$ ), entrepreneurial mindset ( $r=0.431$ ,  $p<.01$ ), entrepreneurial networking ( $r=0.448$ ,  $p<.01$ ), entrepreneurial motivation ( $r=0.92$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and entrepreneurial self-efficacy ( $r=0.451$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

Table 5. 7 Correlation analysis

|                                  | Mean   | Std.<br>Deviation | 1      | 2      | 3      | 4      | 5      |
|----------------------------------|--------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Entrepreneurial Learning      | 27.118 | 4.958             |        |        |        |        |        |
| 2. Entrepreneurial Mindset       | 48.807 | 6.363             | .402** |        |        |        |        |
| 3. Entrepreneurial Networking    | 49.703 | 6.891             | .505** | .533** |        |        |        |
| 4. Entrepreneurial Motivation    | 46.239 | 5.755             | .332** | .479** | .486** |        |        |
| 5. Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy | 45.515 | 6.041             | .360** | .468** | .552** | .559** |        |
| 6. Youth Entrepreneurship        | 32.856 | 4.637             | .431** | .431** | .448** | .392** | .451** |

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### 5.4 Measurement model

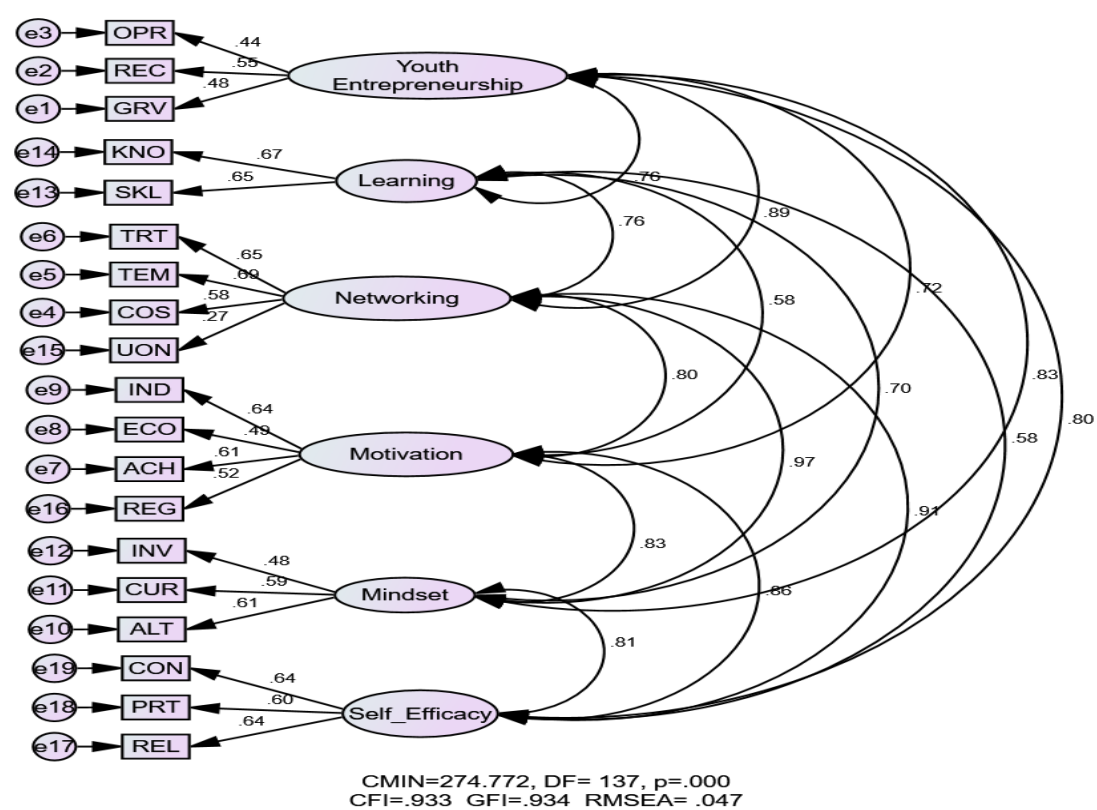
The measurement model of the constructs was done to determine whether indicators fit in the model. The analysis of measurement was done to six constructs with their respective variables. Confirmatory Factor Analysis using second order factors was therefore done to

verify the factors in the measurement model using AMOS software version 23 (Figure 5.2). CFA helps detect any problematic indicators in the construct.

The first high order technique was used to determine factor loading of items relevant to variables and then item parcelling was done for statistical reasons (Little et al., 2002) to group items into variables from respective constructs. All items with low factor loading were deleted. As a result, 9 items were grouped into opportunity recognition (OPR), growth vision (GRV) and resource competence (REC) to form youth entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial learning had 8 items which were grouped into entrepreneurial knowledge (KNO), and entrepreneurial skills (SKL). In addition, entrepreneurial networking had 14 items which was grouped into four variables namely trust (TRT), team building (TEM), communication skills (COS) and use of network (UON) whereas 12 items of entrepreneurial motivation were grouped into four variables; need for independence (IND), economic motivation (ECO), need for achievement (ACH) and recognition for social status (REG). Lastly, 12 items of entrepreneurial self-efficacy grouped into three variables namely self-Confidence (CON), proactive (PRT) and resilience (REL) while 13 items of entrepreneurial mindset were grouped into four variables namely, Innovativeness (INV), curiosity (CUR), and entrepreneurial alertness (ALT).

Once issues of unidimensionality are treated, reliability (composite reliability and average variance extracted) and validity (convergent validity, construct validity and discriminant validity) is examined for fitness of measurement model in the second order.

Figure 5. 2 CFA of Measurement Model



Reliability Test

Reliability examines the extent to which the measurement model is measuring the intended latent construct. To test for internal consistency in AMOS, the Composite Reliability (CR) is used to determine the reliability of the constructs. The value of CR is required to be above the value of 0.6 to achieve an acceptable level of reliability. The result of reliability analysis is shown in Table 5.10

Other than CR, AVE index is also examined to check for reliability. The average percentage of variation that is being explained by the items of a construct should be above 0.5 to establish for reliability. Referring to Table 5.8, the results from AMOS indicate the reading of CR and AVE value of all constructs to achieve the required reliability level of above 0.5. Hence, reliability is established.

Table 5. 8 Reliability Test

|   |                           | CR    | AVE   | MSV   | ASV   | 1            | 2            | 3             | 4            | 5            | 6     |
|---|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|-------|
| 1 | Youth Entrepreneurship    | 0.807 | 0.716 | 0.582 | 0.608 | <b>0.825</b> |              |               |              |              |       |
| 2 | Entrepreneurship Learning | 0.852 | 0.658 | 0.797 | 0.717 | 0.756        | <b>0.811</b> |               |              |              |       |
| 3 | Networking                | 0.801 | 0.716 | 0.937 | 0.626 | 0.763        | 0.893        | <b>0.7.22</b> |              |              |       |
| 4 | Motivation                | 0.734 | 0.720 | 0.734 | 0.670 | 0.577        | 0.718        | 0.802         | <b>0.766</b> |              |       |
| 5 | Mindset                   | 0.701 | 0.621 | 0.937 | 0.591 | 0.699        | 0.827        | 0.968         | 0.828        | <b>0.767</b> |       |
| 6 | Self-Efficacy             | 0.663 | 0.616 | 0.819 | 0.510 | 0.578        | 0.796        | 0.905         | 0.857        | 0.806        | 0.729 |

## Validity Test

The following step after establishing unidimensionality is to examine the three types of validity. Using SEM, the study starts by establishing the convergent validity first. The convergent validity of a construct is said to be established when AVE is 0.5 and above. All the constructs in the model achieve satisfactory AVE readings of 0.5 and above (Table 5.11).

The next validity measurement established is the construct validity through fitness indexes. Several indexes are used to check for fitness of a model: absolute fit, incremental fit, goodness of fit, and parsimonious fit.

The model fit used to test validity of measures include parsimonious fit, CMIN (Chi Square) was 274.772, while CMIN/DF was 2.006 within acceptable cut-off criteria of less than 3.00. For the case of Goodness of fit, GFI was 0.34 above 0.90 cut-off criteria. In the incremental fit category, the study measures it by utilizing the Comparative fit index (CFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Normed Fit Index (NFI) (Arbuckle, 2012).

The value for CFI was 0.933, AGFIA was 0.909, TLI was 0.916, and NFI was 0.976, all above 0.90 thresholds. The result of RMSEA was 0.047 within the cut-off point of less than 0.08. The results also show the relationship of all estimates are significant below 0.05 which confirmed convergent validity. Hence the model achieves the required level of acceptance for all the three fit indexes (Table 5.9).

To achieve **discriminant validity**, the Average variance extracted should be higher than the squared roots of the value of Average variance extracted (ASV) and AVE should be higher than maximum shared variance (MSV). Table 5.9 above shows that discriminant validity was achieved because the values of AVE are greater than ASV and values of AVE are greater than of MSV.

Table 5.9 Validity Test

| Model              | NPAR   | CMIN     | DF     | P      | CMIN/DF |
|--------------------|--------|----------|--------|--------|---------|
| Default model      | 53     | 274.772  | 137    | 0.000  | 2.006   |
| Saturated model    | 190    | 0.000    | 0.000  |        |         |
| Independence model | 19     | 2217.408 | 171    | 0.000  | 12.967  |
| <b>RMR, GFI</b>    |        |          |        |        |         |
| Model              | RMR    | GFI      | AGFI   | PGFI   |         |
| Default model      | 0.39   | 0.934    | 0.909  | 0.674  |         |
| Saturated model    | 0.000  | 1        |        |        |         |
| Independence model | 1.883  | 0.416    | 0.351  | 0.374  |         |
| <b>CFI</b>         |        |          |        |        |         |
| Model              | NFI    | RFI      | IFI    | TLI    | CFI     |
|                    | Delta1 | rho1     | Delta2 | rho2   |         |
| Default model      | 0.976  | 0.845    | 0.934  | 0.916  | 0.933   |
| Saturated model    | 1      |          | 1      |        | 1       |
| Independence model | 0.000  | 0.000    | 0.000  | 0.000  | 0.000   |
| <b>RMSEA</b>       |        |          |        |        |         |
| Model              | RMSEA  | LO 90    | HI 90  | PCLOSE |         |
| Default model      | 0.047  | 0.039    | 0.055  | 0.697  |         |
| Independence model | 0.163  | 0.157    | 0.169  | 0.000  |         |

### 5.5 Structural Equation Modelling

This section reports the results of the structural equation modelling to test the hypotheses. After the issues of validity and reliability have been addressed in the measurement model, the analysis then shifts to the structural model. The constructs established in the measurement model are constructed into a structural model using SEM for analysis. The latent are entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial networking, entrepreneurial motivation, and entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Entrepreneurial mindset is used as the mediation while youth entrepreneurship is used as the dependent variable.

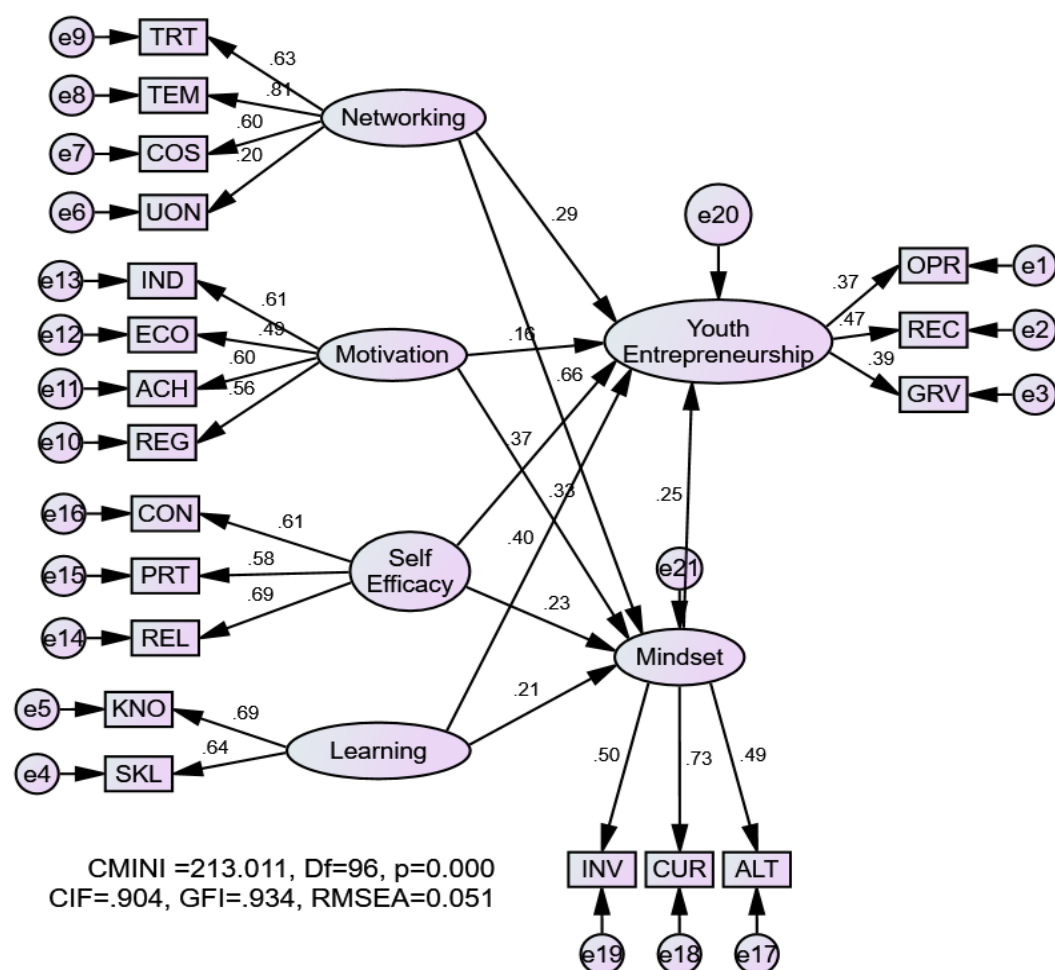
The results show that the RMSEA index was 0.051 which achieves the required level which is below the 0.08 recommended level. The CFI index from the incremental fit category also fulfils the required level as it is above the 0.9 level (0.904). Lastly, the Chi-square to degrees-of-freedom index of the parsimonious index was examined and found also to achieve the required level of below the 5.0 level threshold (Table 5.10). In conclusion, the finalized structural model achieves the level of fitness indexes required. After the model has been established to fulfil the underlying assumptions of the model fit, the coefficient parameter estimates are examined to test for the hypothesis H1 to H6.

Table 5. 10 Fitness Indexes Assessment for Structural Model

| Category index   | Index    | Index value | Comments               |
|------------------|----------|-------------|------------------------|
| Absolute fit     | RMSEA    | 0.051       | Required level achieve |
| Incremental fit  | CFI      | 0.904       | Required level achieve |
| Parsimonious fit | Chisq/df | 2.218       | Required level achieve |

A structural model was constructed where entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial networking, entrepreneurial motivation, and entrepreneurial self-efficacy as well as the mediating construct (Entrepreneurial Mindset) were hypothesized to influence youth entrepreneurship. The structural model was executed and the results with unstandardized estimates are presented in Figure 31.

Figure 5. 3 Structural Model



The chi-square of the model was 2.213 and found to be significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). Though some researchers may regard the model to be unacceptable, the large sample size and the complexity of the model affects the chi-square index. In a large sample size of over 200, the model may at times be rejected unfairly. Hence, the significance result of the model may have been affected by the large sample size and should not be interpreted in a strict sense.



## 5.6 Hypothesis Testing

The empirical results of the hypothesis testing determine whether the hypotheses are supported or not and will be used to answer RQ1: RQ1: To what extent have the individual factors influenced youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania? Five hypotheses are discussed in this section. Support for the hypotheses will allow the study to validate the research model.

Table 5.11 shows the results of hypothesis testing. The value of the paths connecting the constructs with a single-headed arrow represents the regression's beta weights. The result of  $R^2$  is 0.345 indicating that entrepreneurial learning, mindset, networking, motivation, and self-efficacy accounted for 34.5 percent of the variances in youth entrepreneurship, 65.5 percent explained by other factors.

Table 5. 11 Structural path analysis results (unstandardized)

| Hypothesis | Path |      |     | Estimate | S.E.  | C.R.  | P     |
|------------|------|------|-----|----------|-------|-------|-------|
| H1         | YE   | <--- | EL  | 0.245    | 0.045 | 3.922 | ***   |
| H2         | YE   | <--- | EN  | 0.349    | 0.035 | 4.621 | ***   |
| H3         | YE   | <--- | ESE | 0.149    | 0.040 | 3.703 | ***   |
| H4         | YE   | <--- | EM  | 0.117    | 0.04  | 0.376 | 0.707 |
| H6         | YE   | <--- | EMS | 0.128    | 0.037 | 3.486 | ***   |

**$R^2 = .345$ :** YE= Youth entrepreneurship, EL= Entrepreneurial learning, EN= Entrepreneurial Networking, ESE= Entrepreneurial self-efficacy, EM= entrepreneurial Motivation, EMS=Entrepreneurial Mindset

#### 5.6.1 Entrepreneurial Learning

**H1: Entrepreneurial learning positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

The first hypothesis states that entrepreneurial learning positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Based on the results it was found that entrepreneurial learning was significant in predicting youth entrepreneurship ( $\beta = 0.245$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), while the Critical Ratio (CR) is 3.922 above the 1.960 of the thresholds. This suggests that an increase in entrepreneurial learning positively impacts the development of youth entrepreneurship. Thus, higher youth entrepreneurship can be achieved when entrepreneurial learning activities are more supportive towards entrepreneurship. The results clearly indicate support for H1, suggesting that entrepreneurial learning has an influence on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

#### 5.6.2 Entrepreneurial Networking

**H2: Entrepreneurial networking positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

The second hypothesis states that entrepreneurial networking positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Based on the results it was found that entrepreneurial networking was significant in predicting youth entrepreneurship ( $\beta = 0.349$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Meanwhile, Critical Ratio (CR) is 4.621 above the 1.960 of the thresholds. Thus, a higher level of youth entrepreneurship can be achieved when youth are dexterous in entrepreneurial networking. The results clearly indicate support for H2, suggesting that entrepreneurial networking has influence on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

### 5.6.3 Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy

**H3: Entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

The third hypothesis states that entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Based on the results, it was found that entrepreneurial self-efficacy was significant in predicting youth entrepreneurship ( $\beta = 0.149$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Similarly, Critical Ratio (CR) is 3.703 above the 1.960 of the thresholds. Thus, there was enough evidence to support the H3 hypothesis that entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar Tanzania. This implies that entrepreneurial self-efficacy has influence on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

### 5.6.4 Entrepreneurial Motivation

**H4: Entrepreneurial motivation positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

The fourth hypothesis states that entrepreneurial motivation positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Based on the results it was found that entrepreneurial motivation was insignificant in predicting youth entrepreneurship ( $\beta = 0.117$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), as confirmed also by Critical Ratio (CR) of 0.376 below the 1.960 of the thresholds. Thus, a higher level of youth entrepreneurship can hardly be achieved when youth are entrepreneurially motivated. The results do not support H4, suggesting that entrepreneurial motivation does not influence youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

### 5.6.5 Entrepreneurial Mindset

#### **H6: Entrepreneurial mindset positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

The sixth hypothesis states that entrepreneurial mindset positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Based on the results it was found that entrepreneurial mindset being significant in predicting youth entrepreneurship ( $\beta = 0.128$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Similarly, Critical Ratio (CR) is 3.486 above the 1.960 of the thresholds. With the support of H6, it is established that when the youth possess entrepreneurial mindset, higher levels of youth entrepreneurship can be expected. The results clearly indicate support for H5, suggesting that entrepreneurial networking has influence on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar.

#### **Analysis of most predictive factors (RQ2)**

This section answers the second research question, RQ2: Which are the most significant factors associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania? Beta (standardized estimate) was used to determine the most significant factors on youth entrepreneurship (Table 5.12)

Table 5. 12 Structural path analysis results (Standardized)

| Hypothesis | Path |      | Estimate |       | S.E.  | C.R.  | P     |
|------------|------|------|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| H2         | YE   | <--- | EN       | 0.255 | 0.035 | 4.621 | ***   |
| H1         | YE   | <--- | EL       | 0.182 | 0.045 | 3.922 | ***   |
| H6         | YE   | <--- | EMS      | 0.175 | 0.037 | 3.486 | ***   |
| H3         | YE   | <--- | ESE      | 0.101 | 0.040 | 3.703 | ***   |
| H4         | YE   | <--- | EM       | 0.091 | 0.04  | 0.376 | 0.707 |

The results of this study show that entrepreneurial networking is the most significant factor associated with youth entrepreneurship ( $\beta = 0.255$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This suggests that entrepreneurial networking has much influence on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar Tanzania. Entrepreneurial learning was the second most significant factor associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar ( $\beta = 0.182$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This is interesting since today there is an increased influence of entrepreneurial learning on youth entrepreneurship. The third factor was entrepreneurial mindset ( $\beta = 0.175$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) followed by entrepreneurial self-efficacy ( $\beta = 0.101$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). However, entrepreneurial motivation was an insignificant factor in youth entrepreneurship ( $\beta = 0.091$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ).

### 5.7 Mediation analysis

This section uses mediation analysis to answer the third question: RQ3: Does entrepreneurial mindset play a mediating role in the relationship between entrepreneurial learning, self-efficacy, networking, and motivation with youth entrepreneurship?

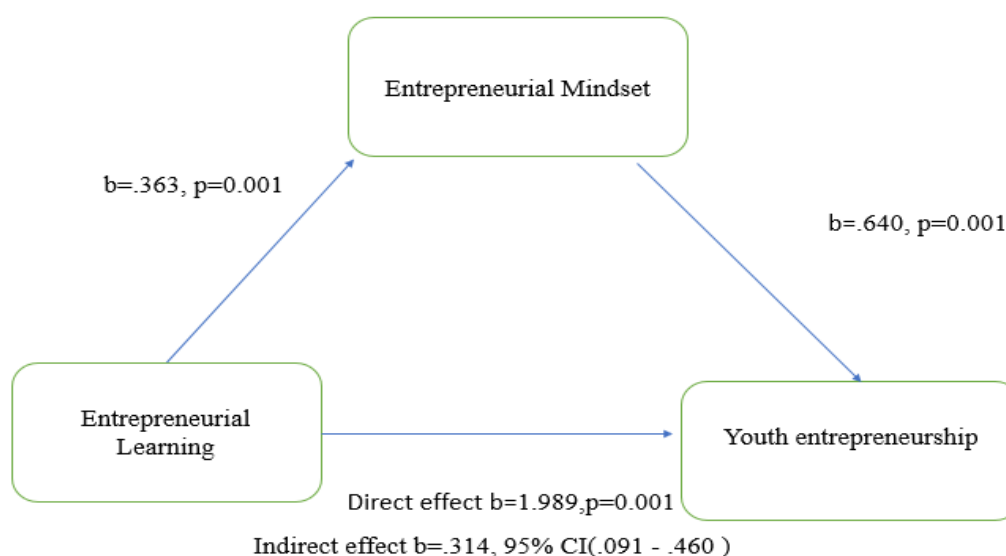
Mediation analysis is mostly used in social science to assess the mechanism in which an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y). The variable transmitting the influence of the independent variable onto the dependent variable is called the mediator (M), and the indirect effect through the mediator is called the mediated effect. The mediation analysis is used therefore to understand why or how the relationship between two variables happens. The mediator is an intervening variable that mediates the relationship between predictor X and an outcome Y.

In the mediation study by Baron and Kenny (1986) formulated specific steps and conditions to test and to ascertain whether the mediating effect is present in the model. Following the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach, we shall first look at the relationships of the variables together using the four steps process. In addition to that the study used bootstrapping confidence intervals to confirm the mediating effect of the tested variables. According to Shrout and Bolger, 2002, bootstrapping is a method based on multiple replacement resampling and it is gaining popularity to test indirect effects of the variable. A confidence interval is then calculated to ascertain if there is zero in the interval. If zero is not in the interval, then it is assured that the indirect effect is different from zero, that is, there is a mediation (Kenmy, 2018). Mediation analysis is done for hypotheses H5a to H5d as follows:

**H5a: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

The first set of relationships examined is the effect of exogenous variable (X) to endogenous variable (Y). The results show a positive and significant effect of entrepreneurial learning on youth entrepreneurship ( $b = 1.989$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) without the presence of the mediation. The mediator variable is then included in the model and tested for its direct effect and indirect effect. Figure 5.4 and Table 5.13 show the AMOS output for the relationship.

Figure 5. 4 Mediation effects of Entrepreneurial Mindset on Learning and Youth Entrepreneurship



In the analysis for direct relationship (Table 5.16), it was found that entrepreneurial learning has significant and positive direct effect on youth entrepreneurship. However, it should be noted that the direct effect from entrepreneurial learning to youth entrepreneurship has weakened when there is a presence of a mediator which is the entrepreneurial mindset. The indirect effect examined the relationships from entrepreneurial learning to entrepreneurial mindset and then from entrepreneurial mindset to youth entrepreneurship.

Table 5. 13 Direct and Indirect Effect of Entrepreneurial Learning with Entrepreneurial Mindset as Mediator

| Relationship           |      |          | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.  | P    | LCI, UCI   | Decision  |
|------------------------|------|----------|----------|------|-------|------|------------|-----------|
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Learning | .314     | .088 | 3.559 | ***  |            |           |
| Mindset                | <--- | Learning | .363     | .052 | 6.957 | ***  |            |           |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Mindset  | .640     | .177 | 3.611 | ***  | .091, .460 | Mediation |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Learning | 1.989    | .414 | 4.804 | ***1 |            |           |

\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , <sup>1</sup> Direct effect without mediation

The analysis shows the effect of entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship to be significant ( $b = 0.640$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ), also the effect of entrepreneurial learning on youth entrepreneurship is a positive and significant relationship ( $b = 0.344$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) and entrepreneurial learning on entrepreneurial mindset ( $b = 0.363$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Based on Baron and Kenny's method, it is concluded that there is a partial mediation as the direct effect is still significant, albeit weaker in strength after the entrepreneurial mindset construct enters the model.

To confirm the results, the bootstrapping procedure was employed to test for the indirect effect. Results in Table 5.13 showed that 0.091 and 0.460 respectively were the lower and upper confidence intervals determined by bias-corrected confidence intervals. The indirect effect and p value were 0.232 and 0.012, respectively. Since zero does not exist between the lower and upper confidence intervals that indicate the significant indirect effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, this supports the H5a hypothesis.

The second mediator hypothesis is:

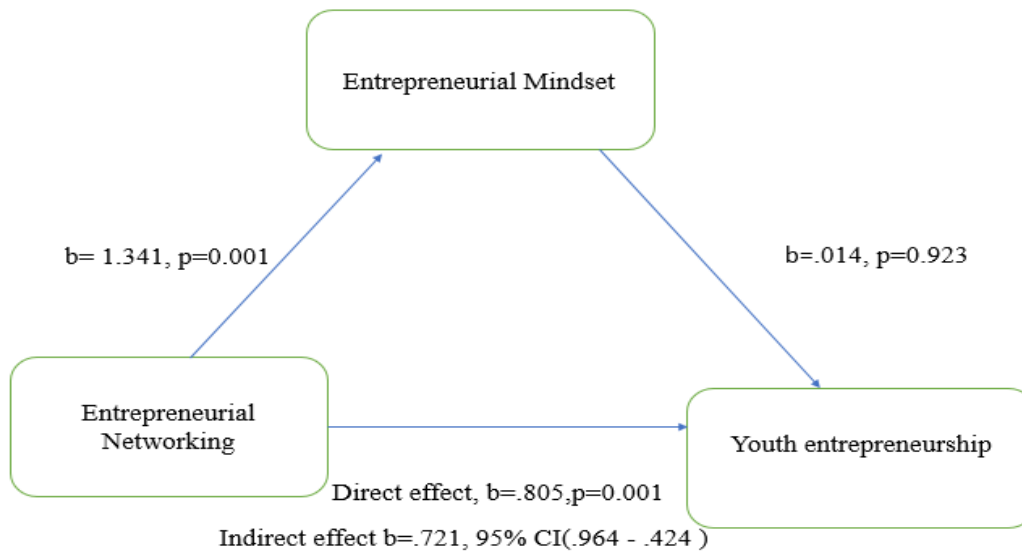
**H5b: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania**

Following the steps recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986), the first set of relationships examined is the direct effect without a mediator the effect of entrepreneurial



mindset on youth entrepreneurship. The result (Table 5.14) showed a significant direct effect of entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship ( $b = 0.805, p = 0.001$ ).

Figure 5. 5 Mediation effects of Entrepreneurial Mindset on Networking and Youth Entrepreneurship Relationship



In the second step, the mediator variable, entrepreneurial mindset is included to test for direct effect again. The result shows a significant relationship of entrepreneurial networking on youth entrepreneurship ( $b = 0.721, p = 0.002$ ).

The third and fourth step of the Baron and Kenny's approach is to examine the indirect effect of the mediation. The AMOS output is shown in Table 5.17. Initially, the relationship of entrepreneurial networking on Entrepreneurial mindset was first analysed and the findings concluded a significant relationship ( $b = 1.341, p = 0.001$ ). However, the relationship from the mediator (Entrepreneurial mindset) to the endogenous (youth entrepreneurship) variable was found to be insignificant ( $b = 0.014, p = 0.923$ ). Based on the above analysis, there is no support to the hypothesis of entrepreneurial networking being mediated by entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship.

Table 5. 14 Direct and Indirect Effect of Entrepreneurial Networking with Entrepreneurial Mindset as Mediator

| Relationship           |      |            | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.  | p                | LCI, UCI    | Decision     |
|------------------------|------|------------|----------|------|-------|------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Networking | .721     | .230 | 3.136 | .002             |             |              |
| Mindset                | <--- | Networking | 1.341    | .136 | 9.846 | ***              |             |              |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Mindset    | .014     | .145 | .097  | .923             | -.964, .424 | No Mediation |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Networking | .805     | .129 | 6.232 | *** <sup>2</sup> |             |              |

\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , <sup>2</sup> Direct effect without mediation

To confirm the findings, the bootstrapping approach is employed to further examine the relationship. Results in Table 5.14 showed -.964 and .424 respectively were the lower and upper confidence intervals determined by bias-corrected confidence interval. The indirect effect and p value were 0.019 and 0.929, respectively. Since zero exists between the lower and upper confidence intervals that indicate the insignificant indirect effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, there is no mediation occurring and there is no support for H5b.

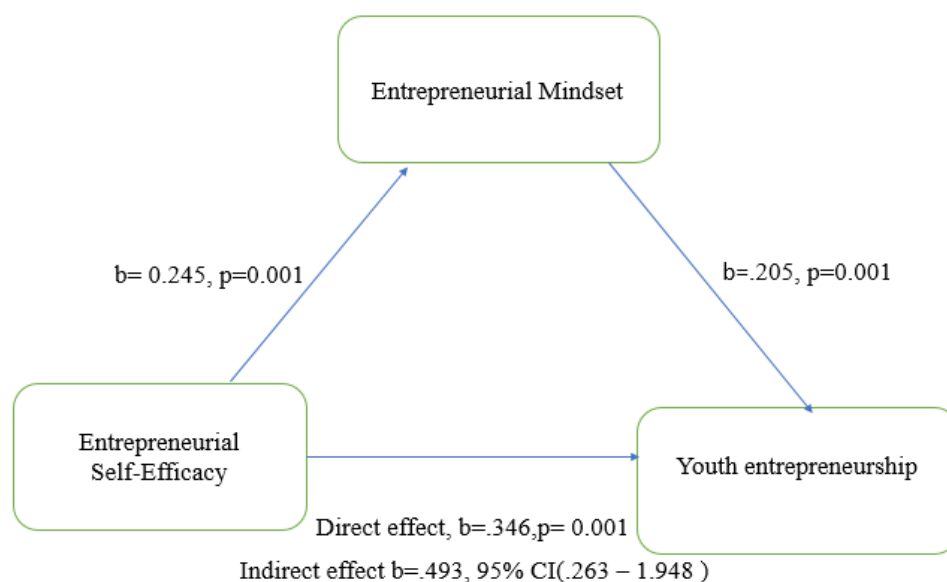
The third mediation hypothesis is:

**H5c: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

With reference to Baron and Kenny (1986), the first set of relationships examined is the direct effect without a mediator the effect of entrepreneurial mindset on youth

entrepreneurship. The result (Table 5.15) showed a significant direct effect of entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship ( $b = 0.346$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ).

Figure 5. 6 Mediation effects of Entrepreneurial Mindset on Self Efficacy and Youth Entrepreneurship relationship



In the second step, the mediator variable which is entrepreneurial mindset is included to test for direct effect again. The result shows a significant relationship of entrepreneurial self-efficacy on youth entrepreneurship ( $b = 0.493$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ).

Table 5. 15 Direct and Indirect Effect of Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy with entrepreneurial Mindset as Mediator

| Relationship           |      |               | Estimate | S.E.  | C.R.   | p                | LCI, UCI   | Decision  |
|------------------------|------|---------------|----------|-------|--------|------------------|------------|-----------|
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Self-Efficacy | 0.493    | 0.045 | 10.984 | ***              |            |           |
| Mindset                | <--- | Self-Efficacy | 0.245    | 0.036 | 6.837  | ***              |            |           |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Mindset       | 0.205    | 0.034 | 6.007  | ***              | .263,1.948 | Mediation |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Self-Efficacy | 0.346    | 0.033 | 10.488 | *** <sup>3</sup> |            |           |

\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , <sup>3</sup> Direct effect without mediation

The third and fourth step of the Baron and Kenny's approach is to examine the indirect effect of the mediation. The AMOS output is shown in Table 5.10. Initially, the relationship of entrepreneurial self-efficacy on entrepreneurial mindset was first analysed and the findings concluded a significant relationship ( $b = 0.245$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). In addition, the relationship from the mediator (Entrepreneurial mindset) to the endogenous (youth entrepreneurship) variable was found to be significant ( $b = 0.205$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Based on Baron and Kenny's method, it is concluded that there is a partial mediation as the direct effect is still significant, albeit weaker in strength after the entrepreneurial mindset construct enters the model.

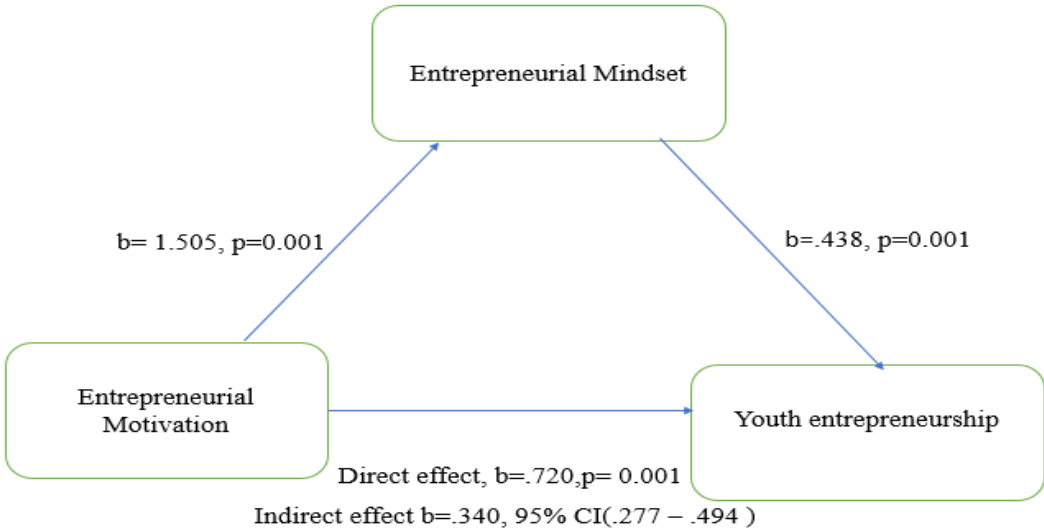
To confirm the findings, the bootstrapping approach is employed to further examine the relationship. Results in Table 5.15 showed 0.263 and 1.948 respectively were the lower and upper confidence intervals determined by bias-corrected confidence intervals. The indirect effect and p value were 0.101 and 0.001, respectively. Since zero does not exist between the lower and upper confidence intervals that indicated the significant indirect effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, there is mediation occurring and there is support for H5c.

The next mediation hypothesis is:

**H5d: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

With reference to Baron and Kenny (1986), the first set of relationships examined is the direct effect without a mediator the effect of entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship. The result (Table 5.16) showed a significant direct effect of entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship ( $b = 1.094, p = 0.001$ ).

Figure 5. 7 Mediation effects of Entrepreneurial Mindset on Motivation and Youth Entrepreneurship Relationship



In the second step, the mediator variable which is entrepreneurial mindset is included to test for direct effect again. The result shows an insignificant relationship of entrepreneurial motivation on youth entrepreneurship ( $b = 0.348, p = 0.132$ ).

The third and fourth step of the Baron and Kenny’s approach is to examine the indirect effect of the mediation. The AMOS output is shown in Table 5.19, whereby the relationship of entrepreneurial motivation on Entrepreneurial mindset is first analysed and the findings conclude a significant relationship ( $b = 1.505, p = 0.001$ ). In addition, the relationship from the mediator (Entrepreneurial mindset) to the endogenous (youth

entrepreneurship) variable was found to be significant ( $b = 0.438$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). Based on Baron and Kenny's method, it is concluded that there is a full mediation as the direct effect is insignificant, there is support to the hypothesis of entrepreneurial motivation being fully mediated by entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship.

Table 5. 16 Direct and Indirect Effect of Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy with entrepreneurial Mindset as Mediator

| Relationship           |      |            | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.  | p                | LCI, UCI   | Decision  |
|------------------------|------|------------|----------|------|-------|------------------|------------|-----------|
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Motivation | .348     | .231 | 1.506 | .132             |            |           |
| Mindset                | <--- | Motivation | 1.505    | .200 | 7.513 | ***              |            |           |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Mindset    | .438     | .126 | 3.480 | ***              | .277,1.494 | Mediation |
| Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Motivation | .720     | .112 | 6.409 | *** <sup>4</sup> |            |           |

\*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , <sup>4</sup>Direct effect without mediation

To confirm the findings, the bootstrapping approach is employed to further examine the relationship. Results in Table 5.16 showed 0.27 and 1.494 respectively were the lower and upper confidence intervals determined by bias-corrected confidence intervals. The indirect effect and p value were 0.659 and 0.013, respectively. Since zero does not exist between the lower and upper confidence intervals that indicate the significant indirect effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, there is mediation occurring and there is support for H5d.

## 5.8 Summary of hypothesis testing

The chapter started with hypothesis testing using AMOS version 23. The findings show only two hypotheses (H4 and H5b) had not enough evidence to support the claims. Table 5.17 shows the summary of results of the hypotheses testing.

Table 5. 17 Summary of hypothesis testing

|     | <i>Hypothesis</i>   | <i>Results</i> |
|-----|---|----------------|
| H1  | Entrepreneurial learning positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.  | Supported      |
| H2  | Entrepreneurial networking positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania   | Supported      |
| H3  | Entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.   | Supported      |
| H4  | Entrepreneurial motivation positively predicts Youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.  | Not Supported  |
| H5a | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. | Supported      |
| H5b | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania    | Not Supported  |
| H5c | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania | Supported      |
| H5d | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania    | Supported      |
| H6  | Entrepreneurial mindset positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania  | Supported      |

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This study examined individual factors influencing youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. Once after the analysis of the findings, there is a great need to make a through discussion of the findings and link it with empirical studies and theories. Therefore, the chapter discussed the major findings of this study with reference to research questions in line with hypotheses. This is important to ensure the logical flow of the arguments and link of the issues. The chapter also discussed the theoretical and managerial contribution of the study, highlighting limitations, areas for further studies and ending up with conclusion. The subsequent sections offer discussions of the findings addressed by the following research questions: -

RQ1: What is the influence of the individual factors on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania?

RQ2: Which are the most significant factors associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania?

RQ3: Does entrepreneurial mindset play a mediating role in the relationship between entrepreneurial learning, self-efficacy, networking, and motivation with youth entrepreneurship?



## 6.2 Discussion of Research Questions

The discussion of findings is based on three major research question with the respective hypothesis as follows: -

### 6.2.1 Research Question

RQ1: What is the influence of the individual factors on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania? To answer the first research question, five hypotheses were presented as listed in Table 6.1

Table 6. 1 Result of hypothesis testing

|    | <i>Hypothesis</i>   | <i>Results</i> |
|----|---|----------------|
| H1 | Entrepreneurial learning positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.      | Supported      |
| H2 | Entrepreneurial networking positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania   | Supported      |
| H3 | Entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. | Supported      |
| H4 | Entrepreneurial motivation positively predicts Youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.    | Not Supported  |
| H6 | Entrepreneurial mindset positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania        | Supported      |

#### **H1: Entrepreneurial learning positively predicts youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

In the first hypothesis, entrepreneurial learning was examined in its effect on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The finding provides enough evidence to support the hypothesis. It was found that the more the entrepreneurs inclined in entrepreneurial learning, the higher youth engage in entrepreneurship. This implies that as young entrepreneurs apply entrepreneurial learning, the more development of youth entrepreneurship in the country. This provides a message for the promotion of

entrepreneurial learning to increase youth entrepreneurship in the country. It also translates the positive outcome of efforts taken by various stakeholders and institutions in the provision of entrepreneurial education and training to young entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurial learning is particularly important to youth in providing knowledge and skills not only on acquiring resources and opportunities of their entrepreneurial ventures but also managing the venture effectively. Entrepreneurial learning builds an entrepreneurial competence (Markman, 2007), youth entrepreneurs who are more knowledgeable and skilled have a higher chance to perform well in business. They are able to understand the industry they are operating and product or services they are rendering in (Mathews, 2016). As argued by (Sondari, 2014) that entrepreneurial learning helps entrepreneurs spot opportunities and mobilize resources for starting business whereas Ravasi & Turati, (2005) associated entrepreneurial learning with promotion of innovation in entrepreneurial activities (Ravasi & Turati, 2005). Entrepreneurial learning also has a positive indirect effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial alertness and business model innovation of enterprises (Zhao et al., 2020).

This finding is consistent with human capital theory which underscores the need for investing in education and training for improving productivity (Becker, 1964). In entrepreneurial perspective, investing in entrepreneurial learning enhances new venture formation, performance and survival (Dimov, 2017). Therefore, this finding supports the argument by Minniti and Bygrave (2001:7) that entrepreneurship is a learning process that entrepreneurs acquired through experience and doing, which lays a foundation for creating

and discovering opportunities. Therefore, this study provides evidence on the need for understanding entrepreneurial learning as a critical component in the design of enterprise education and entrepreneurship training.

The support of H1 confirms previous study of Prianto, Zoebaida, Sudarto, & Hartati, (2018) that found entrepreneurial learning improves students' entrepreneurial intention for starting business after graduation. A study by Funken, Gielnik, and Foo (2018) found that entrepreneurial learning has a positive and significant contribution to venture progress. The argument is that with increased entrepreneurial learning, young entrepreneurs might develop their ventures progressively. Similarly, the findings by Zhang, Wei, Sun, & Tung (2019) done in Hong Kong using theory of planned behaviour found that entrepreneurial learning has a positive contribution to entrepreneurial intention of university students. However, Ekanem (2015) found a difference in entrepreneurial learning experience between male and female entrepreneurs. Male entrepreneurs adopted a double-loop learning process by challenging and staying away from industrial norms while female entrepreneurs adopted a single-loop learning of engaging much on routine learning which helps develop confidence.

As argued early in this study, most entrepreneurial learning studies are based on the entrepreneurial intention of students (Beliaeva et al., 2017). Therefore, this study goes beyond the intention level and found that entrepreneurial learning still has a positive influence on practices of youth who engage in entrepreneurship. This means, development of youth entrepreneurship is also contributed much by the promotion of entrepreneurial learning.

## **H2: Entrepreneurial networking positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

In the second hypothesis the variable entrepreneurial networking was examined in its effect on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The finding provides enough evidence to support the hypothesis. It was found that the more the entrepreneurs develop entrepreneurial networks, the higher they play in youth entrepreneurship. This implies, youth entrepreneurship becomes more effective through interaction of different players such as business partners, suppliers, family members, customers, employees, bankers, mentors and others in struggling for an access of more resources and opportunities of entrepreneurial ventures.

This finding advances our understanding on the role of entrepreneurial networking on youth entrepreneurship, being very important to youth in accessing resources and opportunities for development of entrepreneurial ventures. As argued by Carsrud & Brännback (2007) that entrepreneurial networking differentiates between successful entrepreneurs from non-successful ones. Successful entrepreneurs capitalize on the use of a network to build entrepreneurial ventures and they are active listeners and approve every contact with an open mind (Allen, 2009). Entrepreneurial networking provides moral support, institutional support, communication support and social support to entrepreneurs in their undertaking (Farooq et al., 2018).

The finding is consistent with social network theory which provides a due importance of the relationship of actors as a bridge for accessing resources and opportunity to

entrepreneurs (Granovetter, 1973). In principle, social network theory emphasizes the need for establishing connections for leveraging opportunity to the given resources at disposal (Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986).

The support of H2 confirms previous study of Semrau and Werner (2014) that entrepreneurial networking had a positive relationship on access to start-up resources. The study found nascent entrepreneurs in Germany benefited in their relationship with other actors. However, the study found a curvilinear relationship between networks and resource acquisition, suggesting that the more extending network size and relationship, the diminishing marginal return of resource. Similarly, the study by Jenssen and Koenig (2002) on the impact of network ties on access to resources and success of business start-ups in Norway found that strong ties are a gateway for information than that of weak ties on access to finance.

Therefore, this study confirms the significance of entrepreneurial networking on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. Young people should be taught on how to start and manage networks because young entrepreneurs have small networks and use less time networking in the early stage than the latter stages (Greve, 1995). A study by Wakkee, Hoestenbergh, & Mwasalwiba (2017) in Tanzania found that social capital is a critical conversion factor for improving entrepreneurial capability of graduates. The study found that many graduates have interests to engage in entrepreneurship, but few who have powerful connections i.e., social capital are able to benefit from technological and financial conversion factors towards entrepreneurship. John (2016) argued that useful network

depends on the ability of entrepreneurs to interact effectively with others which in turn influence the performance of business as concurred by Kazungu (2020) that network linkage had positive influence on the performance of handicrafts-exporting micro and small enterprises (MSEs) in Tanzania.

**H3: Entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

This study tested the influence of entrepreneurial self-efficacy on youth entrepreneurship. However, it was found that entrepreneurial self-efficacy has significant influence on youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, there was enough evidence to support the hypothesis. This means that entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively predicted youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. This suggests that young entrepreneurs have self-efficacy that could translate well in development of entrepreneurship.

Finding is consistent with social cognitive career theory which asserts that self-efficacy determines one's capability to organize and exercise the course of actions. Bandura (1986) contends that self-efficacy is a person's belief about his/her capabilities to achieve something. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy is associated with entrepreneurial investment decision (Cassar & Friedman, 2009), entrepreneurial orientation of small-scale entrepreneurs (Mohd et al., 2014) and strategic decision making (Forbes, 2005).

Therefore, this study confirms the significance of entrepreneurial self-efficacy on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. In broad terms, it shows that entrepreneurship is a daunting task to engage in, which requires self-efficacy to perform well. Self-efficacy is dynamic in nature built through enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience or modelling, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal.

Empirical studies showed entrepreneurial self-efficacy has significant and positive contribution on entrepreneurial behaviour and intention. Kannadhasan, Charan, Singh, and Sivasankaran, (2018) found significant and positive effects of self-efficacy on new venture creation. This suggests that new venture creation depends on someone's self-efficacy, the belief on the capacity to create new ventures. In the study by Kalitanyi and Bbenkele (2019) about the role of self-efficacy on entrepreneurial intention in Cape Town, South Africa, they found a significant and positive relationship between the variables.

#### **H4: Entrepreneurial motivation positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

This study aims at testing entrepreneurial motivation as a positive predictor of youth entrepreneurship. The study tested this hypothesis because Jahn and Geissler (2016) emphasized the need of testing entrepreneurial motivation beyond the new venture creation stage. The empirical results of this study indicated that the hypothesis is not significant and hence the hypothesis has found no supportive evidence.

Finding of this study is inconsistent with the theory of expectancy that explains motivation influences not only intention on firm creation, but also goes to efforts, task performance and time spent on the task (Renko, Kroeck, & Bullough, 2012). Scholars observed that motivation is seen as an activator, a latent intention to action towards venture creation (Carsrud, Brännback, 2011; Estay, Durrieu, & Akhter, 2013). The main assumption is that youth are motivated into entrepreneurship to increase financial success, independence and needs for achievement. This assumption has been supported by Solesvik (2013), Santoso & Oetomo, (2018) that higher entrepreneurial motivation highly influences individuals to be entrepreneurs and has a strong relationship with entrepreneurial intention. In addition, Santos, Caetano, and Curral (2013) noted that entrepreneurial motivation is the driving force behind action in the entrepreneurial process from opportunity identification, resource mobilization to venture creation and growth.

The non-significant result of this study confirms past empirical studies that indicate the direct effect of entrepreneurial motivation on entrepreneurial activities resulting in inconsistent results, and sometimes depends on a mediator/moderator to be more effective. For instance, the study by Vik and Mcelwee, (2011) on the effect of entrepreneurial motivation on diversification of business activities found that different motives for growth result in different types of diversification. Moen, Heggeseth, and Lome (2016) provide evidence on the profound effect of growth motivation on Small Medium Enterprise (SME) on the contingent international orientation of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs' firm without international orientation despite a strong growth motivation, the firm struggles to grow. In this study, entrepreneurial motivation becomes more effective when mediated by entrepreneurial mindset on relationship with youth entrepreneurship.



The non-significant finding of this study could be due to the low consideration of youth on motivational aspects such as independence and needs for achievement instead of focusing on market of the products, profits, and growth of their ventures. Due to low experience in entrepreneurship, once young entrepreneurs establish ventures, they have big tasks of branding and strengthening networks with different actors as well as ensuring growth of the ventures. The insignificant results also can be attributed to the nature of research, cross-sectional study where the researcher collected data once. Owing to the fact that motives of entrepreneurs change in different phases of endeavours (Murnieks et al., 2020), cross-sectional study might miss the link of influence of motivation on performance.

Another explanation for the insignificant result of this study is through viewing entrepreneurial motivation into necessity and opportunity entrepreneurs. Majority of entrepreneurs in least developed countries are regarded as necessity entrepreneurs rather than opportunity entrepreneurs. Necessity entrepreneurs tend to have low aspiration levels and start a business because other employment options are either unsatisfactory or absent. As a result, most of them fail to reach their potential for innovation and growth. The opposite is true, opportunity entrepreneurs are driven by opportunities in creating business and reach their potential for innovation and growth (Eijdenberg, Paas, & Masurel, 2015). This finding provides room for more research not only understanding entrepreneurs' motivation characteristics but also their impact on entrepreneurship development in Zanzibar, Tanzania.

Nevertheless, research based on entrepreneurial motivation shows its significant contribution on innovation behaviour and performance. A study by Cachon, Codina, Eccius-Wellmann, McGraw, and Myers (2013) shows that economic survival was a major motive for Mexican business while Canada and U.S respondents were much inclined to intrinsic reward. Gundolf, Gast, and Géraudel (2017) analyzed the impact of entrepreneurial motivation on diversified innovation behaviour of start-ups in France and found its significance on diversified innovation behaviour of start-ups. In a meta- analysis, Collins, Locker, & Hanges (2004) found that achievement motivation had positive correlation with both choice of entrepreneurial career and performance. In general, as observed by Gundolf et al., (2017) many studies on entrepreneurial motivation focus on venture formation rather than subsequent stages. Indeed, many studies used entrepreneurial motivation at firm level rather than individual level with exception of intention studies.

**H6: Entrepreneurial mindset positively influences youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

In the sixth-hypothesis entrepreneurial mindset was examined in its effect on youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The finding shows support for the hypothesis. It was found that the more the entrepreneurs developed entrepreneurial mindset, the higher they play in youth entrepreneurship. This implies that youth entrepreneurship becomes more effective when youth develop entrepreneurial mindset, be capable of innovation, risk taking, be entrepreneurially alert and curious with opportunities and resources of the venture.

This finding increases our understanding of the role of entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship. As argued by (Njeru, 2012) that youth with entrepreneurial mindset respond and interpret the business environment creatively. Kuratko et al (2020) argues that entrepreneurial mindset helps and empower an individual to come up with new ideas, solve problems and develop solutions and action to grasp opportunity.

The finding is consistent with entrepreneurial cognition theory that entrepreneurial mindset can help youth navigate under an uncertain environment, and be resilient to changes (Smith, Mitchell, & Mitchell, 2009). Scholars argue the need of instilling entrepreneurial mindset to students and youth through practical training and education (Bosman, 2019; Zupan, Cankar, & Setnikar Cankar, 2018; Bellotti et al., 2014). There is a great benefit of investing in entrepreneurship education on the promotion of entrepreneurial mindset of the students (Handayati, Wulandari, Soetjipto, Wibowo, & Narmaditya, 2020; Solesvik, Westhead, Matlay, & Parsyak, 2013). In Zanzibar, entrepreneurial education is taught at higher learning institutions; it has not yet been incorporated in primary and secondary education.

The support of H2 confirms previous studies on the role of entrepreneurial mindset on business performance. Njeru (2012) found that entrepreneurial mindset significantly influences business performance in Kenya. Contrarily, Neneh (2012) found SEMs in South Africa did not perform well because of a lack of entrepreneurial mindset.

### 6.2.2 Research Question 2

RQ2: Which are the most significant factors associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania?

The study was interested in determining the most significant individual factors associated with youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar Tanzania. The study used standardized estimates (Beta) from SEM to rank the influence of individual factors on youth entrepreneurship as shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6. 2 Key Individual Factors on Youth Entrepreneurship

| Rank |                        |      |               | Estimate | S.E.  | C.R.  | P   |
|------|------------------------|------|---------------|----------|-------|-------|-----|
| 1    | Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Networking    | 0.255    | 0.035 | 4.621 | *** |
| 2    | Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Learning      | 0.182    | 0.045 | 3.922 | *** |
| 3    | Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Mindset       | 0.175    | 0.037 | 3.486 | *** |
| 4    | Youth Entrepreneurship | <--- | Self-Efficacy | 0.101    | 0.040 | 3.703 | *** |

The results show that among the four signification factors on youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial networking was the most significant factor ( $\beta=0.255$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), followed by entrepreneurial learning ( $\beta=0.182$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), entrepreneurial mindset ( $\beta=0.175$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and lastly entrepreneurial self-efficacy ( $\beta=0.101$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

The finding of this study shows that young entrepreneurs can use networks to develop entrepreneurship activities. In reality, Zanzibar is a small collective society whereby its citizens have much interaction and know each other. Therefore, practically it is not surprising to see someone start a business without having capital, instead through

networking or referral can start the business. What is important then is the trust of entrepreneurs who are given the goods or capital to start entrepreneurial ventures. Sabatini, Modena, & Tortia (2014) noted that trust is economically beneficial because it acts as the conduit of business in reducing transaction costs, and facilitates the enforcement of contracts, credit provision, innovation and investment in human and physical capital. Mehta, Semali, & Maretzki (2011) found that trust is an important factor affecting women's social network and livelihood in Tanzania.

### 6.2.3 Research Question 3

RQ3: Does entrepreneurial mindset play a mediating role in the relationship between entrepreneurial learning, self-efficacy, networking, and motivation with youth entrepreneurship?

To answer this question, four hypotheses were tested to validate the mediation role of entrepreneurial mindset on youth entrepreneurship. This study responded to a call for testing entrepreneurial mindset as a mediating variable in entrepreneurship (Nabi, et al., (2017)). The testing hypotheses were on mediating role of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between; entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship and lastly entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship. Table 6.3 shows the hypotheses and then discussion of each hypothesis as follows:

Table 6. 3 Hypotheses Testing of Mediation Role of Entrepreneurial Mindset

|     | <i>Hypothesis</i>   | <i>Results</i> |
|-----|---|----------------|
| H5a | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. | Supported      |
| H5b | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania    | Not Supported  |
| H5c | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania | Supported      |
| H5d | Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania    | Supported      |

**H5a: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

This study tested whether entrepreneurial mindset had an indirect effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship. The results provide enough evidence to support the H5a. This means that entrepreneurial mindset explains the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship. The analysis shows that entrepreneurial mindset creates a mediation model of the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurial mindset has gained popularity in entrepreneurship research because mindsets help comprehend how entrepreneurs perceive, behave and value entrepreneurship. Importantly, it is asserted that entrepreneurial mindset can be learned and developed which in turn have a positive impact on venture growth (Naumann, 2017). According to Kurczewska et al., (2018), a person with an entrepreneurial mindset is ready

for continuous learning, self-education, and embracing changes, which are very important for facing an uncertain business environment.

The finding of this study is consistent with entrepreneurial cognition theory which explains the knowledge structure enabling entrepreneurs to navigate in uncertain business environments and exploit opportunities different than non-entrepreneurs through constant learning (Smith, Mitchell, & Mitchell, 2009). Professor Dweck has made a significant contribution to our understanding of the role of mindset and learning towards positive education outcomes. According to her, a person with a growth mindset has a positive perception of learning which consequently obtains good results (Dweck, 2006). Similarly, scholars have underscored the importance of mindset on shaping an individual's behaviour and teach (Rae & Melton, 2016). In connecting mindset and learning, Kurczewska et al., (2018) noted that transformative learning experience enables individuals to shift from a more novice mindset to a more expert mindset.

The empirical studies on the mediating role of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship is still evolving. Wulandari, Soetjipto, Wibowo, & Narmaditya, (2020) found that EMS significantly mediated the relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intention. Empirical evidence of this study confirms the importance of entrepreneurial learning and entrepreneurial mindset in youth entrepreneurship, and the significance of this study in entrepreneurship context. Therefore, we can promote entrepreneurial mindset through scaling up efforts of improving entrepreneurship education and training in the country.

#### **H5b: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania**

This study tested whether entrepreneurial mindset had an indirect effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. There was not enough evidence to support H5b of mediating effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. This means that entrepreneurial mindset does not explain the relationship between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. This study showed that entrepreneurial networking plays a great role towards youth entrepreneurship without the indirect effect of entrepreneurial mindset. In other words, entrepreneurial mindset has failed to create a mediation model of entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship. This is referred to as direct-only non-mediation, the direct effect is significant but not the indirect effect (Hair, Hult, Ringle, Sarstedt, 2017).

This result is inconsistent with the argument that mindset is seen as a malleable strategy for interacting with the environment (Gollwitzer, 1990; Mathisen & Arnulf, 2014). This means an entrepreneurial mindset helps entrepreneurs to interact easily with different actors in the business environment. Töytäri et al.,( 2018) noted that managers use business mindset in the business network to facilitate the successful adoption of smart services.

Because of evolving empirical studies being conducted for entrepreneurial mindset as a mediator between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship, the finding filled the knowledge gap on that relationship. This study therefore provides empirical



evidence on the mediation effect of entrepreneurial mindset on nexus between entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship, and create a need to conduct more empirical studies on this dimension

**H5c: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

This study aims at testing the mediating effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship. This study found that entrepreneurial self-efficacy was significant with intervention of entrepreneurial mindset. Entrepreneurial mindset was significant in the relationship with youth entrepreneurship. This indicates that entrepreneurial mindset has a partial mediation effect on the model. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy became significant through the indirect effect of entrepreneurial mindset towards youth entrepreneurship.

Finding of this study shows that entrepreneurial mindset is a very important aspect of enabling young entrepreneurs to engage in entrepreneurship. It is important to understand that self-efficacy is conditional to other factors such as socialization and socio-cultural practices of society. According to Mauer, Neergaard, and Linstad (2009), immediate responses, somatic markers, have an impact on someone's decision. That is, if youth engage in entrepreneurship and fail, but responses from family or society discourage them because of the failure that dilutes their self-efficacy. There is a need to build youth with entrepreneurial mindset in tandem with boasting self-efficacy through enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience or modeling, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal.

This result supports the empirical studies by Ngek (2015) which examined the mediating role of EMS on the relationship of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and small business performance in South Africa. The study found that EMS influences firm performance and fully mediates the relationship between self-efficacy – performance relationship.

**H5d: Entrepreneurial mindset positively mediates relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.**

This study tested the mediating effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship. This study found that entrepreneurial motivation was insignificant with intervention of entrepreneurial mindset. However, entrepreneurial mindset was significant in the relationship with youth entrepreneurship. This indicates that entrepreneurial mindset has a full mediation effect on the model of entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship.

Findings of this study help show that entrepreneurial mindset is a very effective intervening variable on the functioning of entrepreneurial motivation towards youth entrepreneurship. Youth can engage well in entrepreneurship if they are imbued with an entrepreneurial mindset which supports their entrepreneurial motivation. This suggests that promotion of entrepreneurial mindset would help boost the role of entrepreneurial motivation in youth entrepreneurship. Scholars in neuroscience associate intrinsic motivation to growth mindset (Ng, 2018) while extrinsic motivation on economic rewards or material achievement (Guzmán & Santos, 2001).

Scholars on mindset at education psychology and personality provides empirical evidence that intervention of mindset results to motivation towards actions (Burgoyne, Hambrick, Moser, & Burt, 2018; Schroder, Moran, Donnellan, & Moser, 2014; Yeager & Dweck, 2012; Chirila & Constantin, 2016). Rhew, Piro, Goolkasian, and Cosentino (2018) found that growth mindset intervention had significant differences in motivation on improving adolescent special education.

However, studies of entrepreneurial mindsets as mediators are evolving, little is known on its mediating effects on the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship. This study has filled the knowledge gap on the mediating role of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship relationship. This study therefore provides empirical evidence on the mediation effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the nexus between entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship.

### 6.3 The Study Contributions

#### 6.3.1 Theoretical Contribution

Nascence of literature in this area has allowed an empirical gap to exist between individual factors and youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. Firstly, this study made significant empirical contributions to the concepts by testing theoretical linkage between these constructs that had not previously been tested. The study validated a framework for youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar Tanzania. With the exception of entrepreneurial motivation, entrepreneurial learning, networking, self-efficacy and mindset are important factors towards youth entrepreneurship.

Secondly, this study also contributed to understanding youth entrepreneurship from the behaviour dimension using cognitive theories. Unlike many studies which focused on the intention of students towards entrepreneurship by adopting Theory of Planned Behaviour, this study examined behaviour of youth in entrepreneurship. As recommended by Fayolle (2014) on the need for entrepreneurship research to focus on behaviour of real-life entrepreneurs, this study contributed to few behavioural studies on entrepreneurship which are of great need to understand the practices of youth in entrepreneurship. In other words, behavioural studies help understand how youth internalize entrepreneurship education and training in their undertakings. Therefore, this current study has established the nature of the relationship of the constructs of entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial networking, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial motivation to youth entrepreneurship mediated by entrepreneurial mindset.

Thirdly, this study has also determined the extent to which entrepreneurial mindset mediates the relationship between two relevant constructs. Findings showed three mediating roles of entrepreneurial mindset in the relationship between exogenous constructs of individual factors and endogenous constructs of youth entrepreneurship.

- a) The study showed entrepreneurial mindset partially mediates the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship. This implies that a change in entrepreneurial learning results in a change of entrepreneurial mindset which in turn changes youth entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial mindset governs the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship.

- b) The finding showed entrepreneurial mindset fully mediate relationship entrepreneurial motivation and youth entrepreneurship. This brings a significant understanding for us on how entrepreneurial mindset indirectly influences youth motivation to engage in entrepreneurship.
- c) The finding also showed that there is partial mediation effect of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy youth entrepreneurship. This means with the introduction of entrepreneurial mindset in the relationship indirectly affects the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship.

This study contributed to new insights about youth entrepreneurship and its antecedents which were previously unexplored, and the findings and implications can be promising and invaluable to the field of entrepreneurship.

### 6.3.2 Managerial Contribution

This study has focused and re-emphasized on the influence of individual factors towards youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The implications from the findings of this study are many. First, progress on youth entrepreneurship studies can be made. Youth entrepreneurship is an important strategy of addressing youth employment and private sector development in the country. This study therefore has shown major factors for the development of youth entrepreneurship. The framework generated in this study is a good start to understanding youth entrepreneurship. Though it is still not fully understood, the empirical support from this study is an important step towards scholarly discussion on this cornerstone of entrepreneurship studies.

Second, based on the findings, it was confirmed that entrepreneurial learning is a critical aspect in youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar Tanzania. The current education system in delivering entrepreneurship courses has very much been teacher-centric, passing down known knowledge and theories from the books to students. To cultivate the right entrepreneurial mindset and cognitive processes, steps need to be taken to go beyond the books to develop critical thinking skills and build real-life experiences. As shown in the findings of this study, entrepreneurial learning is a cognitive ability which improves youth entrepreneurship. To maintain a high level of knowledge and skills, it is imperative for the entrepreneurs to constantly upgrade their knowledge through seminars, workshops, conferences, exhibitions, forums, and any other networking means.

Relevant to various entrepreneurship training and academic teaching programs, this study provides useful information in training on youth entrepreneurship. An increase in youth unemployment necessitates mainstreaming of entrepreneurship education in different levels, from primary, secondary education to higher learning institutions. Efforts should start to build on a child's natural curiosity and give them positive association with themes such as children's rights, saving and enterprise. Findings of this study therefore provide inputs for entrepreneurship curriculum in higher learning institutions and mainstreaming of entrepreneurship in primary and secondary schools. The entrepreneurship curriculum should be geared into promoting entrepreneurial culture by 1) understanding attitude, awareness, and aspirations towards entrepreneurship among youth, 2) promoting role models, 3) Youth business fairs, expositions, and competitions, and 4) Public relations campaigns, internet, and media coverage.

This study has confirmed that entrepreneurial networking is a critical aspect in youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar Tanzania. The implication of the finding suggests that an entrepreneur should maintain a loose and diverse network structure increasing the number of weak ties within. Active participation and maintaining memberships in relevant professional bodies, technical groups, support groups and government-linked programs can be fruitful.

Third, there is a clear implication on development of entrepreneurship policy in Zanzibar Tanzania. Of recent, there is no entrepreneurship development policy in Zanzibar, which results in poor coordination of entrepreneurship intervention. Entrepreneurship policy creates a conducive environment to support and develop start-ups in the country. Scholars have differentiated between entrepreneurship policy and SME policy. The latter focuses on already established micro, small and medium-sized enterprises while the former is based on the stages before, during and immediately after start-ups. Entrepreneurship will also help re-engage unemployed or marginalized youth in economic activity. The policy will provide a framework for coordination among stakeholders and specify the role of public and private institutions in the implementation of the policy.

Findings of this research also provide inputs to development of entrepreneurship development programme (EDP) in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The EDP will bring together key stakeholders and work towards inculcating entrepreneurship skills to youth in Zanzibar, Tanzania. Currently, there are miss-coordinated entrepreneurship projects conducted by

different individuals and institutions. However, these projects are donor oriented and time bound which constrain sustainability and greater impact to the community.

Fourth, the study has shown that entrepreneurial self-efficacy is an important predictor of youth entrepreneurship. It is therefore important to build and enhance youth's entrepreneurial self-efficacy because it enables youth to exert efforts in promoting their business and adopt coping mechanisms for addressing challenges. The evidence from this study shows the need to promote self-efficacy to youth to be confident enough to engage in entrepreneurship.

Fifth, the presence of the entrepreneurial mindset has also been proven in this study to be significant. According to (Naumann, 2017), entrepreneurial mindset enables entrepreneurs to cope with a rapid, dynamic, and uncertain business environment. The result of this study necessitates the need to inculcate an entrepreneurial mindset among students and entrepreneurs. Schools, colleges, and universities have a role to play to orient students with entrepreneurial mindset that help them to engage in entrepreneurship productively.



#### 6.4 Limitations

Despite some intriguing findings, there are several limitations present in this study, which warrants investigations and can be referenced by future studies. This study focused on young entrepreneurs who engage in entrepreneurship. In the process of data collection, respondents had different entrepreneurial experiences, of whom some had just started entrepreneurship activities. During the study, there were cases where the entrepreneurs declined to take part in the survey.

The study failed to show the relationship between entrepreneurial motivations and youth entrepreneurship. However, the past studies have shown the relationship between the entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial intention. Therefore, there is a need for more studies on understanding the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Studies reporting on the mediation role of entrepreneurial mindset on entrepreneurship and youth entrepreneurship in particular are still early evolving, which hardly enable drawing comparison. There is a need for more empirical studies on mediating the role of entrepreneurial mindset on the relationship between: entrepreneurial learning and youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial networking and youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial self-efficacy and youth entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial motivation, and youth entrepreneurship.

Lack of one database of young entrepreneurs in the country made the selection of individual entrepreneurs cumbersome. The study focused on individual young entrepreneurs who were kept in different databases which might result in multiple appearances. Therefore, the researcher had to integrate the database to avoid multi-counting. However, some of the entrepreneurs who were in the database were not accessible because of unreliable contacts and others had already left entrepreneurship and become employees in public or private institutions.

The sampling of this study was taken from different sectors. Although the results from this study may be applicable across sectors in general and benefit from better understanding of youth entrepreneurship, there is still a need to understand sector specific, which is beyond this study.

As the population of this study is confined to Zanzibar, Tanzania, the findings may not be applicable to other countries with different cultural values. Zanzibar is a cosmopolitan society influenced by Islamic values of cooperation and teamwork. The environmental dynamics which shape the environment the entrepreneur operates in may have different impacts on the cognitive and behaviour of the individual and thus affect the entrepreneurship process.

This study adopted a cross sectional design, which is deficient in providing a deeper understanding of the relationships between the constructs when compared to a longitudinal study. Inherent in a cross- sectional study, the data was collected at the single point in

time where it may be challenging to determine temporal relationship of constructs on youth entrepreneurship. In the fast-paced changing business environment, information is constantly updated to latest trends and development. However, from the time when information is first being received by the entrepreneur to the time when it is acted upon as an outcome of opportunity, there exists a period of time lag. This lag in time poses a difficulty to researchers in studying the process.

## 6.5 Future Research Direction

The limitations mentioned in the preceding section suggest valuable directions for future research which could extend the research findings. Thus, this section proposes several interesting research ideas to be investigated or explored based on the knowledge gained from the research undertaking.

Firstly, this study targeted youth who engage in entrepreneurship as argued by Schumpeter (1934) and McClelland (1961) that an individual plays a significant role in entrepreneurship and has a power to identify, operationalize and market technological innovations. Therefore, this study focused on an individual analysis on youth entrepreneurship. Further studies could seek to examine the next step of analysis on entrepreneurial start-ups since there is a mushrooming of the start-ups.

Secondly, this study focused on individual factors based on previous studies in entrepreneurship. This study confirmed that entrepreneurial learning, networking and

mindset play a significant role in youth entrepreneurship. There were other variables which had been identified in previous youth entrepreneurship studies which were not used in this study. Thus, future research should seek to include a wider range of variables to explain youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar, Tanzania.

Thirdly, this study was constrained with few empirical studies of entrepreneurial mindset as a mediator in youth entrepreneurship. This study confirmed that entrepreneurial mindset plays a mediating role to entrepreneurial motivation, self-efficacy and learning, but failed on networking. Further studies could be done to validate the findings of entrepreneurial mindset, operationalize the construct and add up empirical studies of entrepreneurial mindset on entrepreneurship. The empirical confirmation on the role of entrepreneurial alertness as a mediator advances the understanding of existing theory in the entrepreneurship process.

Fourthly, this study was based on cross-sectional design whereby the data were collected to individual entrepreneurs at a single point in time. For deeper understanding of the problem, a longitudinal study could be done to examine the problem over a period of time and observe changes more accurately. As such, a further study could use mixed research in order to have comprehensive analysis of the influence of individual antecedents on youth entrepreneurship. Mixed methods combine the strengths of qualitative research with quantitative research while compensating at the same time for the weakness of each method (Punch, 2009).

Lastly, this study sampled respondents from different sectors only in Zanzibar, which provided the results across sectors in general about youth entrepreneurship. Further studies could seek to examine the influence of individual antecedents on specific sectors and extend the scope to other parts of Tanzania or east Africa countries for comparison of the results.

## 6.6 Conclusion

This study has made significant contributions to the entrepreneurship literature by improving our understanding of individual antecedents influencing youth entrepreneurship using a socio- cognitive perspective within quantitative design. A framework was developed to examine the influence of entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial networking, entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial motivation on youth entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial mindset was introduced in the framework to test its mediating effect on youth entrepreneurship. Through empirical testing, the findings of the study provided answers to predictors of youth entrepreneurship and mediating the role of entrepreneurial mindset.

This study also made a significant shift from predominant studies on entrepreneurship intention to entrepreneurial behaviour. Most of entrepreneurship studies have concentrated on exploring intention of youth or students on entrepreneurship after graduating from their studies. This study examined the practices of youth who engaged in entrepreneurship in the context of developing economy. This found entrepreneurial networking is the most

predictor of youth entrepreneurship, followed by entrepreneurial learning, entrepreneurial mindset and lastly entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

To wind up, this study's research model provides a basis for understanding youth entrepreneurship and a springboard for future systematic research in the area of youth entrepreneurship. From a practical point of view, this research empirical evidence for youth to embrace entrepreneurial learning, extend networks, promote self-efficacy and have the entrepreneurial mindset necessary for entrepreneurship. This study also provides a reference for the policy makers to take active measures to encourage the growth and development of entrepreneurial traits among the younger generations by instituting entrepreneurship policy and programmes. A timely review into the education system has been called to incorporate and inculcate entrepreneurial skills and mindsets for the younger generation.

The results of this study revealed that students should be capacitated in entrepreneurial networking, self-efficacy and mindset for developing entrepreneurship. In line with Zanzibar's effort to transform the economy into a knowledge-based economy to utilize our limited resources, our entrepreneurs should internalize entrepreneurial learning to spot more opportunities, mobilize more resources and become visionary for development of their entrepreneurial ventures so that they can create jobs and stimulate the economy.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Questionnaire

### YOUTH ENTREPRENEURSHIP SURVEY

Dear Valued and Respected Participant,

This questionnaire is designed to examine the antecedents that influence Youth entrepreneurship in Zanzibar. Youth entrepreneurship, being the phenomenon of interest, refers to an individual's possession of necessary skills and ability to venture into business upon recognizing opportunity, gathering resources, and making it grow.

The enclosed questionnaire is constructed in a straightforward manner and easy to answer which should take about 30 minutes of your time. Your response will contribute greatly to this research. No information obtained from this study shall be disclosed in any manner that would identify the respondents. All information obtained shall be kept strictly confidential.

Your response is important to us and I greatly appreciate your time and efforts.

Thank you,

Cordially,

Said Mohamed Khamis

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Respondent ID:



## Section B: Questionnaire

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statement. The options are arranged in the following order:

1= Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

### I. Youth Entrepreneurship: Please circle the number that best reflects your perception about youth entrepreneurship.

|     |   | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|-----|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 7.  | Opportunities are results of market changes that I notice           | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 8.  | Opportunities exist for me to discover them                         | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 9.  | I believe external changes create opportunities                     | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 10. | I struggle to acquire resources for my business                     | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 11. | I can identify potential sources of funding for business expansion  | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 12. | I can solve new challenges with the existing resources              | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 13. | I can inspire others to embrace vision of my business               | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 14. | I am prepared to create a strong business regardless of competition | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 15. | I strive to grow my business at global level                        | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |

### II. Entrepreneurial learning: Please circle the number that best reflects your perception about your level of entrepreneurial knowledge in undertaking your business.

|     |   | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|-----|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 16. | I have enough knowledge on business regulations that affect my business | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 17. | I have enough knowledge on tax system in my country                     | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 18. | I have enough knowledge on intellectual property rights                 | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 19. | I have enough knowledge on business/company management                  | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 20. | I can undertake market research for my business                         | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 21. | I can win the competition in existing market space                      | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 22. | I can make my business known in whole country                           | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 23. | I can develop business plan of my business                              | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |

III. **Entrepreneurial mindset:** Please circle the number that best reflects your perception about your entrepreneurial mindset in undertaking your business

|     |  | Strongly<br>Disagree | Disagre<br>e | Neutral | Agre<br>e | Strongl<br>y Agree |
|-----|--|----------------------|--------------|---------|-----------|--------------------|
| 24. | I believe it is important to approach opportunities in unique ways                           | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 25. | I get excited when I am able to approach tasks in unusual ways                               | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 26. | I enjoy finding good solutions to problems that nobody has looked at yet                     | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 27  | I explore new things that could create additional profits                                    | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 28  | I am mostly interested in competition in my business   | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 29  | I simply must know how a certain business system works                                       | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 30  | I have frequent interactions with others to acquire new information.                         | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 31  | I am an avid information seeker  | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 32  | I read news regularly to acquire new information   | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 33  | I have the ability of differentiating high-value opportunities from low-value opportunities. | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 34  | I have a gut feeling for potential opportunities   | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 35  | I see links between unrelated piece of information   | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |
| 36  | I often see connections between previously unconnected domains of information                | 1                    | 2            | 3       | 4         | 5                  |

IV. **Entrepreneurial networking:** Please circle the number that best reflects your perception about your level of entrepreneurial networking in undertaking your business.

|    |  | Strongly<br>Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly<br>Agree |
|----|--|----------------------|----------|---------|-------|-------------------|
| 37 | I have built good relationship with my business partners                             | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 38 | I always fulfil the promises that I have made with others                            | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 39 | I always struggle to achieve what we have planned with my team                       | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 40 | I am open to share my ideas with others  | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 41 | I can make members of my team perform well   | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 42 | I often show appreciation to my team members   | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 43 | When I attend business meetings, I build connection with people I do not know before | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 44 | I can convincingly communicate in writing  | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 45 | I can convincingly make public presentations about my business                       | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 46 | I always make efforts to convincingly present my business ideas to others            | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 47 | I always use government for improving my business                                    | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 48 | I always use financial institutions for improving my business                        | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 49 | I always use training institutions for improving my business                         | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |
| 50 | I always use professionals for improving my business                                 | 1                    | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5                 |

- V. **Entrepreneurial motivation:** Please circle the number that best reflects your perception about your level of entrepreneurial motivation in undertaking your business.

|    |   | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|----|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 51 | To be my own boss, to work for myself                                       | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 52 | I make better use of my skills  | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 53 | I can earn a lot of money for myself  | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 54 | I get money to support my family  | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 55 | It is the only way I can make a living                                      | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 56 | I can help my colleagues earn more from my business                         | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 57 | I have a clear plan for my personal development                             | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 58 | I make a conscientious effort to get the most out of my available resources | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 59 | I always use time wisely to achieve my objectives                           | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 60 | I believe that in order to succeed, one must conform to accepted practices  | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 61 | To achieve a higher status for myself in a society                          | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 62 | I want to gain more recognition for my accomplishment                       | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |

- VI. **Entrepreneurial self-efficacy:** Please circle the number that best reflects your perception about your level of entrepreneurial self-efficacy in undertaking your business.

|    |  | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|----|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| 63 | It is important to me to perform better than others on a task          | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 64 | I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 65 | When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them  | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 66 | I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges                | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 67 | I set goals for myself in order to direct me in my activities          | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 68 | Working hard is something I like doing                                 | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 69 | I dedicate my efforts to ensure my business goals succeed              | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 70 | I like to work for short term goals than long-term goals               | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 71 | I can stay focused under pressure                                      | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 72 | I tend to bounce back after failure                                    | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 73 | I can deal with whatever come in my way                                | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |
| 74 | I can adapt to change easily   | 1                 | 2        | 3       | 4     | 5              |

**Appendix 2:** Paper presented to International Journal of Entrepreneurial Venturing

- a) Khamis, S, Yusof, M & Ramasamy, R (2021) the effects of entrepreneurial networking, proactiveness and entrepreneurial self-efficacy on opportunity recognition of young entrepreneurs, International Journal of Entrepreneurial Venturing
- b) Khamis, S & Yusof, M (2020) Individual antecedents influencing youth self-employment readiness in Zanzibar, Tanzania: review and conceptual framework. View Point: An International Journal of Management and Technology, Volume 2, Number 2 December 2020 issue.

**Conference attended**

The 2nd International Conference on Economics, Entrepreneurship and Management 2020 (ICEEM 2020), 15 Februari 2020, HIG Hotel, Langkawi, Malaysia presented a paper: on Individual antecedents influencing youth self-employment readiness in Zanzibar, Tanzania: review and conceptual framework by Mr. Said Mohamed Khamis