

THE EFFECT OF ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION ON ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION OF SOUTH AFRICAN RURAL YOUTH

Mmakgabo Justice Malebana, Tshwane University of Technology

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to investigate entrepreneurial motivation among final year commerce students in Limpopo and Mpumalanga, and to determine the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation, entrepreneurial intention and the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. A cross-sectional survey was conducted on a sample of 496 students using a structured questionnaire. Data were analysed by means of SPSS Version 26. Findings revealed that the respondents valued both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and the need for independence in their decision to start a business. Results show that entrepreneurial motivation had a statistically significant positive relationship with entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial Intention, Entrepreneurial Motivation, Rural Youth, Theory Of Planned Behaviour, South Africa.

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurial motivation is vital for the creation and growth of new ventures (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2007; Delmar & Wiklund, 2008; Zhou & de Wit, 2009; Marques et al., 2013; Malebana & Nieuwenhuizen, 2015) and determines entrepreneurs' decisions to search, evaluate and exploit entrepreneurial opportunities (Shane, Locke & Collins, 2003). Entrepreneurial motivation refers to the willingness of individuals to exert an effort to start their own businesses (Barba-Sánchez & Atienza-Sahuquillo, 2017). Motivation comprises internal factors that impel action and external factors that can act as inducement to action (Locke & Latham, 2004), and it also affects three aspects of action namely, choice, effort and persistence. While entrepreneurial motivation is significantly related to an individual's intention to start a business (Achchuthan & Nimalathan, 2013; Malebana, 2014; Hien & Beri, 2018), it also serves as a crucial link between entrepreneurial intention and action (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011). Entrepreneurial intention is defined as self-acknowledged convictions by individuals that they intend to establish new business ventures in the future (Thompson, 2009).

At the beginning of the entrepreneurial process, which involves searching, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Ardichvili et al., 2003), are entrepreneurs who have goals and needs they want to achieve by creating a new venture, which could vary from one entrepreneur to another (Naffziger et al., 1994; Shane et al., 2003). These goals and needs are primary motivators that lead entrepreneurs to form intentions of starting a business (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011; Gollwitzer & Brandstätter, 1997). According to Naffziger et al. (1994), entrepreneurs begin the entrepreneurial process with the expectation of achieving both intrinsic and extrinsic goals or outcomes. Depending on the strength of the motivation, driven by the belief that outcomes will fulfil the expectations coupled with strong intentions, the entrepreneur then searches, discovers, evaluates, makes the decision to exploit the identified opportunity, and ultimately launches

the new venture (Naffziger et al., 1994; Shook et al., 2003). The decision to engage in entrepreneurship is driven by entrepreneurs' motivation, which depends on the value they attach to the perceived rewards associated with the behaviour (Fayolle et al., 2014). Yitshaki and Kropp (2016) found that social entrepreneurs' motivation influenced their awareness of unmet needs and opportunity recognition.

Entrepreneurial motivation plays a key role in all stages of the entrepreneurial process and depending on the outcomes realised from engaging in the process, it can keep entrepreneurs committed to their ventures (Naffziger et al., 1994; Carsrud & Brännback, 2011; Murnieks et al., 2020). The entrepreneurial process is fraught with uncertainty and obstacles that could prevent an individual's decision to take action (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006). Hence entrepreneurs need high levels of persistence and confidence in their own ability to face and overcome challenges, and strong beliefs that acting entrepreneurially will help them achieve the outcomes or rewards they value (Zanakis et al., 2012). Therefore, enhancing both entrepreneurial intention and motivation is vital for economic growth in terms of the emergence and growth of new ventures that would create job opportunities for the youth and the unemployed.

Carsrud and Brännback (2011) opined that little research efforts are targeted at understanding entrepreneurial motivation. Similarly, with regards to the South African context, research concerning the link between entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents among the youth is still very scarce (Malebana, 2014). While some studies have investigated entrepreneurial motivation in South Africa (Mitchell, 2004; Fatoki, 2010; Hamilton & de Klerk, 2016), little research has been conducted regarding the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation, entrepreneurial intention and its theoretical determinants. As result, this study investigates the motives for starting a business among final year commerce students in Limpopo and Mpumalanga, and determines whether entrepreneurial motivation has a significant relationship with entrepreneurial intention and the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention based on the theory of planned behaviour.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Intentionality of the Entrepreneurial Behaviour

According to Krueger et al. (2000) and Liñán et al. (2013), entrepreneurial activity is an intentionally planned behaviour. This view has been supported by recent empirical studies which have shown the link between entrepreneurial intention and behaviour (Gieure et al., 2020; Alam et al., 2019; Yaseen et al., 2018; Aloulou, 2017; Kolvereid, 2016; Rauch & Hulsink, 2015; Kautonen et al., 2015; Kibler et al., 2014; Kautonen et al., 2013; Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006). Additionally, there is evidence showing that individuals who have high preference for self-employment are more likely to be self-employed (Verheul et al., 2012). In line with Ajzen's (2005) view, the results of these studies suggest that individuals' actions follow reasonably from their intentions. As one of the most influential and popular frameworks for the prediction of intentions and human behaviour (Ajzen & Cote, 2008), the theory of planned behaviour suggests that entrepreneurial intentions can be predicted with high accuracy from attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2005; 2012). Attitude towards the behaviour refers to the degree to which an individual is attracted to the act of starting a business, mainly due to the outcomes associated with running one's own business and how positively or negatively one evaluates these outcomes. Perceived behavioural control refers to individuals' assessments of their own capability of performing a given behaviour, which is determined by perceived availability or absence of factors that can facilitate or impede the performance of the

behaviour (Ajzen, 2005; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Subjective norms refers to the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour, which depends on whether individuals think their social referents would approve of their decision to engage in that behaviour and whether they want to comply with such social referents' expectations (Ajzen, 2005). A review of the literature by Mothibi and Malebana (2019) shows that the majority of studies support the theory of planned behaviour as a model for predicting entrepreneurial intention with varying effects of attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control.

In recent years, a number of studies have applied the theory of planned behaviour in an attempt to link entrepreneurial motivation to entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents (for example, Wibowo et al., 2019; Kumar & Das, 2019; Raza et al., 2018; Chang et al., 2014; Alam et al., 2019; Malebana, 2014; Solesvik, 2013). Despite the differences in the focus of analysis, research evidence suggests that entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents are positively related to entrepreneurial motivation (Raza et al., 2018; Purwana et al., 2018; Juneja, 2016; Malebana, 2014; Solesvik, 2013:264; Marques et al., 2013). For instance, in some studies entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents were used as predictors of entrepreneurial motivation (Raza et al., 2018; Purwana et al., 2018; Juneja, 2016; Malebana, 2014). The findings of Raza et al. (2018) indicate that attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control have a positive effect on entrepreneurial motivation, which in turn has significant impact on entrepreneurial intention. Malebana (2014) found that entrepreneurial intention, attitude and subjective norms have a significant effect on entrepreneurial motivation while perceived behavioural control was not significant. In addition, it has been reported that subjective norms (Purwana et al., 2018), attitude and entrepreneurial intention (Juneja, 2016; Wibowo et al., 2018) have a direct positive effect on entrepreneurial motivation.

Studies in which entrepreneurial motivation was used as a predictor of entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents include Chang et al. (2014); Wibowo et al. (2018); Kumar and Das (2019); Hien and Beri (2018) and Solesvik (2013). The results of Chang et al. (2014) show that entrepreneurial motivation had a significant effect on entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents, while Wibowo et al. (2018) found that entrepreneurial motivation has a direct positive influence on all the three antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. The results of other studies indicate that entrepreneurial intention (Solesvik, 2013; Hien & Beri, 2018) and attitude (Kumar & Das, 2019) are determined by entrepreneurial motivation. Furthermore, it was found that entrepreneurial motivation moderates the link between entrepreneurial intention and behaviour (Alam et al., 2019).

While Carsrud and Brännback (2011) regard entrepreneurial motivation as a crucial link between entrepreneurial intention and action, the relationship between motivation and entrepreneurial intention is considered to be non-linear nor unidirectional. This means that entrepreneurial motivation can propel individuals who have strong entrepreneurial intentions to transform such intentions into new ventures. Alternatively, it can impact positively on entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents. Findings of prior research attest to these suppositions (Solesvik, 2013; Malebana, 2014; Raza et al., 2018). The findings of Wibowo et al. (2019) show that entrepreneurial motivation can influence the antecedents of intention and can also be determined by an individual's intention.

Motivation to Start a Business

Entrepreneurial motivation has been studied from various perspectives including the reasons, motives, or goals of entrepreneurs (Hessels et al., 2008) and the expectancy theory (Holland & Garrett, 2015; Renko et al., 2012; Townsend et al., 2010). Attitudes individuals

hold about entrepreneurship are determined by the beliefs about likely outcomes of the behaviour and their evaluations of these outcomes (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Individuals who have strong and positive beliefs about the likely outcomes of the behaviour would have favourable attitude towards that behaviour. This means that individuals' attitude towards the behaviour will be favourable when they believe that performance of a given behaviour will result in positive outcomes (Ajzen, 2005). Researchers who have applied the expectancy theory used the reasons or motives entrepreneurs state for starting a business as outcome expectancies and the importance they attach to these as valence. Findings of these researchers indicate that the decision to engage in entrepreneurship derives from belief that an individual's amount of effort will lead to the achievement of certain outcomes they value and that putting more effort in starting a business will lead to the actual creation of a new venture (Barba-Sánchez & Atienza-Sahuquillo, 2017; Holland & Garrett, 2015; Renko et al., 2012; Townsend et al., 2010).

Studies on the reasons, motives, or goals of entrepreneurs for starting a business indicate that individuals can be pulled or pushed into an entrepreneurial career (Wickham, 2006). Those who are pulled into entrepreneurship are driven by factors such as financial rewards, challenge and desire for independence, personal development, achievement and recognition. Pull factors that include the need for independence, the need for material incentives and the need for achievement were found to be primary motivators for South African entrepreneurs (Mitchell, 2004). Some of these pull factors have been stated as reasons for starting a business (Moore et al., 2010; Carter et al., 2003) or categorised into intrinsic, extrinsic and independence/autonomy motives (Choo & Wong, 2006). In their categorisations, Choo and Wong (2006) regard the need to receive a salary based on merit, to provide a comfortable retirement, need for money, need for a job and to realise a dream as extrinsic rewards whereas intrinsic rewards encompass the desire to have an interesting job, take advantage of one's creative talents and the need for challenge. Malebana (2014) found that the need for independence, the need for challenge and the need to take advantage of one's creative talents were top motivators among final year commerce students in Limpopo, suggesting that these students were motivated primarily by autonomy and intrinsic factors. Extrinsic factors had lower mean scores compared to autonomy and intrinsic factors. Barba-Sánchez and Atienza-Sahuquillo (2012) found that entrepreneurs are primarily motivated by the need for achievement, self-realization, independence, affiliation, competence and power than by other reasons. In a study that involved a sample of entrepreneurs in Canada, U.S. and Mexico, it was found that entrepreneurs' decisions to start a business were influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (Cachon et al., 2013). Another study that was conducted in South Africa found that top motivators for Generation Y female students were independence and extrinsic motives while intrinsic motives scored the lowest (Hamilton & de Klerk, 2016). In addition, research evidence indicates that motivations for starting a business differ from one individual to another (Giacomin et al., 2011).

Based on the discussion of the theory of planned behaviour and the pull factors or reasons for starting a business above, the conceptual model (Figure 1) is indicated below together with the hypotheses that were formulated for the study:

H_{1a}: A significant positive relationship exists between the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial intention.

H_{1o}: There is no relationship between the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial intention.

H_{2a}: A significant positive relationship exists between entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial intention.

H₂₀: *There is no relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial intention.*

H_{3a}: *A significant positive relationship exists between entrepreneurial motivation and the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention.*

H₃₀: *There is no relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention.*

Moreover, factors such as poor pay and lack of prospects, lack of innovation and negative displacement or lack of alternatives, unemployment and job insecurity can push individuals to become entrepreneurs (Wickham, 2006). According to Lucas et al. (2008), necessity influences the attractiveness of entrepreneurship and the intention to start a business. It has also been found that unattractive working conditions, job dissatisfaction, job insecurity, and personal factors that include debts can push an individual to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour (Liang & Dunn, 2006; Henley, 2005). In contrast, the results of a study involving a representative sample of 1000 nascent entrepreneurs indicate that new ventures are started by individuals who leave their jobs despite being happy in those jobs (Schjoedt & Shaver, 2007).

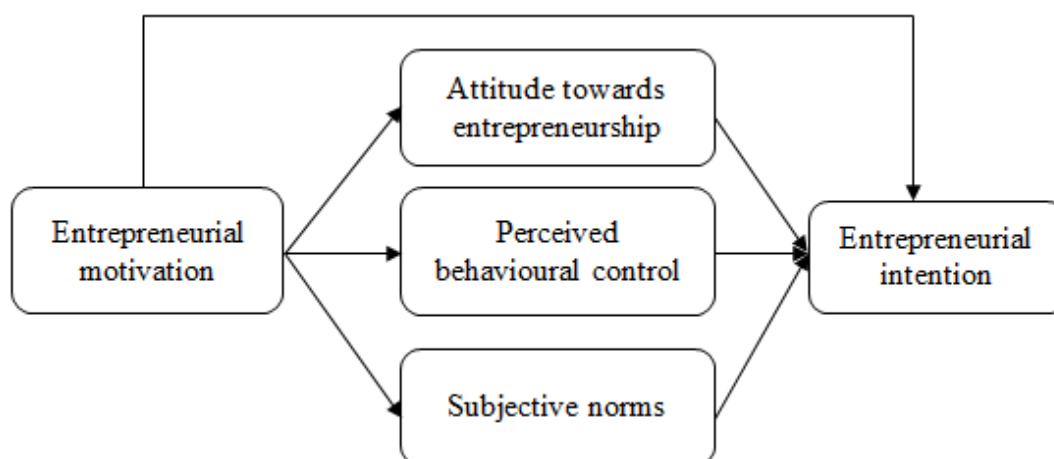


FIGURE 1
THE EFFECTS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION ON
ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION

RESEARCH METHOD

Sample

This study was carried out using a quantitative survey and included 496 final year commerce students at two universities in selected rural provinces in South Africa, namely Limpopo and Mpumalanga. This sample was obtained by means of convenience and purposive sampling techniques. The reason for choosing this group of students is that they were relevant for studying the factors that influence entrepreneurial motivation. As final year students who were facing important career decisions on completion of their studies, assessing entrepreneurial motivation of this sample was deemed appropriate. This is in line with other similar previous studies (Giacomin et al., 2011; Solesvik, 2013; Malebana, 2014). The second reason for using this convenience sample is the fact that they are a captive audience that represents the youth. Research findings from this sample would be valuable to policymakers

who have the mandate to design and implement interventions for promoting youth entrepreneurship.

Data Collection

A structured questionnaire that was designed on the basis of validated questionnaires that were used in previous studies was distributed to students during their lectures. Students were informed about the purpose of the research and were asked to freely participate in the study by signing consent forms and completing the questionnaire. Entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents were measured using seven point Likert type questions that were adopted from Liñán and Chen's (2009) entrepreneurial intent questionnaire. Entrepreneurial motivation was measured on the basis of 10 questions that were adopted from Malebana (2014); Choo and Wong (2006) and Carter et al. (2003) using a seven point Likert scale. Demographic data of the sample which were used as control variables were collected using nominal scales. These control variables included gender, employment status, prior entrepreneurial exposure such as business ownership, entrepreneurial family background and prior start-up experience. Prior research has shown that these variables are associated with entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents (Liñán & Chen, 2009; Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2015; Mohamad et al., 2015; König, 2016; Entrialgo & Iglesias, 2016; Aloulou, 2017; Malebana & Zindiye, 2017).

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) Version 27 was used to analyse the data. The analysis of the data relating to the characteristics of the sample was conducted by means of descriptive statistics while hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the hypothesised relationships among variables.

Profile of the Respondents

Of the 496 respondents, as shown in Table 1, 61.3% were female and 38.7% were male. In terms of age 25.6% were in the age category between 18 and 21 years, 62.7% of the respondents were in the age category between 22 and 25 years, 7.5% were between 26 and 30 years, 2.4% were between 31 and 35 years, while 1.8% were over the age of 35 years. These statistics mean that about 98.2% of the respondents were the youth as defined earlier. About 5% of the respondents were employed at the time of the survey. In terms of prior exposure to entrepreneurship, 6.3% were running their own businesses, 33.7% had tried to start a business before, while 32.3% had an entrepreneurial family background.

Variables	Description	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	192	38.7
	Female	304	61.3
	Total	496	100
Age	18-21 years	127	25.6
	22-25 years	311	62.7
	26-30 years	37	7.5
	31-35 years	12	2.4
	Above 35 years	9	1.8
	Total	496	100
Entrepreneurial family background	Yes	160	32.3
	No	336	67.7

	Total	496	100
Runs own business	Yes	31	6.3
	No	465	93.7
	Total	496	100
Tried to start a business before	Yes	167	33.7
	No	329	66.3
	Total	496	100
Employment status	Yes	25	5
	No	471	95
	Total	496	100

Reliability and Validity of the Results

The reliability of the measuring instrument was tested by means of Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha values for the variables, as shown in Table 2, were 0.777 for entrepreneurial intention, 0.782 for attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur, 0.880 for perceived behavioural control, 0.674 for subjective norms, and 0.847 for entrepreneurial motivation. Since these values were between 0.6 and 0.880, the measuring instrument was considered having moderate to very good internal consistency reliability and therefore acceptable for use in this study (Hair et al., 2016; Field, 2013).

Exploratory factor analysis was also conducted using principal component analysis which extracted a seven-factor solution with eigenvalues greater than one, which in combination accounted for 69.7% of the variance. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.855, which was well above the acceptable limit of 0.5, suggesting that the sample size was sufficient to conduct factor analysis (Field, 2013). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was highly significant with the probability of less than 0.5 ($X^2 = 2541.997$, $df = 406$; $p < 0.001$), indicating that some correlations exist amongst the variables and therefore factor analysis could proceed (Burns & Burns, 2008). Data were also tested for the independence of errors and multicollinearity. The values of the Durbin-Watson statistic ranged from 1.711 to 2.082, which were well within the acceptable range from 1 to 3 as suggested by Field (2013). Therefore, the data did not violate the assumption of independence of errors. Tolerance values ranged from 0.827 to 0.979, and since they were larger than 0.2, this means that multicollinearity was not a problem. This suggests that multiple correlations with other variables were not high (Pallant, 2016). Variance inflation factors (VIF) ranged from 1.024 to 1.481, which were also highly satisfactory since they were below 10 (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2016). This means that there were no high correlations between variables.

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation	Cronbach alpha
Entrepreneurial intention	2.18	0.962	0.777
Attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur	2.13	0.962	0.782
Subjective norms	2.73	1.760	0.674
Perceived behavioural control	2.06	0.968	0.880
Entrepreneurial motivation	2.23	0.958	0.847

Entrepreneurial Motives of the Respondents

The results in Table 3 indicate that the top entrepreneurial motives (based on the mean scores) for the respondents were the need to be independent (own boss) (Mean=5.85), the need for challenge (Mean=5.80), the need to take advantage of one's creative talents (Mean=5.77), followed by the need to earn more money (Mean=5.77), and the need to have

an interesting job (Mean=5.74). The findings suggest that the respondents valued both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and the need for independence in their decision to start a business, indicating that pull factors outweighed push factors among the respondents. The need for a job and the need to maintain a family tradition were the lowest ranking motives for starting a business among the respondents.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
To be my own boss	486	1	7	5.85	1.593
To challenge myself	488	1	7	5.80	1.575
To take advantage of my creative talents	486	1	7	5.77	1.558
To earn more money	486	1	7	5.77	1.705
To have an interesting job	485	1	7	5.74	1.670
To follow the example of a person I admire	486	1	7	5.53	1.771
To take advantage of a market opportunity	485	1	7	5.57	1.658
To increase my status/prestige	486	1	7	5.37	1.835
The need for a job	482	1	7	5.13	1.886
To maintain a family tradition	485	1	7	4.89	2.053

Regression Analysis Results

The results (Table 4, Model 1) indicate that control variables explained 5.6% of the variation in entrepreneurial intention ($F(5,490) = 5.828$; $p < 0.001$). Of the control variables, only having tried to start a business before had a significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.174$, $p < 0.001$). No statistically significant relationship was found between gender, current employment status, current ownership of a business, having family members who are running businesses and entrepreneurial intention.

In Model 2 the theoretical antecedents of entrepreneurial intention were added to control variables, which increased the proportion of the variation in entrepreneurial intention from 5.6% to 45.2% ($F(8,486) = 50.148$; $p < 0.001$). The results show that having tried to start a business before ($\beta = 0.078$, $p < 0.05$), attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur ($\beta = 0.464$, $p < 0.001$) and perceived behavioural control ($\beta = 0.261$, $p < 0.001$) were significantly positively related to entrepreneurial intention. Subjective norms was not significant in predicting entrepreneurial intention. These results partially support hypothesis H1_a.

The results in Model 3 indicate that the addition of entrepreneurial motivation to control variables and the theoretical antecedents of entrepreneurial intention slightly increased the explanatory power of the model by 0.3% from 45.2% to 45.5% ($F(9,485) = 44.971$; $p < 0.001$). However, entrepreneurial motivation had no significant effect on entrepreneurial intention. Findings revealed that having tried to start a business before ($\beta = 0.077$, $p < 0.05$), attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur ($\beta = 0.451$, $p < 0.001$) and perceived behavioural control ($\beta = 0.253$, $p < 0.001$) had a significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intention.

Models 4 to 7 show the results of the effects of entrepreneurial motivation on entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents. Entrepreneurial motivation had a significant positive relationship with entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.289$, $p < 0.001$), accounting for 8.4% of the variance in entrepreneurial intention ($F(1,494) = 45.159$; $p < 0.001$). Findings revealed that entrepreneurial motivation is significantly positively related to the attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur ($\beta = 0.323$, $p < 0.001$), and explained about 10.4% of the variance in the attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur ($F(1,494) = 57.405$; $p < 0.001$). The results indicate that entrepreneurial motivation had a significant positive effect on perceived behavioural control ($\beta = 0.290$, $p < 0.001$). About 8.4% of the variance in perceived behavioural

control was accounted for by entrepreneurial motivation ($F(1,494) = 45.355; p < 0.001$). Additionally, entrepreneurial motivation had the lowest significant positive effect on subjective norms ($\beta = 0.120, p < 0.01$), and accounted for 1.4% of the variance in subjective norms ($F(1,493) = 7.238; p < 0.01$). Therefore, these results support hypotheses 2_a and 3_a. As shown in Model 3, the results suggest that the impact of entrepreneurial motivation on entrepreneurial intention diminishes when analysed jointly with the theoretical antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. This means that entrepreneurial motivation can only have an effect on entrepreneurial intention when it is analysed as the sole independent variable.

Table 4
HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION MODELS FOR THE EFFECT OF ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION

	Entrepreneurial intention				Attitude	Perc. Beh. control	Subjective norms
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Control variables:							
Gender	0.078	0.008	0.01				
Currently employed	0.003	0.01	0.013				
Currently runs a business	0.017	0.007	0.007				
Family members run a business	0.075	0.027	0.022				
Has tried to start a business before	0.174***	0.078*	0.077*				
Independent variables:							
Attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur		0.464***	0.451***				
Perceived behavioural control		0.261***	0.253***				
Subjective norms		0.035	0.031				
Entrepreneurial motivation			0.056	0.289***	0.323***	0.290***	0.120**
Multiple R	0.237	0.672	0.674	0.289	0.323	0.29	0.12
R Square (R2)	0.056	0.452	0.455	0.084	0.104	0.084	0.104
Δ Adjusted R2	0.046	0.443	0.445	0.082	0.102	0.082	0.012
Δ F-Ratio	5.828	50.148	44.971	45.159	57.405	45.355	7.238
Significance of F	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***	0.007**

* $P < 0.05$ ** $P < 0.01$ *** $P < 0.001$

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to identify the motives for starting a business among final year commerce students in Limpopo and Mpumalanga. The study also determined whether entrepreneurial motivation has a significant relationship with entrepreneurial intention and the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention based on the theory of planned behaviour. High ranking motivators among the respondents were the need to be independent (own boss), the need for challenge, the need to take advantage of one's creative talents, followed by the need to earn more money, and the need to have an interesting job. These results corroborate the findings of Hamilton and de Klerk (2016) in terms of the importance of independence and extrinsic motives but differ on intrinsic motives. This means that the respondents were more likely to be pulled into entrepreneurship rather than being pushed into it. They wanted to become entrepreneurs in order to be independent and achieve both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. These findings concur with those that were reported by Malebana (2014).

The results revealed that entrepreneurial motivation had a significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intention and all three antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. Entrepreneurial motivation had a greater effect on attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur, followed by perceived behavioural control and entrepreneurial intention, with the least influence on subjective norms. These results suggest that entrepreneurial motivation plays a crucial role in shaping the formation of entrepreneurial intention. The results are in line with those of Chang et al. (2014); Achchuthan and Nimalathan (2013); Solesvik (2013) and

Wibowo et al. (2019) who reported a positive relationship between entrepreneurial motivation, entrepreneurial intention and the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. Additionally, Raza et al. (2018) found that entrepreneurial motivation has a significant positive effect on entrepreneurial intention.

Surprisingly, the impact of entrepreneurial motivation on entrepreneurial intention diminished when analysed together with the theoretical antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. This means that entrepreneurial motivation plays a less role in predicting entrepreneurial intention when its theoretical antecedents form part of the analysis model. In view of these results, it is suggested that a better understanding of the role of entrepreneurial motivation in shaping the formation of entrepreneurial intention can be achieved when its influence is analysed in conjunction with the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. From the findings of this study and in consideration of previous research that assessed the effect of entrepreneurial motivation on entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents, it appears that using entrepreneurial motivation as an independent variable results in higher explanatory power than in circumstances when it is a dependent variable (for example, Kumar & Das, 2019; Raza et al., 2018; Hien & Beri, 2018; Malebana, 2014).

Moreover, the findings indicate that prior start-up experience is significantly positively related to entrepreneurial intention. This means that prior start-up experience equips an individual with the knowledge that inspires one to try again. The results support those of prior research which found a positive relationship between start-up experience and entrepreneurial intention (Mohamad et al., 2015; García-Rodríguez et al., 2015; Malebana & Zindiye, 2017). With regards to the theory of planned behaviour, the results have shown that entrepreneurial intention of the respondents is determined by attitude towards becoming an entrepreneur and perceived behavioural control. Subjective norms were not significant in predicting entrepreneurial intention. Hence the results provide partial support for the theory of planned behaviour. The results corroborate those of Entrialgo and Iglesias (2016); Liñán and Chen (2009) and García-Rodríguez et al. (2015) which have shown that subjective norms was not significant in predicting entrepreneurial intention. The results therefore, contribute to the advancement of the theory of planned behaviour and entrepreneurial motivation literature that is based on this theory by indicating significant positive relationships between entrepreneurial motivation, entrepreneurial intention and the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention.

IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

These findings suggest that efforts that are directed at increasing the attractiveness of the entrepreneurial career and enhancing the capability for starting a business are vital in order to stimulate entrepreneurial intention. Therefore, adopting student-centred and practice-oriented entrepreneurship education would provide students with the opportunity to learn about what it takes to start a business, which ultimately would positively affect their intention to start their own businesses. Universities should partner with business support institutions to ensure that resources are easily accessible for students to experiment with their ideas during their studies. The fact that entrepreneurial motivation is positively related to entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents implies that entrepreneurship educators can play a vital role in guiding students towards the entrepreneurial career path. Among others, they could emphasise the benefits of entrepreneurship and use entrepreneurs as guest speakers during lectures and case studies that portray the benefits of entrepreneurship. Such a persuasive environment with continuous interactions with entrepreneurs is more likely to impact positively on entrepreneurial motivation, which in turn, will directly influence entrepreneurial intention and its theoretical antecedents. Policymakers can increase

entrepreneurial motivation and enhance the formation of entrepreneurial intention by designing and implementing support programmes that could encourage the youth to start their own businesses and positively change the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention.

Since the study did not test the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial behaviour, no causal relationships can be inferred. Future studies should examine the link between entrepreneurial motivation and the creation of new ventures in order to shed light on how entrepreneurial motivation influences entrepreneurial behaviour. The use of convenience sampling limits generalisability of the findings to all final year students in South Africa. Future studies can overcome this limitation by using representative samples.

REFERENCES

- Achchuthan, S., & Nimalathasan, B. (2013). *Relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial intention: A case study of management undergraduates of the University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka*. Retrieved from: <http://www.academia.edu>.
- Ajzen, I. (2005). *Attitudes, personality and behaviour (2nd Edn.)*. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Ajzen, I. (2012). The theory of planned behaviour. In Lange, P.A.M., Kruglanski, A.W. & Higgins, E.T. (Eds). *Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology, 1*, 438-459.
- Ajzen, I., & Cote, N.G. (2008). Attitudes and the prediction of behaviour. In Crano, W.D. & Prislin, R. (Eds), *Attitudes and attitude change*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Alam, M.Z., Kousar, S., & Rehman, A. (2019). Role of entrepreneurial motivation on entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour: Theory of planned behaviour extension on engineering students in Pakistan. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research, 9*(50), 1-20.
- Aloulou, W.J. (2017). Investigating entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours of Saudi distance business learners: Main antecedents and mediators. *Journal of International Business and Entrepreneurship Development, 10*(3), 231-257.
- Ardichvili, A., Cardozo, R., & Ray, S. (2003). A theory of entrepreneurial opportunity identification and development. *Journal of Business Venturing, 18*(1), 105-123.
- Barba-Sánchez, V., & Atienza-Sahuquillo, C. (2012). Entrepreneurial behaviour: Impact of motivation factors on decision to create a new venture. *Investigaciones Europeas de Dirección y Economía de la Empresa, 18*(2), 132-138.
- Barba-Sánchez, V., & Atienza-Sahuquillo, C. (2017). Entrepreneurial motivation and self-employment: Evidence from expectancy theory. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 13*(4), 1097-1115.
- Burns, R.B., & Burns, R.A. (2008). *Business research methods and statistics using SPSS*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Cachon, J., Codina, J.B., Eccius-Wellmann, C., McGraw, E., & Myers, D.A. (2013). Entrepreneurial motives and performance: Evidence from North America. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice, 14*(3), 50-77.
- Carsrud, A., & Brännback, M. (2011). Entrepreneurial motivations: What do we still need to know? *Journal of Small Business Management, 49*(1), 9-26.
- Carter, N.M., Gartner, W.B., Shaver, K.G., & Gatewood, E.J. (2003). Career reasons of nascent entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing, 18*(1), 13-39.
- Chang, H., Tsai, K., & Peng, C. (2014). The entrepreneurial process: An integrated model. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 10*(4), 727-745.
- Choo, S., & Wong, M. (2006). Entrepreneurial intention: Triggers and barriers to new venture creations in Singapore. *Singapore Management Review, 28*(2), 47-64.
- Choudhary, N. (2017). *Investigating entrepreneurial intentions of Gen Y: A study of Australian vocational education students*. Unpublished Doctoral thesis, Melbourne, Australia, Swinburne University of Technology.
- Delmar, F., & Wiklund, J. (2008). The effect of small business managers' growth motivation on firm growth: A longitudinal study. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 32*(3), 437-457.
- Entrialgo, M., & Iglesias, V. (2016). The moderating role of entrepreneurship education on the antecedents of entrepreneurial intention. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 12*(4), 1209-1232.
- Fatoki, O.O. (2010). Graduate entrepreneurial intention in South Africa: Motivations and obstacles. *International Journal of Business and Management, 5*(9), 87-98.

- Fayolle, A., Liñán, F., & Moriano, J.A. (2014). Beyond entrepreneurial intentions: Values and motivation in entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 10(4), 679-689.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics (4th Edn.)*. London, UK: Sage.
- García-Rodríguez, F.J., Gil-Soto, E., Ruiz-Rosa, I., & Sene, P. M. (2015). Entrepreneurial intentions in diverse development contexts: A cross-cultural comparison between Senegal and Spain. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 11(3), 511-527.
- Giacomin, O., Janssen, F., Pruett, M., Shinnar, R.S., Llopis, F., & Toney, B. (2011). Entrepreneurial intentions, motivations and barriers: Differences among American, Asian and European students. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 7(2), 219-238.
- Gieure, C., del Mar Benavides-Espinosa, M., & Roig-Dobón, S. (2020). The entrepreneurial process: The link between intentions and behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 112, 541-548.
- Gollwitzer, P.M., & Brandstätter, V. (1997). Implementation intentions and effective goal pursuit. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(1), 183-199.
- Hair, J.F., Celsi, M., Money, A., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2016). *Essentials of business research methods (3rd Edn.)*. New York: Routledge.
- Hamilton, L., & de Klerk, N. (2016). Generation Y female students' motivation towards entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Business and Management Studies*, 8(2), 50-65.
- Henley, A. (2005). *From entrepreneurial aspiration to business start-up: Evidence from British longitudinal data*. Retrieved from: <http://www.swan.ac.uk/sbe/research/working%20papers/SBE%202005%202.pdf>.
- Hessels, J., van Gelderen, M., & Thurik, R. (2008). Drivers of entrepreneurial aspirations at the country level: The start-up motivations and social security. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 4(4), 401-417.
- Hien, D.T.T., & Beri, S.E.C. (2018). The effects of software developers' capabilities on entrepreneurial intention in ICT industries. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 22(3), 1-17.
- Holland, D.V., & Garrett, R.P. (2015). Entrepreneurs' start-up versus persistence decisions: A critical evaluation of expectancy and value. *International Small Business Journal*, 33(2), 194-215.
- Juneja, S. (2016). *A study of the determinants of cyber entrepreneurship and their influences on motivation and intentions*. Doctoral thesis, New Delhi, India, Bharavati Vidyapeeth Deemed University.
- Kautonen, T., van Gelderen, M., & Fink, M. (2015). Robustness of the theory of planned behaviour in predicting entrepreneurial intentions and actions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 39(3), 655-674.
- Kautonen, T., van Gelderen, M., & Tornikoski, E.T. (2013). Predicting entrepreneurial behaviour: a test of the theory of planned behaviour. *Applied Economics*, 45, 697-707.
- Kibler, E., Kautonen, T., & Fink, M. (2014). Regional social legitimacy of entrepreneurship: Implications for entrepreneurial intention and start-up behaviour. *Regional Studies*, 48(6), 995-1015.
- Kolvereid, L. (2016). Preference for self-employment: Prediction of new business start-up intentions and efforts. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 17(2), 100-109.
- Kolvereid, L., & Isaksen, E. (2006). New business start-up and subsequent entry into self-employment. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 21(6), 866-885.
- König, M. (2016). *Determinants of entrepreneurial intention and firm performance: Evidence from three meta-analyses*. Retrieved from: <https://d-nb.info/1127639196/34>.
- Krueger, N.F., Reilly, M.D., & Carsrud, A.L. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(5-6), 411-432.
- Kumar, S., & Das, S. (2019). An extended model of theory of planned behaviour: Entrepreneurial intention, regional institutional infrastructure and perceived gender discrimination in India. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 11(3), 369-391.
- Kuratko, D.F., & Hodgetts, R.M. (2007). *Entrepreneurship - Theory, process and practice (7th Edn.)*. Canada: Thomson, South-Western.
- Liang, C., & Dunn, P. (2006). *Multiple aspects of triggering factors in new venture creation: Internal drivers, external forces and indirect motivation*. Retrieved from: <http://www.sbaer.uca.edu/research/asbe/2006/paper3asbe.doc>.
- Liñán, F., & Chen, Y. (2009). Development and cross-cultural application of a specific instrument to measure entrepreneurial intentions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(3), 593-617.
- Liñán, F., Nabi, G., & Krueger, N. (2013). British and Spanish entrepreneurial intentions: A comparative study. *Revista De Economia Mundial*, 33, 73-103.
- Locke, E.A., & Latham, G.P. (2004). What should we do about motivation theory? Six recommendations for the twenty-first century. *Academy of Management Review*, 29(3), 388-403.
- Lucas, W.A., Cooper, S.Y., & MacFarlane, S. (2008). Exploring necessity-driven entrepreneurship in peripheral economy. Proceedings of the Institute for Small Business and Entrepreneurship Conference, 5-7 November, Belfast, N. Ireland.

- Malebana, M.J. (2014). Entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial motivation of South African rural university students. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 6(9), 709-726.
- Malebana, M.J., & Nieuwenhuizen, C. (2015). The influencing role of small business owners' education level and management practices on rural small business growth. Proceedings of the 9th IBC Conference, 20-23 September, Victoria Falls, Zambia.
- Malebana, M.J., & Zindiye, S. (2017). Relationship between entrepreneurship education, prior entrepreneurial exposure, entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention. Proceedings of the 12th European Conference on entrepreneurship and Innovation, Novancia Business School Paris, France, 21-22 September.
- Marques, C.S.E., Ferreira, J.J.M., Ferreira, F.A.F., & Lages, M.F.S. (2013). Entrepreneurial orientation and motivation to start up a business: Evidence from the health service industry. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 9(1), 77-94.
- McMullen, J.S., & Shepherd, D.A. (2006). Entrepreneurial action and the role of uncertainty in the theory of the entrepreneur. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(1)132-152.
- Mitchell, B.C. (2004). Motives of entrepreneurs: A case study of South Africa. *The Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 13(2), 167-183.
- Mohamad, N., Lim, H., Yusof, N., & Soon, J. (2015). Estimating the effect of entrepreneur education on graduates' intention to be entrepreneurs. *Education and Training*, 57(8/9), 874-890.
- Moore, C.W., Petty, J.W., Palich, L.E., & Longenecker, J.G. (2010). *Managing small business-An entrepreneurial emphasis (15th Edn.)*. China: Thomson South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Mothibi, N.H., & Malebana, M.J. (2019). Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions of secondary school learners in Mamelodi, South Africa. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 25(2), 1-14.
- Murnieks, C.Y., Klotz, A.C., & Shepherd, D.A. (2019). Entrepreneurial motivation: A review of the literature and an agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational Management*, 41(2), 115-143.
- Naffziger, D.W., Hornsby, J.S., & Kuratko, D.F. (1994). A proposed research model of entrepreneurial motivation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(3), 29-42.
- Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS (6th Edn.)*. Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill.
- Purwana, D., Suhud, U., Fatimah, T., & Armelita, A. (2018). Antecedents of secondary students' entrepreneurial motivation. *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, 21(2), 1-7.
- Rauch, A., & Hulsink, W. (2015). Putting entrepreneurship education where the intention to act lies: An investigation into the impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial behaviour. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 14(2), 187-204.
- Raza, S.A., Qazi, W., & Shah, N. (2018). Factors affecting the motivation and intention to become an entrepreneur among business university students. *International Journal of Knowledge and Learning*, 12(3), 221-241.
- Renko, M., Kroeck, K.G., & Bullough, A. (2012). Expectancy theory and nascent entrepreneurship. *Small Business Economics*, 39, 667-684.
- Schjoedt, L., & Shaver, K.G. (2007). Deciding on an entrepreneurial career: A test of the pull and push hypotheses using the panel study of entrepreneurial dynamics data. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(5), 733-751.
- Shane, S., Locke, E.A., & Collins, C.J. (2003). Entrepreneurial motivation. *Human Resource Management Review*, 13, 257-279.
- Shane, S., & Venkataraman, S. (2000). The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 217-226.
- Shook, C.L., Priem, R.L., & McGee, J.E. (2003). Venture creation and the enterprising individual: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, 29(3), 379-399.
- Solesvik, M.Z. (2013). Entrepreneurial motivations and intentions: Investigating the role of education major. *Education and Training*, 55(3), 253-271.
- Thompson, E.R. (2009). Individual entrepreneurial intent: Construct clarification and development of an internationally reliable metric. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(3), 669-694.
- Townsend, D.M., Busenitz, L.W. & Arthurs, J.D. (2010). To start or not to start: Outcome and ability expectations in the decision to start a new venture. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 25, 192-202.
- Verheul, I., Thurik, R., Grilo, I., & Van der Zwan, P. (2012). Explaining preferences and actual involvement in self-employment: gender and the entrepreneurial personality. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 33, 325-341.
- Wibowo, S.F., Suhud, U., & Wibowo, A. (2019). Competing extended TPB models in predicting entrepreneurial intentions: What is the role of motivation? *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 25(1), 1-12.
- Wickham, P.A. (2006). *Strategic entrepreneurship (4th Edn.)*. England: Pearson Education.

- Yaseen, A., Saleem, M.A., Zahra, S., & Israr, M. (2018). Precursory effects on entrepreneurial behaviour in the agri-food industry. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 10(1), 2-22.
- Yitshari, R., & Kropp, F. (2016). Motivations and opportunity recognition of social entrepreneurs. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 54(2), 546-565.
- Zanakis, S.H., Renko, M., & Bullough, A. (2012). Nascent entrepreneurs and the transition to entrepreneurship: Why do people start new businesses? *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 17(1), 1-25.
- Zhou, H., & de Wit, G. (2009). *Determinants and dimensions of firm growth. SCALES EIM Research Reports (H200903)*. Retrieved from: https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1443897#:~:text=Many%20determinants%20of%20firm%20growth,is%20measured%20by%20employment%20growth.