THE INFLUENCE OF THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS ON ENTREPRENEURIAL PROPENSITY OF URBAN YOUTHS IN MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE

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APPROVAL FORM

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DECLARATION

I, Everjoy Mukunga, declare that this MPhil study is my own effort and is a true reflection of research executed by me. This research in full or part thereof has not been submitted for examination for any degree at any other university/institution.

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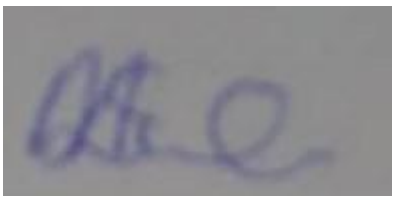

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of the study was to examine the influence of the socio-demographic factors on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. Pragmatism research philosophy was adopted since it allows the use of mixed research method. A cross-sectional survey design was used to collect data. Quantitative data were collected from 377 urban youth entrepreneurs using a structured self-administered questionnaire with Likert-type questions. Also, qualitative data were collected from 30 urban youth entrepreneurs using interview guide. Reliability for questionnaire was tested using Cronbach's alpha (α) and the data were validated through confirmatory factor analysis, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. For interview guide reliability was tested using trustworthiness, peer debriefing and pilot study. Quantitative data was analysed using SPSS v20 and AMOS whilst qualitative data were analysed using thematic approach. The study establishes that individual background, age, formal education, marital status positively influence entrepreneurial propensity and entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. Major themes that came from the study were: individuals background, experiences and personality are pillars for entrepreneurship development; family/parents and past experiences act as a catalyst for starting a business; formal education is an instrument for entrepreneurial propensity; the relationship between age and the likelihood of starting a new business is highest at a relatively early age and decreases after that; marital status is a pushing factor in the desire for one to start a business; the behaviour of an individual to start a business is influenced by entrepreneurial event, where perceived feasibility, perceived desirability and propensity to act influence the intention; the success of urban youth entrepreneurship hinges upon government support and the participation of a multiplicity of stakeholders. Results imply that individual background, age, formal education, marital status is crucial to improve entrepreneurial propensity. Also, entrepreneurial propensity is important in enhancing urban youth entrepreneurship. Government and universities are therefore recommended to focus on socio-demographic factor to enhance entrepreneurial propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship. Thus, universities should offer formal entrepreneurship education to youth. Government and other multiplicity of stakeholders should ensure that they offer support to urban youth entrepreneurs. It is recommended that future studies be carried out across other cities in Zimbabwe and other countries. Also, future studies may adopt either qualitative or quantitative methods. Lastly, it is recommended that similar studies be carried out using rural or peri-urban youth as part of respondents.

Keywords: age, background, entrepreneurial propensity, formal education, marital status, urban youth.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AGFI:	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
AMOS:	Analysis of Moment Structures
AVE:	Average Variance Extracted
CFA:	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI:	Comparative Fit Index
CR:	Critical Ratios
DF:	Degrees of Freedom
EEM:	Entrepreneurial event model
EI:	Entrepreneurial Intention
GFI:	Goodness of Fit Index
KMO:	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MLE:	Maximum Likelihood Estimation
NAYO:	National Association of Youth Organisations
NFI:	Normed Fit Index
RMSEA:	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD:	Standard Deviation
SICC:	Squared Inter-Construct Correlations
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TLI:	Tucker-Lewis Index
TPB:	Theory of planned behaviour
ZIMSTAT:	Zimbabwe Statistics Agency

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Socio-demographic factor: is a socially constructed factor that influences individual behavior and this includes personal background, family background, gender, and the early experiences of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs.

Background: refers to a person's social background and earlier experiences.

Education: refers to the process of receiving or giving systematic instruction, especially at a school or university.

Age: refers to how old an individual is, and it can be denoted by the number of years for an individual from birth to date.

Entrepreneurial propensity: is an individual propensity to set up a new business, or to accelerate an enterprise's growth by putting forward or developing a new operating idea or measure, which plays a very important role in starting and running a business.

Youth entrepreneurship: refers to a process whereby creative and innovative ideas are transformed into enterprises initiated and managed by young people with the primary purpose of addressing their socio-economic challenges such as poverty and unemployment.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

In recent years, there has been a significant increase in the advocacy for citizens of various countries, especially youths, to engage in entrepreneurship (Khanal, 2024). Entrepreneurship has become a focal point in the economic growth and job creation strategies of many nations (Mishra & Gupta, 2024). Consequently, numerous Non-Profit Governmental agencies and government policies have concentrated their efforts on empowering young people in developing countries to pursue entrepreneurial endeavours (Fosu, 2023). Reducing youth's unemployment is a primary goal of the Zimbabwean Government's Vision 2030, and entrepreneurship has been identified as a key driver for initiating new businesses, subsequently generating employment opportunities and sustainable growth (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). This surge in entrepreneurship has been driven by the rapid growth of the private sector in economies like Brazil, China, India, and South Africa, often referred to as the 'southern engines of growth' (Shahid Satar, Alarifi, Alkhoraif & Asad, 2023). Additionally, the recognition of the importance of a robust private sector in fragile and failed states, such as Somalia and DR Congo, has spurred the promotion of entrepreneurship (Fosu, 2023). Developed countries have also responded to this call for entrepreneurship (Rizzato, Antonelli, Sam, Di Dio, Lazzeroni & Donelli, 2023).

The 2013 International Labour Organization report shows that the number of employed youths declined by 22.9 million from 2008 to 2012 despite the growth of the youth population by 12 million for the same period (Yeboah & Jayne 2020). The enormity of the problem of youth unemployment has made it a threat to the social, economic, and political stability of most developing countries (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Economically, youths unemployment has led to labour market instability, increased welfare costs, erosion of the tax base, and unused investments in education and training (Sinha, 2022)..

In the United States, there have been appeals for increased support to entrepreneurs, seen as essential for the country to regain a competitive edge in the global economy (Mishra & Gupta, 2024). Similarly, the European Union's Lisbon Declaration of March 2000 explicitly identifies entrepreneurship as the key to the goal of becoming the most competitive world region (Asmare, 2023). The literature suggests that one of the most effective ways to combat unemployment is through entrepreneurship (Del Olmo-García, Domínguez-Fabián, Crecente-

Romero & del Val-Núñez, 2023). Isaac and Olaposi, (2023) have asserted that entrepreneurship is a tool for mitigating unemployment levels. Entrepreneurship serves as an engine for economic development, job creation, and social adjustment in developing economies (Omolawal, 2023).

The Middle East and North Africa (MENA) have the highest rates of youth unemployment in the whole globe, at 21% in the Middle East and 25% in North Africa Geda, (2022). Within these rates, roughly 30% are university graduates UNICEF, (2021). This condition can inspire young people to seek change, even by unethical means, which might result in unrest or other problems (Warraich, & Ahmed, 2024).

During a speech at the International Conference on Entrepreneurship, Business, and Technology (ICEBUT), Nana Akufo-Addo, the President of Ghana, emphasized that entrepreneurship, business, and technology are the fastest means to address economic challenges and the alarming unemployment rate (Msosa, 2023). These discussions underscore the crucial role of entrepreneurship in the global development agenda (Kumar, Azam & Jeppu, 2023). However, it appears that many countries, especially developing ones, struggle to harness the potential of entrepreneurship for nation-building (Eresia-Eke, De Villiers, Pinto & Dele-Ijagbulu, 2023).

Socially, youth unemployment is not only of concern to the unemployed but also to the family members of the unemployed and the general society (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). In Zimbabwe, youth unemployment is one of the most formidable problems facing the country (Dzingirai, 2020). In 2022, Zimbabwe's unemployment rate was estimated to be the highest in the world at a rate of 70-95% (ZIMSTAT, 2022). While Zimbabwe is experiencing a youth bulge, there remains a myriad of challenges that might hamper the country's efforts to tap into the youthful demographic dividend and these include drug and substance use, increased new HIV infections in young women and girls (Dzingirai, 2020). Chief among all, the unending migration caused by high unemployment levels in the country has seen millions of young Zimbabweans leaving the country for greener pastures according to Mgweba, (2022). Experts have warned that migration has its negative consequences which include decreased population in the country of origin and this may result in stunted economic growth and failure to realize any benefits from changes in the population structure (Schneider, 2023).

Zimbabwe was losing its young people to migration and this will directly threaten the existence of the Zimbabwean economy at some point in the future (Kandiero & Bigirimana,

2021). What we need to note as Zimbabweans is that while the developed countries are benefiting from our young populations and they are importing our young people to the Western Countries (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). The question is what will happen in Zimbabwe should our population go below replacement levels as is happening in the developed nations (Mandipaza, 2022). The developed nations have benefited from importing labour from African countries including Zimbabwe largely because we have a young population and our economies are not necessarily that stable and we have that excess population (Taole-Kolisang, 2021).

The challenge that Zimbabwe have is demographic transition, but this demographic transition is unprecedented (Moyo, 2023). It is unprecedented in the sense that normally or in the developed world, the demographic transition was driven by decreasing fertility and decreasing mortality (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). Now in Zimbabwe, there had been very high mortality in the late 80s to the mid-90s from HIV and AIDS and we kind of recovered then we had COVID-19 though it did not have such a demographic impact as the HIV and AIDS pandemic (Meadows, 2021). But we are having mortality which is not necessarily decreasing to the level of the developed nations which have gone past many countries (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). Fertility is declining but migration is increasing significantly and the migration is occurring is of those who are of middle age (Welch, 2024). By the time Zimbabwe reaches those non-replacement or low levels of population growth stages, it not is able to import any labour from anywhere (Jengeta, 2020).

It is an indisputable fact that Zimbabwe is one of the Sub-Saharan African countries with high levels of youth unemployment (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). The problem of youth unemployment and under-employment in Zimbabwe poses complex economic, social, and moral policy issues (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). The youth are undeniably among the most important formidable forces and resources a country can have in order to boost its social and economic development and reduce unemployment (Maireva & Magomana, 2021).

Youths in Zimbabwe face challenges such as unemployment, unaffordable education, and lack of access to health care due to excessive poverty, forced mobility (migration) due to limited opportunities, child marriages, and sexual abuse of young women among others (Maulanı, & Agwanda, 2020). Managing the pressure to succeed in every area of life and finding time to do it all seems to be one of the biggest challenges facing the youth today (Al-amri et al., 2022). Zimbabwe has released the 2022 Population and Housing Census Preliminary Results which has shown, among other things that Zimbabwe's population has

increased by 16.2% and now stands at 15.1 million people from the 13 million people in the last census in 2012 (ZIMSTAT, 2022). This gives an annual population growth rate of 1.5%. Zimbabwe is a youthful country, with approximately 67.7 cent per cent of its 15.1 million total population under the age of 35 (ZIMSTAT, 2022). Projections indicate a population of 23 million by 2030 according to the Human Development Report. When youth are empowered with knowledge and skills to protect themselves and make informed decisions, young people can realize their full potential and contribute to economic and social transformation (Munir et al., 2021).

Youth represents a potential for greater employment, income, and savings, experience has shown that a large young population doesn't always automatically translate into economic growth (Al-amri, Said, Al Kindi & Ahmed, 2022). In other countries such as Singapore and Malaysia, they managed to benefit from the demographic transition, and the changes in the population structure and distribution (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Given the youthful population in Zimbabwe through past studies, like many other developing countries, we are experiencing a demographic transition with a huge youth bulge which should be turned into a demographic dividend and look at how best to invest in that bulge to fast-track our development (O'Driscoll, 2020). The youth bulge "is a demographic opportunity, not a tragedy," which may have a beneficial impact on socioeconomic well-being and national prosperity (Hendrixson, 2023). If properly engaged in via the adoption of the appropriate social and economic policies and by involving the young society in all facets of life, it can bring about a good (Kromidha et al., 2022).

Evidence has also shown that youth unemployment results in malnutrition, mental illness, and loss of self-confidence resulting in depression (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). It is also associated with high stress leading to persons committing suicide and poor physical health and heart attack in later life (Obuobi-Donkor et al., 2021). Youth unemployment also brings stress to societies and families who after high investment in youth education expect them to be employed and hence contribute to the well-being of families and society (Al-amri et al., 2022). There are also cases of youth who end up engaging in criminal activities, drug addiction, and prostitution which takes them away from normal labour market activities (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). It is now normal in urban areas of Zimbabwe to find young women and girls engaging in activities like prostitution (Dzingirai, 2020). Most of these acts emanate from the problem of youth unemployment (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). The unavailability of relevant research into challenges like unemployment facing youth in

Zimbabwe has led to a limitation of data to inform the development of viable solutions to resolve the problem (Jengeta, 2020). Only a few developing countries have reliable data on youth unemployment rates (Diraditsile, 2021). The government needs to create specific interventions, especially in the creation of more formal jobs and strengthening job market regulation relating to youth to ensure that all youth with education or skills realize their investments in education and contribute to the country's development (Dzingirai, 2020).

Youth entrepreneurship has become an interesting phenomenon that has attracted much attention from academics, practitioners, and policymakers across the globe in recent years (Dzingirai, 2020). Youth entrepreneurship is when youth are given space and opportunities to start and own businesses to earn a living (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). There exists an increasing interest in youth entrepreneurship in many parts of the world, especially in developing economies (Wagner & Sternberg, 2004). This is because the entrepreneurial activity is considered a means of revitalizing the economy and a way of coping with unemployment problems that characterise most developing economies (Munir et al., 2021). The capacity of youth entrepreneurship to generate jobs and raise living standards has lately been recognized as a useful remedy for young unemployment and social isolation (Moore, 2021). Many academics and decision-makers believe that encouraging entrepreneurship is a good way to raise the standard of living for young people in developing nations (Ioane, at al., 2020). Thus, youth participation in self-employment and entrepreneurship is crucial to their socioeconomic involvement and fosters innovation and resilience by fostering new approaches, ideas, and expertise (Al-amri, Said, Al Kindi & Ahmed, 2022). Given the critical role that entrepreneurs play in generating jobs, fostering innovation, and improving general welfare, encouraging young entrepreneurship is essential for the economic progress of nations (Zarezankova-Potevska, 2021). However, in order to promote entrepreneurship, it is necessary to comprehend the elements that motivate young people to start their own business, or in other words, to grasp purpose, which is regarded as the first step in entrepreneurial activity (Al-amri et al., 2022).

In addition to being large in number, the youth are energetic and if they are well coordinated and actively engaged in economic activities, could contribute significantly to socio-economic development (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). Though youth unemployment is among the major challenges facing both developed and developing countries in the world today, the problem is more acute in developing countries (Nhapi, & Mangwende, 2020). Unemployment has caused a surge in all sorts of vices including participation in politically motivated

violence, spread of HIV/AIDS and drug abuse among the youth (Nioku, (2020). With a new political dispensation in Zimbabwe in the form of the post Mugabe era, there is a general consensus on the need to reduce youth unemployment through youth entrepreneurship (Maireva & Magomana, 2021).

Youth are being encouraged into owning and growing small businesses (Chauke & Obadire, 2020). There is need for the establishment and strengthening of entrepreneurship education in schools and tertiary institutions to foster the development of an entrepreneurial culture among the youth to facilitate self-employment (Maimela, 2021). Although there are support structures that promote youth entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe, there is still the need to assess the extent to which their contribution can lead to sustainable entrepreneurship which creates jobs for the active population (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). The growth of the youth population in Africa, combined with crises in socio economic development, has rationalised the need for youth entrepreneurship based upon its potential contribution to the economic empowerment of those who take on the challenges of an entrepreneur (Dzingirai, 2020). The need for youth entrepreneurship is given credence by the African Union, which offers several frameworks and programme initiatives in this regard (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). Notably, youth entrepreneurship is a topical issue within the field of entrepreneurship in the face of the high unemployment levels of youths around the world (Binali, 2022). Accordingly, youth entrepreneurship has drawn much attention from academicians, practitioners, and policymakers during the past few years (Maireva & Magomana, 2021).

The current structures that promote youth entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe include the Ministry of Women Affairs, Small and Medium Enterprises, Ministry of youth empowerment, development and vocational training Zimbabwe Youth Council, vocational training centres and microfinance schemes like the Youth Fund (Dzingirai, 2020). There are also other structures at provincial levels and district levels (Munyanyi, 2021). Therefore, the Government of Zimbabwe, ought to fully support and strengthen these structures and put in place mechanisms which will monitor and evaluate whether these structures are benefiting the target group and reaching out to the youths who are in rural areas as well as those who are disabled (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). The government should facilitate the formalization of the informal employment sector in order to motivate more youth to engage in different activities which are currently considered to be informal (Dlamini, 2023). This will help to reduce the problem of youth unemployment especially on skilled and educated youth in both urban and rural areas (Maireva & Magomana, 2021).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors that have the greatest impact on young people's decisions to launch businesses. In this regard, the study sought to comprehend how socio-demographic characteristics, particularly background, education and age affect young people in Zimbabwe construct their intentions. This study also aims to investigate the many ways that socio-demographic characteristics in Zimbabwe have an impact on young people's entrepreneurial growth.

1.2 Statement of the research problem

Despite rapid economic growth in recent years, youth unemployment in Africa, especially sub-Saharan Africa and particularly in Zimbabwe has remained stubbornly high. Young individuals would prefer employment either by the government or a private entity rather than starting their own business. The majority of youth face a vast complex of issues and challenges in starting and running viable businesses which makes it difficult for them to pursue successful livelihoods. However, the government and its supporting structures have tried to sustain youth entrepreneurship but the rate of failure remains high. There is fear that the government and its supporting structures might constantly loose resources with little results of youth entrepreneurship.

Researchers also tried to address the unemployment rate but most of the studies tend to focus on how young people acquire entrepreneurial competencies, resources, and vocational intentions (Langa, 2016; Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020, Omolawal, 2023). However, their studies focus on young people's acquisition of entrepreneurial interests, intention and competencies through their education and training. Therefore, it is intriguing to investigate the socio demographic factors that influence entrepreneurship among the urban youth. Thus this study aims to develop a framework showing the influence of age, formal education and background on entrepreneurial propensity among the urban youth in Mashonaland West Province.

1.3 Research Objectives

The main objective was to examine the influence of the socio-demographic factors on entrepreneurial propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship. This study was guided by the following specific objectives:

1. To determine the influence of individual's background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

2. To establish the influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

3. To determine the the influence of individual's age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

4. To determine the influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship.

1.4 Research Questions

The main research question of the study is: What is the influence of demographic factors on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. The specific research questions are as follows:

1. What is the influence of an individual's background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths?

2. What is the influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths?

3. What is the influence of an individual's age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths?

4. What is the influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

H_1: An individual's background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of youths.

H_2: Formal education positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

H_3: An individual's age positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

H_4: Entrepreneurial propensity significantly influences urban youth entrepreneurship.

1.6 Proposed conceptual framework

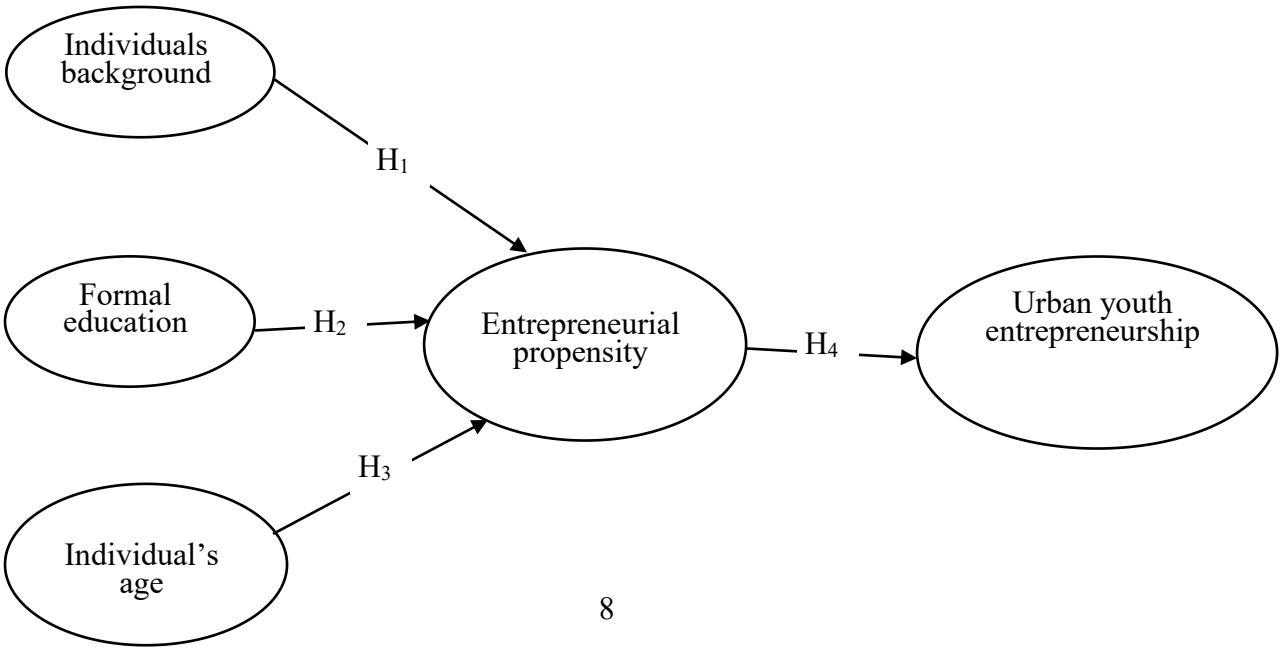

Figure 1:1 Conceptual framework

1.6 Significance of the research

The study could contribute knowledge in the field of entrepreneurship. The research may add to our knowledge of the factors that influence entrepreneurial propensity among urban youth. Also, critical is the influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship. There is a scarcity of research on the socio-demographic factors that influence entrepreneurial propensity that may be used by youth to sustain their entrepreneurial businesses.

Understanding the factors that influence entrepreneurial propensity is important because it can help urban youth entrepreneurs to enhance their performance over time. Improvements in their performance may also provide them with competitive advantage over global competitors. Improvement in understanding the factors that influence entrepreneurial propensity is likely to influence policy decisions. Urban youth may also work hard and become more committed to the growth of youth entrepreneurship at large.

The study may help to extend knowledge in youth entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial propensity with particular emphasis to the youth. The study can also create areas of future research which can be further explored by future academics. The study may also help to challenge the current knowledge on demographic factors that influence entrepreneurial propensity.

The communities may also benefit through sustainable youth entrepreneurial practices as the welfare of youth will be covered through entrepreneurship, hence reducing social ills such as poverty, prostitution and drug abuse among youth. The study may contribute to improved employment among the youth through entrepreneurship. The study may increase the GDP of the nation since the entrepreneurship is one of the anchors of the Zimbabwean economy. The study may also assist in retaining the existing youth and curb brain drain and allow for skills transfer from one generation to another.

The study may assist the student to fulfil the requirements of graduating for this degree programme and assist the researcher to gain more exposure in research. To the university this

study may assist in adding knowledge to the current body of knowledge, solving real life problems and entrepreneurship development as per university's mandate.

1.7 Scope of the research

The goal of the study was to examine the influence of the socio-demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths in Mashonaland West Province, Zimbabwe. Thus, the study's scope is limited to urban youth but focusing on entrepreneurial propensity and particularly on socio-demographic factor. Age, education, background, entrepreneurial propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship are all important variables in this study. The study was conducted in Mashonaland West, Zimbabwe for a period of three years that is between 2022 and 2024 and focusing on the period between 2000 and 2024. In this study, urban youth in Mashonaland West were the target population.

1.8 Research Assumptions

The study was based on the following assumptions:

a. Youth entrepreneurship are a cohesive group.

b. All respondents gave truthful, accurate and unbiased responses.

c. The sample size used was representative of the total population.

d. The research was carried out in a normal and stable environment.

e. The results were relevant to the sector and will be understandable and accurate in relation to the research topic.

1.9 Limitations

a.The study focused only on Mashonaland West province out of ten provinces in Zimbabwe.
b. The study focused only on urban youth and neglecting rural youth.

c. The study focused only on socio demographic factor and left other factors.

1.10 Dissertation Outline

The dissertation is arranged as follows: Chapter one covers the background and the problem among other issues. Then chapter two covers the literature for the study. Followed by chapter three which covers the research methodology of the study. Then chapter four covers data presentation, analysis and discussion of findings. Chapter five is the last chapter which covers the study summary, conclusions and recommendations.

1.11 Operational definition of research constructs

1.11a. Socio demographic factor: is a socially constructed factor that influence individual behavior and this include personal background, family background, gender and the early experiences of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs.

1.11b. Background: refers to a person's social background and earlier experiences.

1.11c. Education: refers to the process of receiving or giving systematic instruction, especially at a school or university.

1.11d. Age: refers to how old an individual is and it can be denoted by number of years for an individual from birth to date.

1.11e. Entrepreneurial propensity: is an individual propensity to set up a new business, or to accelerate an enterprise's growth by putting forward or developing a new operating idea or measure, which plays a very important role in starting and running a business.

1.11f. Youth entrepreneurship: refers to a process whereby creative and innovative ideas are transformed into enterprises initiated and managed by young people with the primary purpose of addressing their socio-economic challenges such as poverty and unemployment.

1.12 Chapter summary

Chapter one presented the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the research objectives, the research questions and the hypothesis of the study. The significance of the study, the scope of the study and the assumptions were also presented and discussed in detail. Finally, the structure of the dissertation and operational definitions were explained in detail. The next chapter presents the literature review of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Literature for the study is divided into theoretical framework and conceptual literature. The theories covered are Shapero's entrepreneurial event model and theory of planned behaviour model. Concepts discussed are socio-demographic factor and its variables such as background, formal education, age and marital status. Also, discussed was entrepreneurial propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study is informed by Shapero's entrepreneurial event model and theory of planned behaviour model.

2.2.1 Major theories underpinning study

2.2.2 Shapero's entrepreneurial event model (Shapero, 1975)

Entrepreneurial event model (EEM) was developed by Shapero (1975) as framework used specifically for determining entrepreneurial intention (EI), rather than predict any intention. The theory of the entrepreneurial event assumes that two prerequisites should be met before starting a new business. Firstly, an individual must perceive the idea of starting a business as credible, that is, he or she finds this idea as both attractive and achievable. Secondly, starting a business is initiated by some type of displacing event which can take the form of neutral, negative or positive experiences. Neutral events may take the form of graduating from university. Negative events may include losing one's job, or getting a divorce. Whereas,

positive events may include receiving an inheritance or venture capital from a stakeholder (Krueger *et. al.* 2000; Shapero & Sokol, 1982).

The displacement experienced will bring about a change in behaviour, and if the individual views the idea of starting a business as credible, he or she will act upon this feeling. This is known as the entrepreneurial event, where perceived feasibility, perceived desirability and propensity to act influence the intention and in turn the behaviour of an individual to start a business Ali; (2023). Shapero (1984) explains that the underlying mechanisms of the EEM are more complicated than they appear. In particular cases only perceived feasibility and perceived desirability will be a sufficient indication of EI, whereas other cases may account for variance explained by all three predictors. Another interesting aspect of this model is the complex nature of propensity to act. This predictor not only has a direct effect in determining EI, but also has moderating effects between the other variables within the EEM.

Perceived feasibility and perceived desirability are also shaped by situational variables, social factors, individual characteristics and the cultural environment (Otache,at al 2021). Thus the sufficiency of the model will vary according to the context and environment where it is applied. Perceived desirability has been found to play a fundamental role in determining EI. This perception is usually shaped through the attitudes and beliefs of an individual starting a business (Nowiński,at al 2020). These attitudes and beliefs can be shaped through various factors, for example, entrepreneurship education has been found to encourage a favourable attitude toward starting a business (Oulhou & Ibourk, 2023). Other research shows that role models, or successful business people could also increase the attractiveness of entrepreneurship if these individuals inspire others through knowledge and sharing their positive experiences (Wilson, Marlino & Kickul, 2004). In cases where individuals have favourable attitudes toward entrepreneurship and have positive beliefs about entrepreneurship, they will perceive entrepreneurship as a desired career choice. Higher levels of perceived desirability are associated with higher level of EI (Shapero & Sokol, 1982).

Perceived feasibility has also been identified as another important determinant of EI. The key factor that shapes this perception is the evaluation of an individual with regard to whether they have the skill and capability necessary to start a business (Krueger, 1993; Shapero & Sokol, 1982). Godsey and Sebora (2010) explain that an individual's level of perceived feasibility is positively influenced by their entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy is defined by an individual's evaluation of his or her ability, as well as how to effectively use available resources in order to start a business (Godsey & Sebora, 2010). The

idea of self-efficacy is that individuals usually avoid tasks, or behaviours, that they perceive to be out of their skill set or capability. However, when this characteristic is shaped through external factors, it may result in positive outcomes. For example, education could allow individuals learn the skills required to start a business. When an individual has knowledge about business operation and understands entrepreneurship, this may increase entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and in turn, change his or her perceptions. Individuals who possess the necessary skills often feel that starting a business is a feasible event (Godsey & Sebora, 2010). Thus individuals who perceive starting a business as feasible are more likely to demonstrate strong EI.

Propensity to act was actually identified as a key personality characteristic of entrepreneurs before the perceptions of feasibility and desirability were considered in the EEM (Shapero, 1975). Shapero (1975) associates this variable to internal locus of control and has even suggested that using an internal locus of control scale as a proxy in the absence of appropriate measures. According to Categorized, (2020) the internal locus of control refers to the individual's perception of his/her ability to influence the events within their lives. Individuals who have an internal locus of control believe that they dictate their own lives opposed to individuals you have an external locus of control and attribute events within their lives to external factors (Hassin Pritha, 2022). The type of control determines whether an individual has the ability within themselves to execute a plan of action independently (Gurel et al., 2010). Therefore, an individual who does not have an appropriate level of propensity to act cannot be an entrepreneur, as he/she will not be able to initiate new venture creation 20 (Shapero, 1982).

The conceptualisation of propensity to act has varied to a certain extent through research, and this has also resulted in measurement errors of the variable. Propensity to act is also recognised as the most complex predictor within the model. Shapero and Sokol (1982) argue that propensity to act not only has a direct effect on EI, but also acts as a moderating variable between the other predictors and EI. This emphasises the importance of propensity to act within this model. For example, if propensity to act is low, an individual's attitude toward entrepreneurship may be less favourable (Poolsawat, 2021).

Perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and propensity to act have been found to correlate with one another, and are used collectively in the EEM to predict EI (Krueger, 1993). The predictive validity of the model can be determined by a regression analysis where all variables are entered. Alternatively, researchers have also used structural equation modelling

to determine whether or not the EEM shows a good fit as a model of EI prediction (Schlaegel & Koenig, 2013). As outlined by Shapero and Sokol (1982) the results obtained from the analysis may differ depending on the context and not all variables may have a significant effect on EI. The fact that not all predictors may be significant does not entail that the EEM is not a sufficient predictor of EI within the context of that study. Rather, it explains which predictors are more important in predicting EI within that context.

2.2.3.Theory of planned behaviour model (Ajzen, 1991)

The theory of planned behaviour model (TPB) was developed as an extension of the theory of reasoned action (TRA). Tanhan & Young, (2021) collaborated to study behaviour and outcomes, they proposed the TRA as a theoretical framework for behaviour prediction. They sought to understand behaviour and claimed that individuals are rational, and consider the implications of their actions before performing any action Conner, (2020). However, it was realised that the TRA was not a sufficient model to predict behaviour due to one major limitation. It was concluded that the TRA model only functions well when the behaviour is under an individual's volitional control (Ajzen, 1988). Perceived behavioural control was introduced into the model as an indicator of the degree of control an individual has over the behaviour. The new extended model was coined the theory of planned behavoir. This model sought to achieve the same goal as the TRA (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen, 1991).

The TPB was recognised as a general model which could be applied to any behaviour. The main aim of the model is to not only predict, but also understand any motivational factors which influenced behaviour that was not under the individual's volitional control. Madden, Ellen and Ajzen (1992) demonstrate in their study that the additional component accounted for more of the variance in behavioural intention, and thus improved behavioural intent prediction. Understanding behaviour meant identifying and manipulating the antecedents of behaviour, if this could be achieved then behaviour could be changed. (Ajzen, 1988; Ajzen, 1991). The TPB suggests that an individual's beliefs about performing a behaviour influences their behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 2005). The theory is underlined by the following assumptions; intention is an immediate antecedent of the actual behaviour. Intention is determined by attitudes toward a behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. These determinants are formed by an individual's set of beliefs relating to each component respectively. Lastly, behavioural, normative and control beliefs are determined by an individual's background, culture, demographics and experiences (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2005). Another important aspect of the TPB is that attitudes toward behaviour, subjective

norms and perceived behavioural control are related to one another. Perceived behavioural control is the only component directly related to the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Behavioural beliefs refer to the connection an individual establishes between a given behaviour and the outcome that behaviour produces Conner (2020). Ajzen (1991) suggests that an individual may have many beliefs regarding a behaviour, though only some of those beliefs are readily accessible. The accessible beliefs function in tandem with the subjective understanding of the outcomes, which are believed to be produced by the behaviour, and in turn develop that individual's attitude toward a specific behaviour. Therefore, depending on the strength of behavioural beliefs of an individual, the attitude toward behaviour is usually positively or negatively shaped (Ajzen, 1991). The attitude toward behaviour has a direct influence on an individual's behavioural intention, where a more positive orientated attitude results in a stronger behavioural intention, and a more negative orientated attitude results in a weaker behavioural intention.

Normative beliefs refer to the individual's perception of other closely associated individuals and groups' beliefs regarding a specific behaviour. These individuals may include friends and family, as well as role models, work colleagues, or any other relevant individual or group, dependent on the behaviour. An individual's motivation to perform a behaviour is reliant on this perception and respectively this establishes an individual's subjective norms. An individual has strong subjective norms and is highly likely to have strong behavioural intention when these referents are for the behaviour. However, an individual whose referents do not approve the given behaviour usually have weak subjective norms and are less motivated, in turn also exhibit lower levels of behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991).

Control beliefs refer to those factors an individual believes to either facilitate, or impede, a behaviour. The perceived behavioural control is determined by the individual's beliefs regarding the degree of power that individual exerts over those factors which may facilitate, or impede, the performance of a behaviour. Stronger control beliefs and perceived power allows an individual to believe that he/she has the ability to perform a behaviour. Weaker control beliefs and perceived power will impede an individual's performance of a behaviour (Azjen, 1991).

Apart from being the only component related to the actual behaviour, perceived behavioural control has been the only component that has been conceptualized as another variable throughout the research. It has been argued that the conceptualisation of self-efficacy and

perceived behavioural control are similar Vamvaka, at al (2020) defined self-efficacy as an individual's beliefs in his/her abilities to accomplish a task. Ajzen (2005) has concluded due to its similarity, self-efficacy is an acceptable alternative to perceived behavioural control within the model of the TPB. Ajzen (2005) explains that each of these antecedents play a role in predicting behavioural intention. Attitudes toward the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control should be measured as they are directly associated with behavioural intention. Measuring the beliefs is not recommended, as they are antecedents of attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, thus they are indirectly associated with behavioural intention (Ajzen, 2005). To assess the sufficiency of the model in predicting behavioural intent, the data of the antecedents of intention are gathered from measurement, and should be put into a regression analysis. If the regression analysis provides significant results of prediction for one or more of the antecedents, this concludes that the model is sufficient to predict behavioural intent within the context of that specific study. However, if one or more antecedents reveal insignificant results, this means these antecedents are not significant predictors of intent within the context of the study (Ajzen, 2005).

These two theories, that is entrepreneurial event model and the theory of planned behaviour model are crucial in studying entrepreneurial propensity. For example, the entrepreneurial event model is used specifically for determining entrepreneurial intention rather than predict any intention. This is crucial since this study is concerned about the socio demographic factors that propel urban youth to venture into entrepreneurship. Also, the theory of planned behaviour model sought to understand behaviour and claimed that individuals are rational, and consider the implications of their actions before performing any action. This imply that even urban youth consider the outcomes of their actions of starting a business, if the implications are positive they will embark on starting a business.

2.3 Socio demographic factors that influence entrepreneurial propensity

According to the prevailing literature, entrepreneurial behavior of any society is determined by different factors. These are social, personality and environmental factors (Jumamil, Depositario & Zapata Jr, 2017). Social factors or demographic factors examine the personal background, family background, gender and the early experiences of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Personality factors, widely known as trait model, focus on personality characteristics of entrepreneurs (Rahman, Sadeek, Ahmed, Rifaat & Abrar, 2021). Trait model rests on the assumption that entrepreneurs possess certain

inherent characteristics, values and attitudes that provide an impetus for them and distinguish them from others (Al-amri et al., 2022). Demographic and economic factors such as education, age, wealth, and work situation are found to be important drivers of entrepreneurial behaviour (Arenius & Minniti, 2005). Two key demographic variables that influence entrepreneurship activities are gender and family/ parental background (Nguyen, 2018). Socio-demographic factors such as gender, age, level of education or job situation can be used to explain the existing entrepreneurial potential. This study focuses on background, education and gender.

2.4 Background of urban youths and entrepreneurial propensity

The background means person's social background and earlier experiences (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). Shapero and Skol (1982) have revealed that the family, particularly, the father or mother, plays the most powerful role in establishing the desirability and credibility of entrepreneurial actions. Kolvereid (1996a), found a statistically significant relationship between small business work experience and interest in owning a small firm. Compared to other types of work experience, past entrepreneurial experience may be more important for entrepreneurial success (Sandberg & Hofer, 1987; Vesper, 1990) and for interest in an entrepreneurial career.

Scott and Twomey (1988) found that respondents whose parents owned a small business showed the highest preference for self-employment and the lowest preference for organizational employment. Tkachev and kolvereld (1999) studied 552 students in Russian context; examined the relationship between demographic variables and entrepreneurial intention and discovered that family background and gender were not contributed for entrepreneurial motivation but self-employment experience have marginally supported.

Role modelling refers to learning by examples rather direct experience. In role modelling, the individual adopts the behaviour by informal and unintentional observation (Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999). Crant (1996) confirms that being raised in a family that is entrepreneurial significantly impacts individuals' propensity to start their own businesses). Other studies also confirm that the children of entrepreneurs learn the factors involving in running a business and consider establishing a new organization as a natural career choice option (Cooper et al., 1994; Sandberg & Hofer, 1987). Furthermore, having role models is also a significant factor in wanting to start a business as pointed out by Birley and Westhead (1994) and having self-

employed parents tend to be especially relevant as mentors and guides for children starting their own businesses as highlighted by Matthews and Moser (1995).

In family, entrepreneurial parents form a role model and create management know-how for the individual entrepreneur (Papadaki et al., 2002). McElwee and Al-Riyami (2003) also states that children who grew up with entrepreneur parents had a greater tendency to choose a self-employed career. Similarly, Fairlie and Robb (2007) showed that entrepreneurs tended to have a self-employed mother or father in their family history. Mueller (2006) concludes parental role modelling to be the most significant familial factor on entrepreneurial propensity. Through the socialization process of children, exposure to entrepreneurship experience in the family business constitutes important intergenerational influence on entrepreneurship propensity (Carr & Sequeira, 2007).

Remarkably, Drennan et al. (2005) reports that those who found a positive view of their family's business experience perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible (Drennan et al., 2005). Alsos et al. (2011) also indicate that a family business has a role to play in enhancing the development of entrepreneurship among family members. Recently, Chaudhary (2017) confirms that self-employed family background will have a positive relationship with entrepreneurial propensity. There is a confirmation by many studies on the impacts of background on entrepreneurial propensity.

There seems to be a consensus on the proposition that the family is the primary agent of socialisation. Parents are seen as role models exercising both overt and covert technical influence on their wards as they set norms, values and orient behaviours in the course of daily life (Nguyen, 2018). Thus, the children on daily basis observe and imbibe certain latent values passed on to them by their parents, all of which shape their future personality and career (Çera, et al., 2018). This signals the likely significant influence of family entrepreneurial history on children's business interest. Stella (2008) in her study of the British Indian and Chinese student concluded that joining family-owned businesses motivates and thus, provide opportunities for realising entrepreneurial ambitions. Czuchry and Yasin (2008) also found that the entrepreneurial engagements of both parents are strongly correlated with the children's business interests. Davidson (1995) in his study of business owners in Sweden and Stanworth et al. (1989) in their work on British actual and aspiring entrepreneurs concluded that parental entrepreneurial engagement influences entrepreneurial propensity among the youth. Verheul and Thurik (2002) noted that not only do entrepreneurs seem to inspire their wards to become self-employed, there is also substantial reason for their children

to believe that there is both financial and moral support for starting up, if not taking over their parents' business in the event of the parents' death or retirement. Wang and Wong (2002) and Scott and Twomey (1988) concluded on similar notes. More precisely, Kirkwood (2007) found a broader influence of fathers for male students relative to motherhood effect.

2.5 Relationship between formal education and entrepreneurial propensity

In recent years, scholars and government officials show a growing interest in business start-ups, particularly those founded by well-educated young people (Audretsch, 2007; European Commission, 2008). At a macroeconomic level, the reason for this development is mainly attributed to an increasing belief that entrepreneurship can play a decisive role both in job generation as well as in the creation of innovation and wealth (Reynolds et al., 2001; Ahmad & Hoffman, 2008; Keilbach et al., 2009; Mariotti, 2009). At an individual level, entrepreneurship is today recognised as a much worthier employment option compared to previous decades, since due to the recent economic and financial crises worldwide, it is more probable that young educated people cannot any more be as easily occupied in traditional employment types, as in the past (Henderson & Robertson, 2000; Bosma et al., 2010).

As a corollary, there is an immense concern regarding the role that certain higher education systems in different countries can play in fostering students' decisions to found a business upon graduation or even earlier. Although there is no consensus regarding the impact that entrepreneurship courses actually have on university students' decision to opt for self-employment (Bechard & Gregoire (2005); Schaper & Casimir, 2007), the number of entrepreneurship study courses delivered by higher education institutions worldwide is growing fast (Kuratko, 2003; Gibb, 2002; Schramm, 2006; Klaper & Leger-Jarniou, 2006; Volkmann et al., 2009). The rationale behind such initiatives is that basic literacy in entrepreneurial concepts can at least raise awareness on an entrepreneurial career (Reynolds et al., 2003; Storey & Greene, 2010).

Accordingly, other writers argue that since entrepreneurship can be learned, well designed university programmes could promote various components necessary for entrepreneurship such as judgement, risk taking, independency and creativity thus pulling students towards an entrepreneurial life-style (Kolvereid & Moen, 1997; Knight & Yorke, 2002; Gibb, 2002). Despite, however, the increase in study programmes that promote the attractiveness of entrepreneurship, as an option for the students' career choice, and the role higher education can play to this end, it still remains unclear which are the factors that actually influence an

individual's propensity to become an entrepreneur (Gartner, 1985; Gartner et al., 2004). On the one hand, the reason for this uncertainty is partially attributed to differences in entrepreneurship education from country to country and even more across the same country from one educational institution to another, mainly due to differences in learning practices and practical administrative support (Kuratko, 2005; Pittaway & Cope, 2007).

On the other hand, a considerable number of researchers argue that no general conclusion can be reached on the matter since there are differences in the way individuals perceive the barriers or facilitators encountered during the pre-foundation and/or early start-up phase of the entrepreneurial process (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994). In this sense, it is important to combine both perspectives and, by focusing on an individual analysis level, explore the factors that an individual considers as leading him/her towards entrepreneurship within a university specific environment.

Kolvereid and Moen (1997) explored the effect of entrepreneurship education by comparing the behaviour of business graduates with a major in entrepreneurship and graduates with other majors from a Norwegian business school. The result indicated that graduate with an entrepreneurship major are more likely to start new businesses and have stronger entrepreneurial intentions than other graduates.

The theoretical literature in economics considers education to be an engine of innovation (Arenius & Minniti, 2005). According to Davidsson and Honig (2003), greater human capital is associated with increased opportunity perception and an increased likelihood of entrepreneurial behaviour. Factors such as the availability of financing, education, labour markets, and quality of existing infrastructure have all been shown to be important factors that influence entrepreneurship (Levesque & Minniti, 2003).

Van der Sluis et al. (2004) shows that the effect of general education, measured in years of schooling, on entrepreneur performance is positive. Some other studies show that the educational background plays a vital role on creating entrepreneurial skills (Murphy, 2006). On level of education, it is possible to see a positive attitude of university students towards enterprise and small business (Birdthistle, 2008). However, the relationship between university education in general and entrepreneurship is not so strong and contested (Galloway & Brown, 2002; Pittaway & Cope, 2007). Moreover, Franke and Lüthje (2004) found that students who assess the university environment as being insufficient or negative to encourage the entrepreneurship have significantly lower entrepreneurial propensity than those who have

positive perceptions. This finding is consistent with Davidsson and Honig (2003), where they show that while education can help a person discover new opportunities, it does not necessarily determine whether he or she will create a new business to exploit the opportunity. However, Quan (2012) confirms that advanced educational background has a positive impact on one's impulsive entrepreneurship propensity and one's deliberate entrepreneurship propensity.

Meanwhile, there is a different literature branch studying the efficiency of higher education in promoting the creation of new firms. In this respect, some authors such as Jones (2010) cast some doubts on such ability of higher education to promote entrepreneurship ventures, while others believe higher education in general, and entrepreneurship education in particular, may be key instruments to help promote entrepreneurial activity (Nabi & Linan, 2011). Therefore, the impact of education on entrepreneurial intention is still remaining inconclusive.

2.6 How age of urban youth affects entrepreneurial propensity

Age is another influential element of socio-demographic factor (Al-amri et al., 2022). The age of a person plays a significant role in establishing characteristics generally associated with entrepreneurial behaviour (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Age plays some role on entrepreneurial decisions. For example, the probability of starting a business has been shown to increase with age up to a threshold point and to decrease thereafter (Blanchflower, 2004). In fact, when perceptual variables are considered, the explanatory powers of age decrease or disappear completely, suggesting that age may influence start up decisions primarily because of its influence on perceptions (Munir et al., 2021). Volkmann et al. (2009) argue that youth entrepreneurship is not essentially different from entrepreneurship among adults. The only difference is in the age of the entrepreneur and what differs between youth and adult entrepreneurship, given the inherently different levels of intellectual and behavioural maturity is how entrepreneurship is taught and how it is learned (Çera et al., 2018).

Age is used as a control variable in many studies because of its influence on career decisions (Choukir et al., 2019). Younger individuals might be more willing to engage in risky entrepreneurial activities as they have less to lose if they were unsuccessful and can well take the lessons learned as experiences (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). On the other hand, older individuals may be in a better financial position to participate in entrepreneurial activities (Blanchflower, 2004). Schøtt et al. (2015) postulate that older youth display the highest level of entrepreneurial propensity. The youth, as a group, generally show significantly higher

levels of entrepreneurial propensity than the adults (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). In the older youth category, this propensity translates into a relatively high level of actual entrepreneurial activity, while the young youth show a significant decline between entrepreneurial propensity and entrepreneurial activity (Maulani & Agwanda, 2020).

Despite the fact that entrepreneurship is regarded as a potential solution for one of the world's most important current problems, namely the youth unemployment challenge, there are a limited number of studies that investigate young entrepreneurs as a distinct group or in comparison to the older age cohorts (Geldhof et al., 2014). Young people differ from adults in a number of areas including access to capital and resources, psychology, influence from society and environmental conditions and social attitudes (Hlungwani et al., 2021). These differences need to be acknowledged and addressed in research aimed at facilitating youth entrepreneurship (Dragin et al., 2022).

The results from a study by Dzingirai (2020) confirmed a weak negative association between age and youth entrepreneurial success. However, a series of recent studies have indicated that there is an influence between age and entrepreneurial propensity and it was found that age positively relates to entrepreneurial propensity (Al-amri et al., 2022). This finding confirms that a person's entrepreneurial propensity grows with age (Turulja, Agic & Veselinovic, 2020; Schwarz et al., 2009). In addition, previous studies confirm that age is associated with a lower likelihood of having an entrepreneurial propensity (Nguyen, 2018; Hatak et al, 2015). Some other research found that the number of youths starting new businesses is increasing due to unemployment (Turulja, Agic & Veselinovic, 2020; Nazri et al., 2016). Therefore, many studies stated that the age of 25 and above is the most suitable age at which individuals are capable to start their own business.

Regarding the impact of age on entrepreneurial propensity, there are also countervailing effects (Al-amri et al., 2022). Scholars such as Furdas and Kohn (2010) observed an inverted U-shape influence of age on individual start-up propensity. Age can be an important factor in entrepreneurial propensity. Research showed that people mostly decide to establish their own firms between the ages of 20 to 45 (Gulruh, 2010). This tendency was especially between the ages of 25 to 34. Boyd et al. (2000) showed that age is positively correlated with entrepreneurial propensity. More specifically, Bates (2002) demonstrates that the propensity or the likelihood to be entrepreneurial, increases with age, peaking as people approach 40 and then levelling out.

According to Levesque and Minniti (2003), age, risk propensity, wealth and alternative employment options contribute to entrepreneurial decisions. Levesque and Minniti (2003) have shown that the relationship between age and the likelihood of starting a new business is highest at a relatively early age and decreases thereafter. The same study underlines the fact that, as age increases, individuals become less and less willing to commit time to activities which yield returns over time, such as starting a new firm. Reynolds et al. (2003) emphasize the fact that individuals between 25 and 34 years are the most likely to be nascent entrepreneurs.

Some researchers believe that people mostly decide to establish their own firms between the ages of 25 to 34 (Choo & Wong, 2006; Delmar & Davidsson, 2000). Although older people are more capable of exhibiting behaviours that deviate from the customary way of doing business as they have greater means and opportunity for doing so (Curran & Blackburn, 2001; Weber & Schaper, 2004) but they are much less likely as younger people to take steps toward acting entrepreneurially (Hart et al., 2004) or to actually establish a company (Kautonen, 2008). Levesque and Minniti (2006) explain the age-related effect on entrepreneurial intention as a result of the opportunity costs of time. It can thus be assumed that age has a negative relation with entrepreneurial propensity. In addition, Hatak et al. (2015) confirms that age is associated with a lower likelihood of having an entrepreneurial propensity. In contrast, Chaudhary (2017) does not support age is inversely related to entrepreneurial inclination.

2.7 Marital status and entrepreneurial propensity

Marital status is the key distinction for transitions to self-employment, whereby living with a partner is different for married and unmarried individuals (Mindes & Lewin, 2023). A study by (Osabohien, Worgwu, Adediran & Soomro, 2023) found that marital status is not significant factor determining the likelihood of establishing a social enterprise. A study by Ilevbare, Ilevbare, Adelowo and Oshorenua (2022) observed that demographic variables such as marital status influenced entrepreneurial intention among undergraduates. The literature has also begun to extend into the domain of the family, reflecting growing recognition of the disproportionate number of married entrepreneurs (Parker, 2008). Married people can exploit knowledge spillovers from their spouses (Hayward, Cheng, Wang & Smyth, 2023). Married couples are an especially important group to analyse in the context of entrepreneurship because they make up the majority of business owners (Shahid Satar, Alarifi, Alkhoraif & Asad, 2023). This raises the possibility that the scope of spillovers might extend beyond

marriage, and encompass relatives and other kin, especially in societies where extended families are the norm (Tennakoon, Lasanthika, Dilshani, Amarathunga, Praveeni & Wijethunge, 2023).

Marital status has been found to be associated with motivational aspects of women entrepreneurs (Roy & Manna, 2014). Marital status results in lower growth intentions especially for women (Byrne et al., 2016).) Marital status affects the relative importance of intra entrepreneurship (Kang, Sinha, Park & Lee, 2021). Marital status, being a parent is useful in explaining differences in pathways into entrepreneurship for men and women (Laure Humbert & Drew, 2010). Marital status is becoming a weaker predictor of women's participation (Sheng, Niu & Zhou, 2023). It is also strongly linked to the presence of dependent children, while men appear to be largely unaffected by family status (Ensari, 2017).

Parker (2008) indicates that married individuals have higher entrepreneurial potential than single individuals. The findings by Roy and Manna (2014) reveal that the entrepreneur's entrepreneurial attitudes are very much influenced by their marital status and the level of entrepreneurial attitudes increased as the change in the marital status. Literature provides an interesting fact that the demographic characteristics of indicators such as marital status may be twofold (positive and negative) in act of business creation (Bula, 2012). On one hand, marital status increases the opportunity to become entrepreneurs; on the other hand it reduces due to more perspective wage labour (Bula, 2012; Rinaldi, Arrighetti, Lasagni & Canello, 2023). Marital status whether positive or negative, may affect the start-up of business (Byrne, Tounés, Giacomin & Fattoum, 2016). Marital status (marriage, children) influences men's and women's determination to establish a business differently; the family encourages women to become entrepreneurs, contrary to men to suspend them from venturing into business (Chhabra & Karmarkar, 2016). Business-friendly factors are the presence of entrepreneur as the spouse/parent, race, ethnic minorities, emigration, which both promote genders and people of various age to engage in their own business (Laure Humbert & Drew, 2010; Olorunfemi, 2023).

2.8 Entrepreneurial propensity

Entrepreneurial propensity has been defined by many different scholars worldwide (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999) defines entrepreneurial propensity as one's willingness to undertake entrepreneurial activity, or in other words becoming self-employed. Entrepreneurial propensity is an individual inclination to set up a

new business or to accelerate an enterprise's growth by putting forward or developing a new operating idea or measure, which plays a very important role in starting and running a business (Olulani & Adekemi, 2023). Choo and Wong (2006) define entrepreneurial propensity as the search for information that can be used to help fulfill the goal of venture creation. Entrepreneurial propensity can generally be defined as a conscious awareness and conviction by an individual who set up a new business venture and plans to do so in the future (Bird, 1988; Thompson, 2009).

Pihie et al. (2009) ADD state propensity is a state of mind or attitude that influences entrepreneurial behaviour. Entrepreneurial behaviour is a process that unfolds over time for the individual (Shane, 2000). Van Gelderen (2008) states that entrepreneurial propensity is central to understanding the entrepreneurship process because it forms the underpinnings of new organizations. The opposite status of being self-employed is becoming a waged or salaried individual (Fosu, 2023). There are many approaches to studying entrepreneurial propensity but there are two most popular models which are Shapero's entrepreneurial event model (Shapero, 1975) and the theory of planned behavior model (Ajzen, 1991).

The propensity for youths to set up their business, and the opportunities to accumulate the necessary attributes and competence, are based on entrepreneurial intentions which are driven by many factors (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). The individual decision to start a business is influenced by social demographic factors (Furdas & Kohn, 2010). Among several factors found to influence willingness to undertake entrepreneurial activity are psycho-social and cultural factors such as gender differences, family background, ethnicity, age, educational background, and self-efficacy (Munir et al., 2021). Fostering effective entrepreneurial activity among the youth is regarded as a critical development strategy to integrate them into the labour market as well as harness their potential to contribute in a meaningful way to sustainable economic development in their regions (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018).

Despite the fact that entrepreneurship is regarded as a potential solution for one of the world's most important current problems, namely the youth unemployment challenge, there are a limited number of studies that investigate young entrepreneurs as a distinct group or in comparison to the older age cohorts (Dzingirai, 2020; Geldhof et al., 2014). Previous studies of youth involvement in entrepreneurship have investigated young people in themselves, addressing questions like, how are young people acquiring entrepreneurial competencies, resources, vocational intentions, and becoming entrepreneurs (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Most of the intra-group studies about youth entrepreneurship contain a population of students

in the formal educational system or students who follow entrepreneurial programmes offered by non-governmental organisations or other organisations (Kvedaraite 2014; Geldhof et al. 2014). These studies tend to focus on how young people acquire entrepreneurial competencies, resources, and vocational intentions (Dzingirai, 2020). Much research focuses on young people's acquisition of entrepreneurial interests, intention, and competencies through their education and training (Levie et al. 2013). A shortcoming of most of such research is its focus on students, and lack of focus on other kinds of young people, e.g. the unemployed youth (Maireva & Magomana, 2021).

Many young individuals who have the intention to start their own business are not students or graduates (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). Another shortcoming is the typical focus on intention to become an entrepreneur, and a lack of focus on young individuals' transition from intention to starting an entrepreneurial venture (Dzingirai, 2020). By limiting their focus to entrepreneurial potential, these types of studies do not test the effect of education on the real entrepreneurial activities of young individuals (Hamilton & Hamilton, 2012).

Despite their low educational attainment, the GEM data show that at least 60% of the youth population in all the surveyed countries except South Africa showed entrepreneurial propensity or were currently actively pursuing an entrepreneurial opportunity (Dzingirai, 2020). Entrepreneurial propensity includes potential and intentional entrepreneurs (Fosu, 2023). However, the level of entrepreneurial propensity varies across countries (Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). Uganda recorded the highest youth entrepreneurial propensity with 55.4%, followed by Malawi (52.3%) and Namibia (44.1%). South Africa had the lowest youth entrepreneurial propensity of only 23.3% (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018).

According to the prevailing literature, the entrepreneurial behavior of any society is determined by different factors (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). These are social, personality, and environmental factors (Jumamil, Depositario & Zapata Jr, 2017). Social factors or demographic factors examine the personal background, family background, gender and the early experiences of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Personality factors, widely known as the trait model, focus on the personality characteristics of entrepreneurs (Rahman, Sadeek, Ahmed, Rifaat & Abrar, 2021). The trait model rests on the assumption that entrepreneurs possess certain inherent characteristics, values, and attitudes that provide an impetus for them and distinguish them from others (Al-amri et al., 2022).

Demographic and economic factors such as education, age, wealth, and work situation are found to be important drivers of entrepreneurial behaviour (Arenius & Minniti, 2005). Two key demographic variables that influence entrepreneurship activities are gender and family/parental background (Nguyen, 2018). Socio-demographic factors such as gender, age, level of education, or job situation can be used to explain the existing entrepreneurial potential (Dzingirai, 2020).

The impact of the socio-demographics on entrepreneurial behaviour has drawn a lot of study in recent years (Arianto, 2018). The past years have been marked by the increasing attention given to the multi-faceted nature of entrepreneurship behaviour and activity (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). The majority of this entrepreneurial literature proposed that psychological (personality/traits), demographic (sex, age, ethnicity), and socio-cultural factors (culture and education) may provide valuable insights into entrepreneurship behavior (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). Wang and Wong (2006) investigated the determinants of interest in entrepreneurship among university students in Singapore. Gender, family background along with business and educational level were found to be significant factors in entrepreneurial propensity (Wang & Wong, 2006). In characteristics or traits-based research, it was found that entrepreneurial personality is the key component in creating a venture (Arshad, Farooq, Sultana & Farooq, 2016).

Demographic factors, such as age, sex, and ethnicity are repeatedly reported to strongly correlate with self-employment (Davidson & Delmar, 2000; Reynolds, 2004). Age can be an important factor in entrepreneurial propensity (Al-amri et al., 2022). Research showed that people mostly decide to establish their firms between the ages of 20 to 45 (Gulruh, 2010). This tendency was especially true between the ages of 25 to 34 (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016).

Boyd et al. (2000) showed that age is positively correlated with entrepreneurial propensity. More specifically, Bates (2002) demonstrates that the propensity and, as a result the likelihood to be entrepreneurial, increases with age, peaking as people approach 40 and then leveling out. Though the economic factors influencing entrepreneurship are clearly important, they do not address the possible impact of culture either directly on entrepreneurship or indirectly as an influence on these economic factors (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). Moreover, there remains a high level of unexplained variation across countries when only economic variables are taken into account (Kapp, 2003). Thus, more recently, researchers have also looked toward cultural factors to explain this variation (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016).

The decision to start a business or become self-employed, for both men and women, correlates to several variables such as age, education, work status, and household income (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). However, even after correcting for differences in the distribution of these characteristics, as well as country characteristics, the rates of self-employment have been shown to differ significantly across (Fafaliou, 2010).

Remarkably, Drennan et al. (2005) report that those who found a positive view of their family's business experience perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible. Alsos et al. (2011) also indicate that a family business has a role to play in enhancing the development of entrepreneurship among family members. Recently, Chaudhary (2017) confirmed that self-employed family background has a positive relationship with entrepreneurial propensity.

There seems to be a consensus on the proposition that the family is the primary agent of socialisation (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Parents are seen as role models exercising both overt and covert technical influence on their wards as they set norms, and values and orient behaviours in the course of daily life (Nguyen, 2018). Thus, the children on a daily basis observe and imbibe certain latent values passed on to them by their parents, all of which shape their future personality and career (Çera, et al., 2018). This signals the likely significant influence of family entrepreneurial history on children's business interests. Stella (2008) in her study of British Indian and Chinese students concluded that joining family-owned businesses motivates and thus, provides opportunities for realising entrepreneurial ambitions. Jegede & Nieuwenhuizen, (2020) also found that the entrepreneurial engagements of both parents are strongly correlated with the children's business interests. Parental entrepreneurial engagement influences entrepreneurial propensity among the youth. Adelowo, & Akinwale, (2024).

Accordingly, other writers argue that since entrepreneurship can be learned, well-designed university programmes could promote various components necessary for entrepreneurship such as judgment, risk taking, independence, and creativity thus pulling students towards an entrepreneurial lifestyle (Kolvereid & Moen, 1997; Knight & Yorke, 2002; Gibb, 2002). Despite, the increase in study programmes that promote the attractiveness of entrepreneurship, as an option for the students' career choice, and the role higher education can play to this end, it remains unclear which the factors that influence an individual's propensity to become an entrepreneur (Gartner, 1985; Gartner et al., 2004). On the one hand, the reason for this uncertainty is partially attributed to differences in entrepreneurship education from country to

country and even more across the same country from one educational institution to another, mainly due to differences in learning practices and practical administrative support (Kuratko, 2005; Pittaway & Cope, 2007).

Nonetheless, the nexus between demographic factors and entrepreneurial success is very controversial (Genty, 2015). There is a notable literature gap when it comes to the nexus between demographic factors and youth entrepreneurial success (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018). With this apparent observation in mind, Genty (2015) underscored that not much is known about the influence of demographic factors on entrepreneurial success in the context of developing countries. Accordingly, it appears to be justifiable to conduct more studies in the context of developing countries like Zimbabwe in an attempt to broaden our understanding of the influence of demographic factors on youth entrepreneurial success (Dzingirai, 2020; Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018).

Sociological theory proposes that the entrepreneurial qualities of an individual or a group remain ingrained within the society the person belongs to (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). This perspective of society is in turn influenced by the religious and ethical beliefs it subscribes to (Jackson, 1983; Rao & Singh, 2018). Entrepreneurial growth is dependent upon the ethical value system of the society concerned (Beetham, 2018). Sociological theories are different from other theories because they analyse entrepreneurial activities from the standpoint of social contexts and corresponding processes and effects (Dzingirai, 2020). They subscribe to the notion that the construction of entrepreneurship is narrowly a purposive action that leads to the formation of a new formal organization (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). They also broadly indicate various efforts that help introduce robust innovations in routines, technologies, organisational structures and social institutions (Ruef & Lounsbury, 2007). The identifying feature of sociological entrepreneurship theories is that they focus on the social context of entrepreneurship development (Simpeh, 2011).

An important trend in inter-group studies is generation theory, which considers historical shifts in generations of young and how today's young differ from those who grew up in earlier times (Grieve, (2020). Today's young people tend to have more education than those in earlier times, so today's start-ups are more knowledge-based than they were previously (Rao & Singh, 2018). The present generation of young people grew up in an era of globalisation, whereas the older generation grew up in an era when the local and national context was more salient (Woodman & Wyn 2012). Furthermore, the older generation grew up in an era when experience, especially experience in working in an enterprise, was

considered the way to acquire entrepreneurial competencies for entering entrepreneurship, while today's young generation is growing up in an era with an educational philosophy that entrepreneurial competencies are presumed learnable, i.e. education and training are considered ways to acquire competencies for pursuing an entrepreneurial career (Yukongdi & Lopa, 2017). Starting entrepreneurs are, therefore, often younger today than those in the previous generations (Schøtt & Cheraghi, 2015).

Studies of youth in the context of society are important for policy frameworks as they address the question of how different societies provide cultural, institutional, and economic support for youth to become entrepreneurs (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Young people's involvement in entrepreneurship is influenced by their individual attributes and by their environmental conditions (Beetham, 2018). Studies of entrepreneurship have distinguished between negative factors pushing people toward entrepreneurship and positive factors pulling people to become entrepreneurs (Verheul et al. 2010). A society may pull youth towards entrepreneurship by creating incentives and support for entry into entrepreneurship (Dzingirai, 2020). Social value placed on achievement, social development, independence, entrepreneurship, and innovation are examples of positive factors that may pull people toward discovering and exploiting opportunities and further toward self-employment (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Social conditions such as poverty, high unemployment, and widespread dissatisfaction are examples of negative factors that amplify the distance between people's current and desired states, which may push people into starting an enterprise to make a living (Yukongdi & Lopa, 2017).

Trait model is an approach to the study of human personality entrepreneurs (Rahman, Sadeek, Ahmed, Rifaat & Abrar, 2021). Trait theorists are primarily interested in the measurement of traits, which can be defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion (Altinay et al., 2012). The trait model of leadership is based on the characteristics of many leaders, both successful and unsuccessful, and is used to predict leadership effectiveness (Beetham, 2018). The resulting lists of traits are then compared to those of potential leaders to assess their likelihood of success or failure (Al-amri et al., 2022). The trait model, focuses on the personality characteristics of entrepreneurs (Rahman et al., 2021). The trait model rests on the assumption that entrepreneurs possess certain inherent characteristics, values, and attitudes that provide an impetus for them and distinguish them from others (Al-amri et al., 2022).

There are many approaches to studying entrepreneurial propensity but there are two most popular models which are Shapero's entrepreneurial event model (Shapero, 1975) and the theory of planned behavior model (Ajzen, 1991). The first model was the entrepreneurial event model (Shapero, 1982). The Shapero model assumes that inertia guides human behaviour until something interrupts or displaces that inertia (Yukongdi & Lopa, 2017). According to this theory, business creation can be considered as an event that can be explained by the interaction between initiatives, abilities, management, relative autonomy, and risk (Ireta-Sanchez, 2023). The premise is that the decision to perform an entrepreneurial activity requires a pre-existing attitude toward the activity as desirable and feasible, as well as a propensity to act on an opportunity (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Krueger 2000, 1994, 1993; Mhango, 2006; Shapero, 1982). The entrepreneurial event focuses more on the individual by including a measure of the individual's proactiveness (Yukongdi & Lopa, 2017).

Theory of planned behaviour (TPB) introduced by Ajzen is part of the large family of intentional models (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). It was developed and empirically tested within the broader domain of social cognition and self-regulation and has been used to try to explain the emergence of entrepreneurial behaviour (Munir et al., 2021). Krueger and Carsrud (1993) made Ajzen's (1991) model compatible with another theoretical framework, especially that of Shapero and Sokol (1982), and applied the theory of planned behaviour to the field of entrepreneurship (Fayolle et al., 2006). Based on this theory intention to perform a specific behaviour directly depends on the subject's attitudes toward the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, which is quite similar to self-efficacy and perceived feasibility (Guerrero et al., 2008; Linan & Chen, 2009; Shapero & Sokol, 1982). At the same time, Robinson et al. (1991) generated the entrepreneurial attitude orientation scale and explained attitude prediction through four different sub-scales (achievement, self-esteem, personal control, and innovation) and three types of reactions (affective, cognitive, or conative) (Paramond, 2004; Tan, long & Robinson, 1996; Guerrero et al. 2008). TPB focuses more on the environmental context by including social support for the behaviour (Shook & Bratianu, 2008).

2.9 The state of urban youth entrepreneurship

Youth entrepreneurship is the process whereby youth become aware of the self-employment career option, develop ideas, take and manage risks, learn the process, and take the initiative in developing and owning a business (Chigunta, 2002). The development of youth entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship in general is heavily dependent upon the participation

of a multiplicity of stakeholders (Nguyen, 2018). The government plays a pivotal role in promoting youth entrepreneurship (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018). In some countries, governments "discouraged" entrepreneurship while in others government activity has become so pervasive that it "crowds out" private entrepreneurship opportunities (Langa, 2016).

Youth is the time of life when one is young (Kourilsky & Walstad, 2003). The word, youth, can also mean the time between childhood and adulthood, but it can also refer to one's peak, in terms of health or the period of life known as being a young adult (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). Youth is best understood as a period of transition from the dependence of childhood to adulthood's independence (Munir et al., 2021). According to the most recent estimate, the term youth refers to the demographic group of persons in these nations who are between the ages of 15 and 24 (Dragin et al., 2022; Nguyen, 2018). While there are more and younger people, a significant portion of them are experiencing social isolation and unemployment (Furdas & Kohn, 2010).

Various external and internal factors influence entrepreneurship, particularly among young individuals (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). According to Al-amri et al. (2022), personal characteristics such as values, motivations, education, self-efficacy, prior experience, and risk perception not only shape entrepreneurial intentions but also influence the process of translating intentions into action. Eresia-Eke, De Villiers, Pinto and Dele-Ijagbulu (2023) have noted that personal traits significantly impact a person's entrepreneurial intentions and their ability to recognize and evaluate opportunities, explaining the variations in entrepreneurial intentions among individuals. Personal attributes, including risk tolerance, self-confidence, self-efficacy, locus of control, need for achievement, and fear of failure, all play a role in shaping entrepreneurial intentions (Asmare, 2023).

Research suggests that potential entrepreneurs are more likely to start new ventures in favourable market conditions with a range of viable business opportunities (Khanal, 2024). Conversely, individuals are less inclined to pursue entrepreneurship when the market lacks opportunities and various barriers discourage market entry (Mishra & Gupta, 2024). Literature has also shown that access to business resources significantly facilitates the process of establishing an entrepreneurial venture (Fosu, 2023). Prospective entrepreneurs require financial, human, technological, and social networking resources to initiate and grow a business (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). Sociologists connect social norms with economic perspectives (Shahid Satar et al., 2023).), as entrepreneurship is directly linked to economic

survival and growth for individuals (Rizzato et al., 2023). Attitudes and socially accepted behaviours are ingrained in individuals as they mature (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018).

Cultural factors can influence career choices (Fosu, 2023) and either encourage or discourage enterprise (Mishra & Gupta, 2024). An individual's perception of cultural context has also been found to impact the intensity of entrepreneurship (Omolawal, 2023). Cultural factors are relevant to opportunity recognition, entrepreneurial traits, beliefs, fear of entrepreneurship, and risk aversion (Asmare, 2023). Early research on culture's role in entrepreneurship revealed that societies valuing achievement tend to exhibit higher levels of entrepreneurial activity (Msosa, 2023).

Entrepreneurship appears to provide both pathways out of poverty and mitigation against severe poverty for some young people (Garwe, 2014). Unlike the majority of non-entrepreneurial youth (that is, those not involved in running a business venture), some entrepreneurial youth, especially older ones, can develop sustained economic activities and pursue independent livelihoods (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). In recent years, the promotion of youth entrepreneurship as a means of improving youth livelihoods in the Third World has attracted increasing attention from scholars and policy makers (Bennell 2000; Curtain 2002; Barasa and Kaabwe 2001; Chigunta 2007; Sommers 2010; Chigunta 2012; Chigunta and Chisupa 2013). Most of this attention has focused on sub-Saharan Africa (African countries south of the Sahara desert) where many countries are faced with seemingly overwhelming problems posed by ever-growing numbers of unemployed youth (Mulenga 2000; Chigunta et al. 2013). Employment and economic opportunities in the formal sector of the economy have generally contracted, in part due to measures linked to structural adjustment programs (Chigunta 2012; Chigunta et al. 2013).

Given the high youth unemployment rate, it is worth mentioning that youths have found a plethora of innovative ways to exploit their core competencies and capabilities in the informal sector in a manner that stimulates employment creation (Fox, Senbet & Simbanegavi, 2016). Consequently, it appears to be a more prudent approach for the government to implement various interventions targeted to unlock the entrepreneurial value of the youth (Langa, 2016). This can also allow Zimbabwe to effectively attain its Vision 2030 (Dzingirai, 2020). Of late, the Zimbabwean government has realized that youth entrepreneurship is of great importance when it comes to sustainable socio-economic development in the face of a high youth unemployment rate (Maulani & Agwanda, 2020).

It is an indisputable fact that Zimbabwe is one of the Sub-Saharan African countries with high levels of youth unemployment (Dzingirai, 2020). The problem of youth unemployment and under-employment in Zimbabwe poses complex economic, social and moral policy issues (Hlungwani et al., 2021). The youth are undeniably among the most important formidable force and resource a country can have in order to boost its social and economic development (Maulani & Agwanda, 2020). In addition to being large in number, the youth are energetic and if they are well coordinated and actively engaged in economic activities, could contribute significantly to socio-economic development (Aydin, Nyadera & Onder, 2020; Nyadera, 2018). Though youth unemployment is among the major challenges facing both developed and developing countries in the world today, the problem is more acute in developing countries (Onder & Nyadera, 2020). Unemployment has caused a surge in all sorts of vices including participation in politically motivated violence, spread of HIV/AIDS and drug abuse among the youth (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Worryingly, the National Association of Youth Organisations (NAYO) revealed that 90% of the youths in Zimbabwe are unemployed which is a clear indicator of youth disempowerment and disengagement in the national processes (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020).

2.10 Research hypotheses development

The empirical literature has been reviewed on each objective as shown below. At the end of the empirical literature on each objective, there is the proposed hypothesis.

2.10.1 Influence of an individual's background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

Moa-Liberty et al. (2016) established that an individual's background and earlier experiences positively influence an individual's entrepreneurial propensity. Crant (1996) confirms that an individual's background significantly impacts individuals' propensity to start their businesses. Other studies also confirm that the children of entrepreneurs learn the factors involving in running a business and consider establishing a new organization as a natural career choice option (Cooper et al., 1994; Sandberg & Hofer, 1987). Also, Chaudhary (2017) confirms that a self-employed family background will have a positive relationship with entrepreneurial propensity. Nguyen (2018) confirms the positive impact of background on entrepreneurial propensity. Likewise, Çera, et al. (2018) also confirm that an individual's background positively influences an individual's entrepreneurial propensity. Furthermore, various studies confirm that an individual's background positively influences an individual's entrepreneurial

propensity (Fosu, 2023; Khanal, 2024; Mishra & Gupta, 2024). Based on the foregoing discussions above it can be hypothesized that:

H1: An individual's background positively* influences the *entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

2.10.2 Influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

Quan (2012) confirms that advanced educational background has a positive impact on one's impulsive entrepreneurship propensity and one's deliberate entrepreneurship propensity. Also, Hlungwani et al. (2021) established that formal education positively influences entrepreneurial propensity. Likewise, Maulani and Agwanda (2020) established that education positively impacts entrepreneurship propensity. In addition, Shahid Satar et al. (2023) found that an individual's education positively influences an individual's entrepreneurial propensity. Furthermore, Fosu (2023) established that education has a significant positive relationship with entrepreneurial propensity. Various studies also confirmed that education has a positive effect on entrepreneurship propensity ((Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018; Maireva & Magomana, 2021; Rizzato et al., 2023). Based on arguments raised above it can be proposed that:

H2: Formal education positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

2.10.3 Influence of an individual's age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

Al-amri et al. (2022) established that an individual's age positively influences an individual's entrepreneurship propensity. Similarly, Acheampong and Siiba (2020) established that the age of a person plays a significant role in establishing characteristics generally associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. Also, Blanchflower (2004) found that age plays some role in entrepreneurial decisions. Munir et al. (2021) established that age plays a significant positive role in influencing an individual's entrepreneurship propensity. Likewise, Çera et al. (2018) established that one's age positively influences one's entrepreneurship propensity. Also, age was observed to influence on career decisions (Choukir et al., 2019). Schøtt et al. (2015) postulate that older youth display the highest level of entrepreneurial propensity. The youth, as a group, generally show significantly higher levels of entrepreneurial propensity than the adults (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). The results from a study by Dzingirai (2020) confirmed a weak negative association between age and youth entrepreneurial success. However, a series of recent studies have indicated that age positively relates to entrepreneurial propensity

(Al-amri et al., 2022; Dragin et al., 2022; Hlungwani et al., 2021; Schwarz et al., 2009; Turulja et al., 2020). Based on the arguments above it can be hypothesized that:

H3: An individual's age positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth

2.10.4 Influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship

Acheampong and Siiba (2020) established that entrepreneurial propensity has a positive effect on urban youth entrepreneurship. Olulani and Adekemi (2023) also found that entrepreneurial propensity has a positive impact on urban youth entrepreneurship. Choo and Wong (2006) also confirmed that entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. Likewise, Fosu (2023) established that entrepreneurial propensity has a positive effect on urban youth entrepreneurship. Furthermore, Moa-Liberty et al. (2016) found that entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. Various studies confirmed that entrepreneurial propensity has a positive effect on urban youth entrepreneurship (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020; Dzingirai, 2020; Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018; Maireva & Magomana, 2021; Munir et al., 2021; Nhapi & Mangwende, 2020). Based on the foregoing discussions above it can be hypothesized that:

H4: Entrepreneurial propensity positively influence urban youth entrepreneurship

Based on the foregone discussions, a conceptual framework is presented as shown in figure 2.1 below.

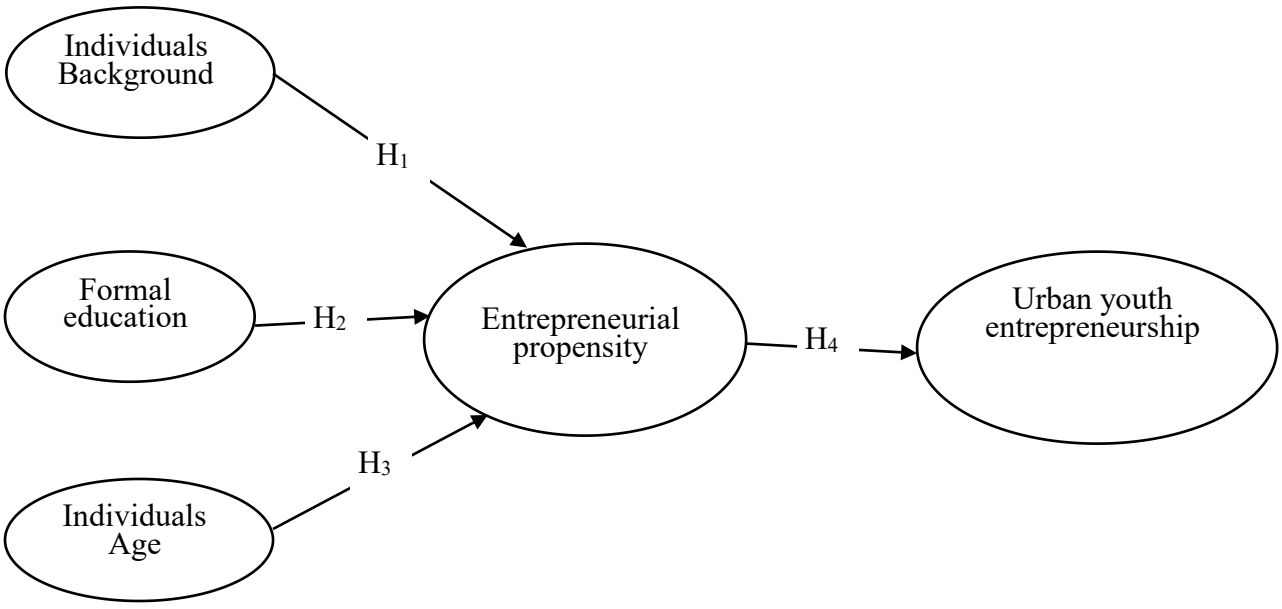

Figure 2:1 Conceptual framework

2.11 Literature gap

Previous studies of youth involvement in entrepreneurship have investigated young people in themselves, addressing questions like, how are young people acquiring entrepreneurial competencies, resources, vocational intentions, and becoming entrepreneurs (Khanal, 2024; Mishra & Gupta, 2024; Rao & Singh, 2018). Most of the intra-group studies about youth entrepreneurship contain a population of students in the formal educational system or students who follow entrepreneurial programmes offered by non-governmental organisations or other organisations (Kvedaraite 2014; Geldhof et al. 2014). These studies tend to focus on how young people acquire entrepreneurial competencies, resources, and vocational intentions (Langa, 2016). Much research focuses on young people's acquisition of entrepreneurial interests, intentions, and competencies through their education and training (Levie et al. 2013). A shortcoming of most of such research is its focus on students, and lack of focus on other kinds of young people, e.g. the unemployed youth (Langa, 2016). Many young individuals who have the intention to start their own business are not students or graduates (Mangwende, 2014). Another shortcoming is the typical focus on intention to become an entrepreneur, and a lack of focus on young individuals' transition from intention to starting an entrepreneurial venture (Dzingirai, 2020). By limiting their focus to entrepreneurial potential, these types of studies do not test the effect of education, marital status, age and background on real entrepreneurial activities of young individuals (Hamilton & Hamilton, 2012).

Therefore, it is intriguing to investigate the socio demographic factors that influence youth entrepreneurship. Thus this study aims to examine the influence of age, formal education, marital status and background on entrepreneurship propensity among the urban youth in Mashonaland West Province. These gaps warrant the need for a study that closes this knowledge gap.

2.12 Chapter summary

Chapter two covers the theoretical framework and conceptual literature on the study variables of the study. The theories discussed are the entrepreneurial event model and the theory of planned behaviour model. The variables discussed are socio-demographic factors,

background, formal education, age, marital status, entrepreneurial propensity, and urban youth entrepreneurship. Next is chapter three which covers the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Research philosophy

Kumar (2014) defines a research philosophy as an approach assumed when carrying a study. Philosophy encompasses the method by which facts are recognized and it also suggests the nature of the information concerning the research (Field, 2013). Greener and Martelli (2018) postulate that the choice of research philosophy hinges on the assumptions by which the scholar views the world. The research strategy is also influenced by these assumptions. Phenomenology and positivism are identified as the main viewpoints assumed in research (Creswell, 2012).

Pragmatism research philosophy was employed in this study. This philosophy uses research questions as the key determinant for selecting the appropriate philosophy (Saunders et al., 2016). May (2011) asserts that the choice of choosing the best philosophy for research lies in the type of knowledge the research seeks to gather in the research project. To give direction to this study, a research onion proposed by Abdelhakim, (2021) was adopted. The research onion illustrates the range of choices, paradigms, strategies and steps followed by researchers during the research process. Figure 2 below shows the research onion.

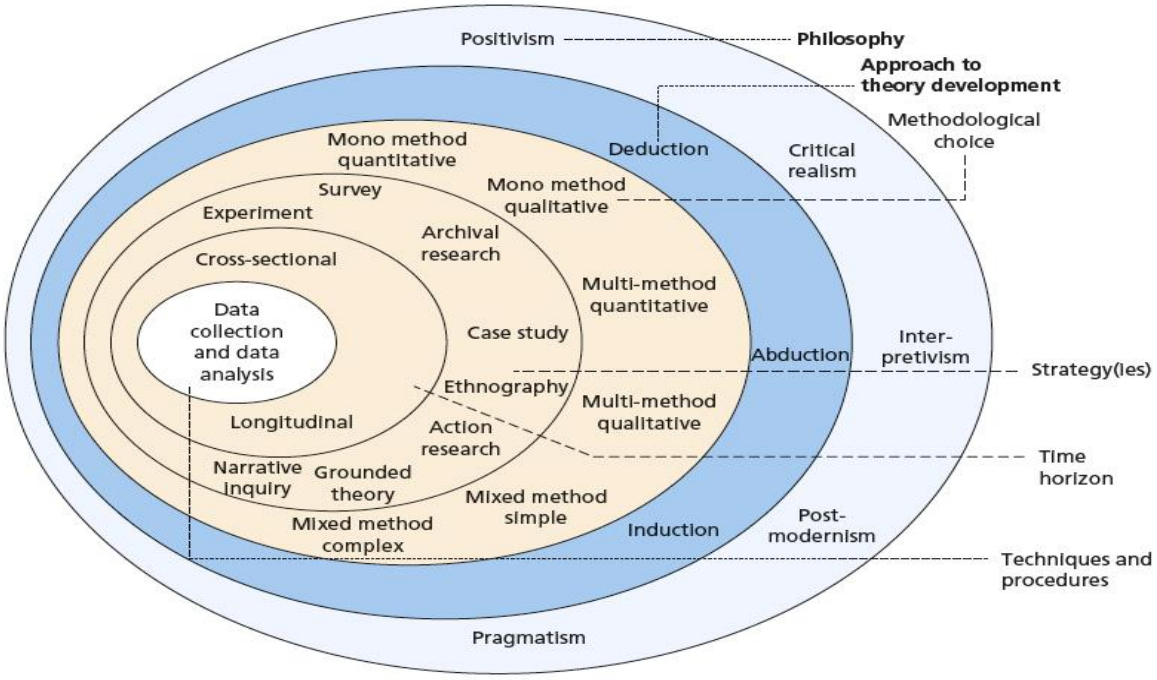

Figure 3.1: Research onion (Saunders et al., 2009: 138)

Sim, Saunders, Waterfield and Kingstone (2018) note that the pragmatism research philosophy, begins with a research problem and gathers practical solutions to solve the problem. The study sought to examine the relationship between socio-demographic factor and entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. As such, the use of the pragmatism philosophy helped the researcher to focus on the problem to inform future practice in youth entrepreneurship. In addition, the pragmatism research philosophy provided a practical approach to solve the problem under study. Thus, it was deemed the most appropriate research philosophy. Abutabenjeh and Jaradat (2018) and Creswell (2014) posits that pragmatism applies a practical approach where different perspectives are integrated to smoothen data collection and analysis processes.

Since the pragmatism philosophy utilises a problem-centred approach, it focuses is on consequences of actions taken through the use of mixed-methods assumptions (Neuman, 2014). Thus, in this study, pragmatism provided that good balance between the deductive (positivism) research approach and the inductive (interpretivism) approach. Unlike, the deductive and inductive approaches, the pragmatic worldview is not an absolute unity, but rather a liberal worldview with a mixed methodology consisting of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches to subscribe to the data (Franco & Hämäläinen, 2016). The pragmatism philosophy affords the researcher freedom of choice to apply the best methods to execute the research to collect more credible results.

To collect credible results, pragmatism avoids confining itself to any one system of philosophy and reality (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018). Given this, Creswell (2014) pointed out that it is possible to work within both positivist and interpretivist positions if one is using pragmatism. The approach that pragmatism adopts as a research philosophy goes on very well with what the mixed methodology takes. This is largely due to their broadness in unravelling the various facets of the research problem. In so doing, pragmatism provided the much-needed rigor and impetus to this research. Creswell (2014) notes that pragmatism allows the researcher to view the topic from either or both points-of view with regards to the influence of social actors and uses these to create a practical approach to research. This applies to mixed methods research in that inquirers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research.

The pragmatism research philosophy was used because it has been hailed as the basis for mixed-methods approach and its adoption can help yield better outcomes (Fetters & Molina-Azorin, 2017). According to pragmatism research philosophy, truth is what works at the time (Creswell, 2014). It is not based in a duality between reality independent of the mind or within the mind as is claimed by positivists and interpretivists respectively. Instead, pragmatists have believed in an external world independent of the mind and that is lodged in the mind (Creswell, 2014). This implies that pragmatism provides a fuller and more comprehensive approach to solving organisational change management issues and performance than other research philosophies. In addition, the pragmatism research philosophy provides researchers with freedom of choice (Creswell, 2014). Thus, the researcher was free to choose the approaches, procedures, and actions of research that best meet his needs and purposes. This has the effect of giving the study more impetus and rigor that enhances research findings Yeung, & Mun, (2022).

3.2 Research approach

Saunders et al. (2016) assert that research approach is a term used to describe inductive, deductive, and abductive paradigms used in research. The three basic types of research approaches include quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (Archer, 2018; Gentles et al., 2015; Oku et al., 2017). This study employed the mixed research approach. Maxwell and Reybold (2015) pointed out that the different worldviews include post-positivism, constructivism, transformative, and pragmatism are merged to form three research approaches namely: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodology.

The quantitative approach includes the positivism and post-positivism worldviews, the qualitative approach covers constructivism and transformative worldviews, and the mixed methodology approach is consistent with pragmatism Shan, (2022). The mixed-method approach was considered the best approach for the study because qualitative and quantitative methods alone were insufficient to fully understand the research problem. This methodological triangulation enabled the current study to investigate the research objectives using either qualitative or quantitative methods (Carter et al., 2014; McHugh, 2014). The main characteristic of this triangulation technique is that the shortcomings of one method are compensated by the strength of the other method thus providing a better understanding of the research problem (Dang, 2015; Saunders et al., 2016; Sim, Saunders, Waterfield & Kingstone, 2018).

The mixed approach plays a crucial role in enhancing confidence in the research findings; thus, it provides more evidence while offsetting possible shortcomings from using a single approach (Kafetzopoulos, (2022). Bowen et al. (2010) further noted that although carrying out research using a mixed methodology could generally be time-consuming, it can however, help to deal with broader questions thereby providing insights that could possibly have been missed. This view is echoed by Turner, Cardinal and Burton (2017) who noted that all methodologies are individually flawed, but these shortfalls can be mitigated through mixed methodology research, which integrates different methodologies to provide better responses to our research questions. The study involved a lot of numerical related findings as opposed to socially related findings; hence it required a lot of quantitative analysis. As a result, QUAN-qual strategy was selected on the basis that it required a lot of quantitative analysis (Canaway et al, 2017; Archer, 2018). The study sought to give a statistical analysis of the influence of the socio-demographic factor on the entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

For quantitative data collection, the research used a self-administered questionnaire. With respect to qualitative data, the study utilised an interview guide. Unlike quantitative research that utilises numerical data to access information about the world, qualitative data attempts to get to the heart of what exactly happened to the research participants and what led them to decisions that they made and how the choices they made came to take the form that they eventually did (Kalu, 2017). Lastly, the mixed methods approach was used because it is consistent with the pragmatism research philosophy that was used in this study. The mixed approach uses pragmatic assumptions (Creswell, 2014). This was underscored by Bryman and Bell (2017) who asserted that the mixed approach is a product of the pragmatist paradigm

that combines the qualitative and quantitative approaches within different phases of the research process. Creswell (2009) asserts that the pragmatic approach provides for the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies to collect information and make inquiry into complex phenomena of social and natural contexts. This suggests the compatibility of pragmatism and the mixed approach, both of which informed this study.

3.3 Research design

Kumar (2011) defines a research design as a plan, structure, and approach put in place to solve a study problem. Research design is the blueprint for data collection, measurement, and analysis (Kothari, 2004; Kumar, 2011). Research design signifies the main plan that describes the techniques as well as procedures utilized when gathering data, which comprises case studies, experiments, and surveys Hassan, & Khairuldin, (2020). A research design refers to a broad strategy that lays out the methods to be followed throughout the data-gathering process for specific research (Kumar, 2011; Zikmund & Babin, 2007). Bryman (2008) corresponds with Babin and Zikmund (2015) and further recognised five major research designs that is, experiment, comparative, longitudinal, cross-sectional survey, and case study. The research design assumed by the researcher is mainly influenced by the research problem (Saunders et al., 2009).

Research design generally addresses issues such as the research resolve, goals, intents, contribution, and tactics within the real-world restriction of the research location, money, researcher availability, and time (Baxter & Jack 2008; Creswell, 2021). Almalki (2016) recommended that the researcher should ask himself pertaining the theoretical viewpoints and knowledge claims that the research seeks to establish, data collection, and analysis techniques, and also clearly outline the research strategies to be adopted. Vogt, Gardner, and Haeffele (2012) propose that the researcher must be aware of any bias that may sneak into the research, the choice of method to be assumed and the tools to be employed in the study.

Based on the nature of the research problem outlined earlier, this research assumed a cross-sectional survey. Cross-sectional survey design is referred to as one-shot or status study or snapshot design (Kumar, 2011). This method permits the gathering of data at a given time and inferences are done (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Kumar, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). This design is suitable to researches focusing on determining the occurrence of a phenomena, situation, problem, attitude, or issue by surveying a cross-section of the

population and obtaining an overall picture as it exists at the time the study is done (Kumar, 2011).

Cross-sectional survey was adopted bearing in mind that it offers; accurate outcomes, respectable numerical meaning, high representativeness, convenient data collection and minimum observer bias (Saunders et al., 2009). Cross-sectional surveys were implemented by former studies such as (Lewis & Soureli, 2006; Pentz, 2011). Saunders et al. (2009) postulates that cross-sectional survey permits for investigation of associations between variables, of which this is the intention of this research.

Pentz (2011) and Kothari (2004) advocated for cross-sectional survey design since it permits simultaneous examination of multiple instances. Pentz (2011) went on to say that the differences could be due to the type of firms, families and persons. A cross-sectional survey, in particular, advocates inclusion of diversity of questions when using structured questionnaire (Kumar, 2021). Due to limited time, data collection and ordering between variables is performed more or less synchronously (Saunders et al., 2012). Cross-sectional surveys allow only the analysis of associations between variables (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). Furthermore, a cross-sectional survey is both time-conscious and cost-effective, allowing the study to be completed within the agreed-upon time frame (Creswell, 2021).

3.4. Target population

Population is described as individuals with shared features that constitute a distinct group (Saunders et al., 2012). A population comprises of the total set of people the researcher wishes to include in a study (Smith & Albaum, 2012). According to Creswell (2021), a population consists of elements from which a researcher expects to collect data. Therefore, as soon as the sample decision is decided, the target population must be defined. Appropriate sources from which to collect data can also be established by a proper population definition (Rahi, 2017). This study referred to perceptions of urban youth and the population is unknown due to lack of accessible information hence a figure of 20000 was adopted as informed by as advised by Raosoft Inc. Therefore, the target population for this research was 20000 urban youth in Mashonaland West Province. The sample frame was all urban youth who are entrepreneurs.

3.5 Sampling and sample size

Sampling is defined as the procedure of surveying only a few and selecting elements to make inferences about a population (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Smith & Albaum, 2012). Sampling is a

process of choosing representations from a group which turns out to be the base for estimating and predicting the population's outcome, as well as identifying the unknown component of data (Field, 2013). A sample is a group of people chosen to represent the entire population (Bailey, 2007; Saunders et al., 2007). It is not feasible to research the whole population when performing research because of limited resources and time (Babin & Zikmund, 2015; Creswell, 2021). According to Aaker, Kumar and Day (2007), while establishing population inferences, a researcher can only utilise a percentage of the overall population.

According to Creswell (2021), the researcher can draw conclusions based on an estimate of the true picture of the population taken from a small percentage of the overall population. The justification for sampling is that due to limited time, it may not be feasible to reach all members of the population (Babin & Zikmund, 2015). Creswell (2021) agrees with Babin and Zikmund (2015) and adds that sampling decreases workforce, and costs, and saves time. Moreover, sampling offers more reliable and accurate data than a census, which is susceptible to errors due to the large amount of effort involved (Aaker et al., 2007; Kothari, 2004; Saunders et al., 2009). According to Field (2013), working with a small team is easier to monitor and manage than a large group or the entire population.

Although academics disagree on how to determine an appropriate sample size for research, they all agree that a sample should sufficiently represent the population (Babin & Zikmund, 2015; Creswell, 2021; Saunders et al., 2009). A bigger sample size could be employed to reduce the likelihood of a low response rate (Babin & Zikmund, 2015; Kothari, 2004). As emphasized by Sekaran and Bougie (2016), the researcher must consider determining factors of sampling and sample size. The researcher resorted to a sample of 377 urban youth from Mashonaland West Province.

3.6 Sampling procedures

According to Saunders et al. (2007), sampling can be classified as either probability (stratified, systematic, simple random, and cluster sampling) or non-probability (judgmental/purposive sampling, quota sampling, and convenience sampling). According to Saunders and Rojon (2014), the choice of a sample design is influenced by the participants' prior knowledge, the degree of accuracy, and the availability of resources. Probability sampling ensures that every member of a population has an equal chance of being chosen

(Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; Wilson, 2014). According to Stelly, (2020) one of the approaches for demonstrating a valid sample that represents the entire population is probability sampling. Probability samples offer bias-free selection and allow quantification of sampling error (Smith & Albaum, 2012). When using non-probability sampling, the assumption is that the researcher has the skills and resources to pick an unbiased sample (Smith & Albaum, 2012). The researcher's judgment is used in the non-probability sampling method (Wilson, 2014). Non-probability sampling can lead to bias during the sampling process, which can distort the study's results (Schreier, 2012; Silverman, 2013). Non-probability sampling procedures employ non-random methods such as the researcher's judgment of convenience selection (Creswell, 2021). In this study, the respondents were selected using convenience sampling.

3.7 Research instruments

The instrument should be well-considered, and it should be based on study objectives and questions (Saunders et al., 2009). During data collection, a questionnaire relates to a document used by the researcher to ask questions to respondents (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). Wilson (2014) is in accord with Gall et al. (1996) and defines a questionnaire as an instrument that is provided to respondents to collect information. A self-administered structured questionnaire and an interview guide were used to collect data by recording urban youth in Mashonaland West Province.

Structured questions were administered to respondents using a questionnaire. The responses were collected in a standardized way. Questionnaires are appropriate for surveys because they are inexpensive to administer, maintain confidentiality, and allow respondents to respond quickly (Greener & Martelli, 2018). This study used a structured Likert-type questionnaire. The respondents can specify their level of agreement/disagreement with a question on the questionnaire (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The scores on the responses about agreement or disagreement with the questions given are used to calculate the statistical analysis (Pasek & Krosnick, 2010). Wilson (2014) stated that to achieve internal consistency and precision of an instrument, reliability, and validity are critical requirements for analysing Likert scale assessments. The data generated by the structured questionnaire can be analyzed quantitatively in terms of patterns and trends, so it was employed in this study. Table 3.1 below shows the questionnaire items and sources used to develop the research instrument items.

An interview guide with unstructured questions was used to collect qualitative data. An interview guide helped the researcher to conduct interviews with confidence since it acts as a reference document. The interview guide was well designed so that all possible questions could be included to get more data from the participants. Also, the researcher was able to capture the emotions of the participants.

Table 3.1: Questionnaire constructs items, codes and sources of items

Constructs	Codes	Items	Sources of items
Background	B8	My parents own some form of business activity	Ngugi, Gakure, Waithaka and kiwara (2012), Koellinger et al. (2013), Wagner and Sternberg (2004), Georgescu and Herman (2020), Krueger (1993), Lee and Tsang (2001), Davids (2017).
	B9	I was raised in a family with a business culture	
	B10	I acquired some business knowledge and skills from family.	
	B11	I grew up in an area where people start their own businesses	
	B12	I experienced business creation and management through formal and or informal education.	
Level of formal education	LE13	My level of formal education developed a liking to start my own business	Ngugi, Gakure, Waithaka and kiwara (2012), Georgescu and Herman (2020), Krueger (1993).
	LE14	My level of formal education developed a desire to start my own business	
	LE15	My level of formal education developed likelihood to start my own business	
	LE16	My level of formal education developed a tendency to start my own business	
	LE17	My level of formal education developed a feeling to start my own business	
	LE18	My level of formal education developed an attitude towards starting my own businesses	
Age	AGE1	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 16-20 years	Georgescu and Herman (2020), Krueger (1993), Davids (2017).
	AGE2	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 21-25 years	
	AGE3	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 26-30 years	

	AGE4	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 31-35 years	
	AGE5	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 36-40 years	
Entrepreneurial propensity	EP1	I have an urge for starting my own businesses	Ngugi, Gakure, Waithaka and kiwara (2012), Georgescu and Herman (2020), Autio, Keeley, Klosten, Parker and Hay (2001), Lee and Tsang (2001), Davids (2017).
	EP2	I have a liking for starting my own businesses	
	EP3	I have an attitude towards starting my own businesses	
	EP4	I have a tendency for starting my own businesses	
	EP5	I have a feeling for starting my own businesses	
	EP6	I have a preference for starting my own businesses	
	EP7	I have an enduring likelihood for starting my own businesses	
Youth entrepreneurship	YE19	I am mobilising resources for my own company	Ngugi, Gakure, Waithaka and kiwara (2012), Georgescu and Herman (2020), Autio, Keeley, Klosten, Parker and Hay (2001), Lee and Tsang (2001), Davids (2017).
	YE20	I developed / have developed ideas for creating my own business	
	YE21	I have registered my own business	
	YE22	I am running my own business	
	YE23	I have formed my own business	
	YE24	I identified opportunities to start my own business	

3.8 Data collection procedures

Data collection procedures are activities, methods, or explicit data collection methods or tools used during data collection to answer research questions (Creswell, 2021). Participants react to the research questions during data collection, which is considered a highly significant stage during a study (Saunders et al., 2012; Westland, 2010). Wilson (2014) proposed that questionnaires may be distributed and collected as part of the data collection strategy using delivery and collection, telephone, postal and internet means. This study used a self-

administered structured questionnaire. Despite its high cost, the self-administered questionnaire was chosen because it often yields a high response rate in surveys of this type (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher chose a self-administered structured questionnaire approach after analysing the study objectives, research model, and hypotheses.

Before the final data collection exercise, a pilot test was undertaken as a preparatory study to further examine the questionnaire's unambiguity and readability to rewrite any unclear items. Coding issues, biases, ambiguities, and missing attributes were fixed after the pilot test. The survey's practicality and feasibility were ensured by pilot testing (Krosnick, 2018).

The interview guide was also used and was also pilot-tested so that areas that needed adjustments were addressed. Also during the pilot test, the interview guide was tested to check the standard time for interviews as well as the variation in questions. The interview guide was adjusted for any issues that may arise during the pilot test. The data collection effort was the responsibility of the researcher. The researcher used a letter providing her authorization to collect data,30 interviews were conducted by form of recording.

3.9 Data analysis and presentation procedures

Wilson (2014) postulate that data analysis is one of the most imperative aspects in research because the correctness of the data inspection impact on the reliability of the results. This is because the value of gathered data can only be realized after it has been processed, analysed and translated into information. After that, the completed questionnaires were double-checked for accuracy and participant eligibility. After the editing process, the coding procedure begins. Then every item on the questionnaire is given a numerical code. The data was uploaded into the computer and analysed with the SPSS Version 20 program. To summarize and organize data, frequency distribution tables were used. Data was presented in tables and figures. Computed frequencies, percentages mean, and standard deviation were presented using charts.

Internal consistency between the items in the measures was estimated using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. All scales were subjected to validity assessments. All of the study's items were subjected to confirmatory analysis (CFA). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) in AMOS was used to test research hypotheses. AMOS was used to establish relationships between variables, detect both direct and indirect effects, and approximate latent variables. The study's nature necessitated the use of AMOS to analyse data and test relationships between paths.

For qualitative data analysis, content and thematic analysis were used. Data was analysed using NVIVO software. Themes emerging were used to establish research findings and to draw conclusions. Results for both qualitative and quantitative were compared to check for consistency.

3.10 Reliability and validity

The replicability or consistency of a metric in similar situations is characterized as reliability (Greener & Martelli, 2018; Kumar, 2011; Zikmund et al., 2009). Reliability is the degree to which a measuring tool provides consistent outcomes across time, among related populations regardless of who administers it (Kumar, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016; Zikmund et al., 2009). Reliability signifies the precision of an instrument (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Kumar, 2011). The accuracy and precision of a measurement instrument is referred to as reliability (Kothari, 2004; Kumar, 2011). Only if research tools can generate almost identical results when employed multiple times are they considered dependable (Kumar, 2011; Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). Cronbach's alpha was used to assess reliability. The scale spans from 0 to 1. If the internal consistency is close to 1, the instrument is deemed to be reliable (Kumar, 2011).

Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what we want to measure (Kumar, 2011; Zikmund & Babin, 2007). Validity refers to a research instrument's capacity to measure what it claims to measure (Greener & Martelli, 2018; Kumar, 2011; Olorunniwo, Hsu & Udo, 2006). Construct validity, content (face) validity, and criterion validity are three techniques for assessing validity identified by Bryman and Bell (2011). When an instrument can offer measures that represent a specific concept, it is said to be valid (Kumar, 2011; Zikmund & Babin, 2007). During the assessment of construct validity, the researcher took into account measurement model fit indices and average variance extracted (AVE). A thorough literature analysis was done to guarantee that the questionnaire was proven, well-tested, and validated (Saunders et al., 2012). In addition, the supervisor and other experts were consulted to help in assessing the questionnaire and interview guide for content validity. The questionnaire and interview guide were pilot tested. Moreover, the scale validation process was conducted before data analysis to address the reliability and validity issues.

3.11 Ethical considerations

The goal of research is to collect data about individuals from individuals (Creswell & Clark, 2017). As a result, the researcher must consider any ethical issues that may arise during the

research process (Zikmund et al., 2010). Ethics is a philosophy of human conduct that includes right and wrong activities (Cohen et al., 2011). Before, during and after research, ethical issues are critical since they have a significant impact on respondents, clients, and even the study profession itself (Aaker et al., 2007). Voluntary participation, privacy, confidentiality, consent, the way the researcher collects data, the researcher's objectivity, behaviour, and the general administration of collected data are all ethical issues that are considered in research (Creswell, 2021).

In light of this, the researcher obtained a clearance letter from the university. The participants were not compelled or pressured into participating since the study was conducted entirely voluntarily and participants were free to leave at any time. During the study, the researcher was responsible for respecting the rights of all participants, which included the right to anonymity and being honest about the study's aim. Respondents were instructed not to include their names on any part of the questionnaire to maintain confidentiality. Also, the researcher ensured that the data collected was exclusively utilized for academic purposes.

3.12 Chapter summary

The research methodology was described in this chapter. A pragmatism philosophy was selected. The mixed approach was adopted to enhance confidence and triangulation. A cross-sectional survey design was adopted. To collect data from respondents, a standard Likert scale structured questionnaire was used and the researcher adopted a self-administered structured questionnaire. Mashonaland West was chosen as the location to collect data from respondents who were enlisted as study respondents. The total number of respondents was 377 urban youth from Mashonaland West. The researcher also used an interview guide during interviews. The research gave justifications for the procedures used. The chapter described how reliability and validity were ensured. Finally, ethical issues that arose as a result of the research were discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter covers the research methodology adopted. This Chapter focusses on data presentation and analysis of the study findings. The study sought to examine the influence of the socio-demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths in Mashonaland West Province. Before the results of the hypotheses tests, descriptive statistics were presented. The findings serve as the foundation for drawing conclusions and making recommendations. The specific objectives of the study were: (i) to determine the influence of background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths, (ii) to establish the influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths, (iii) to determine the influence of age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths and (iv) to determine the influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship. The response rate, respondents' socio-demographic profile, reliability and validity, descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and hypotheses testing were all discussed in depth in this chapter.

4.2 Response rate

Urban youth from Mashonaland West Province were the targeted respondents. A total of 377 self-administered structured questionnaires were administered to urban youth from Mashonaland West Province, Zimbabwe. The total number of questionnaires that were returned and usable was 324. This translates into an 86% response rate. The response rate of 86% was acceptable, based on claims by De Gucht & Woestenburg, (2024) who claims that in a quantitative study, a response rate of more than 50 percent is acceptable. Furthermore, when employing a self-administered questionnaire, Saunders et al. (2009) believe that a response between 50% to 70% is realistic. Hence in this case a response rate of 86% was

much higher, therefore, the response rate was high enough and acceptable. According to Saunders et al. (2007), a response rate of more than 50% is sufficient to proceed with data analysis. Based on these arguments, a response rate of 86 percent was acceptable, and the results of such a threshold were not only credible but also provided a solid foundation for drawing conclusions.

4.3 General information about the respondents

This unit covers respondents' general information such as age, gender, level of education, employment status, and marital status.

4.3.1 Age

Figure 4.1 shows that the majority of respondents (66.66%) were between the ages of 26 and 35, followed by 16.98% of those between the ages of 21 and 25. The remaining 8.642x% were between the ages of 36 and 40 years, and then 7.72% were between the ages of 16 and 20. Figure 4.1 shows that most youth start a business from the age of 26 to the age of 35 and this is the period post tertiary education. This may imply that most youth who fail to secure jobs start their own businesses; also those who may be dissatisfied with their jobs may start their businesses.

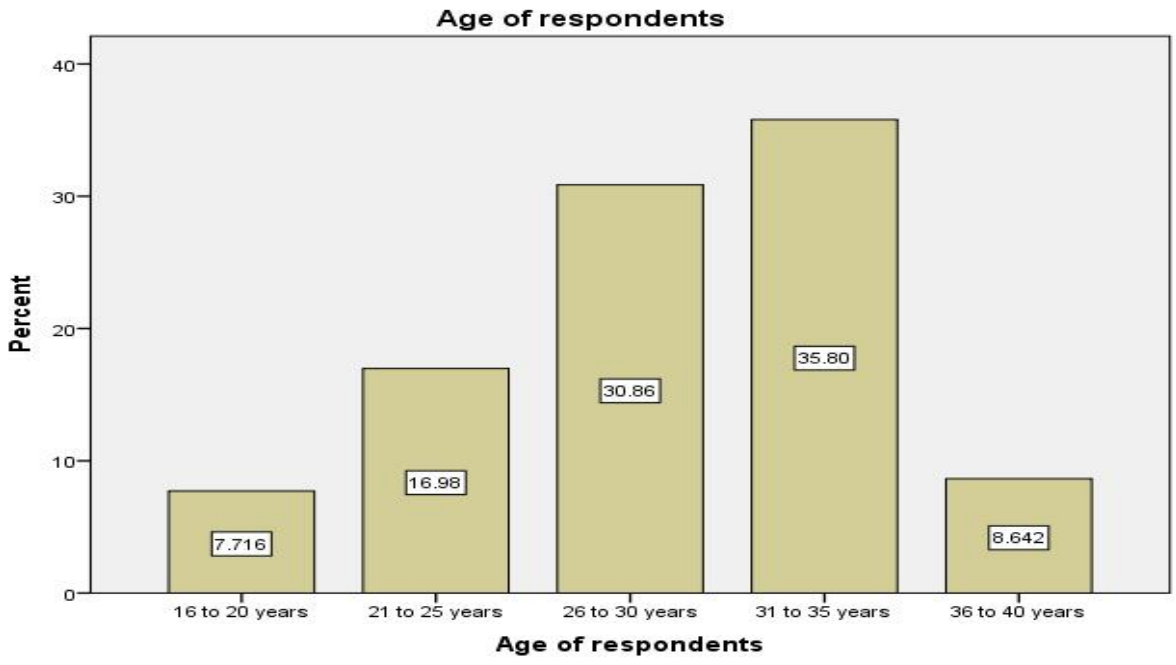

Figure 4.1: Age of respondents

Source: Research data (2023)

4.3.2 Gender of respondents

Results from figure 4.2 shows that male respondents made up 61.73% of the total, while female respondents made up 38.27%. The results in Figure 4.2 indicate that youth entrepreneurs in the Mashonaland West Province had more males than females. Males have had better options to further their education and find work or start a business in Zimbabwe than girls have had over the years. Hence more men are entrepreneurs than females, despite that in terms of national population females are more than males. However, this gender distribution enables the study to accommodate male and female opinions in the study.

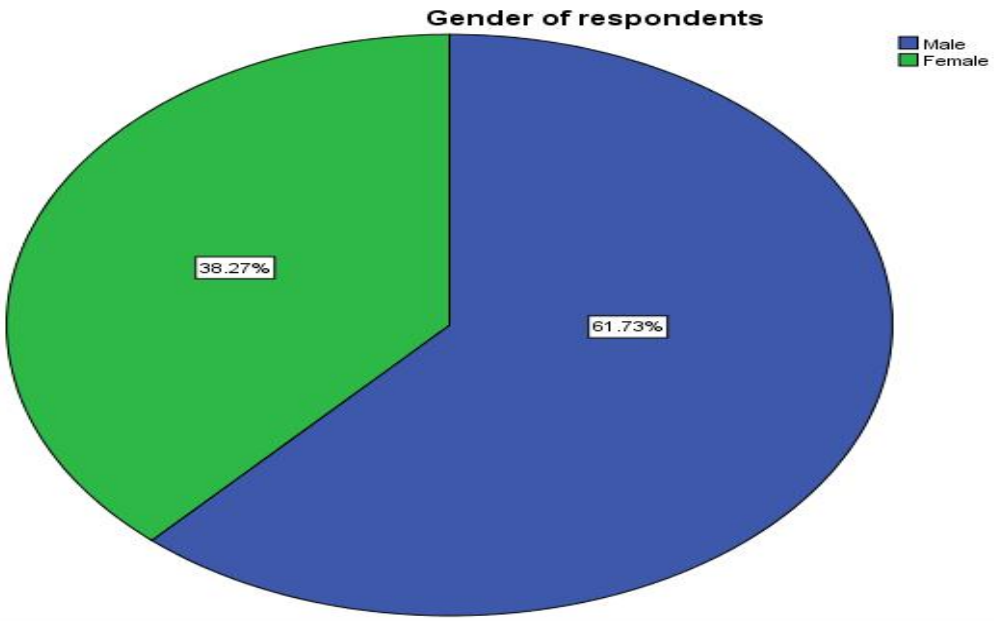

Figure 4.2: Gender of respondents

Source: Research data (2023)

4.3.3 Employment status of the respondents

Results in figure 4.3 shows that more respondents are employed (58.02%), Those unemployed constitute 41.98%. This implies that most youth entrepreneurs are employed though they are running their side businesses. Those who are not employed but running their own businesses may be those who failed to secure jobs or are still searching for jobs but they have decided to start their own businesses.

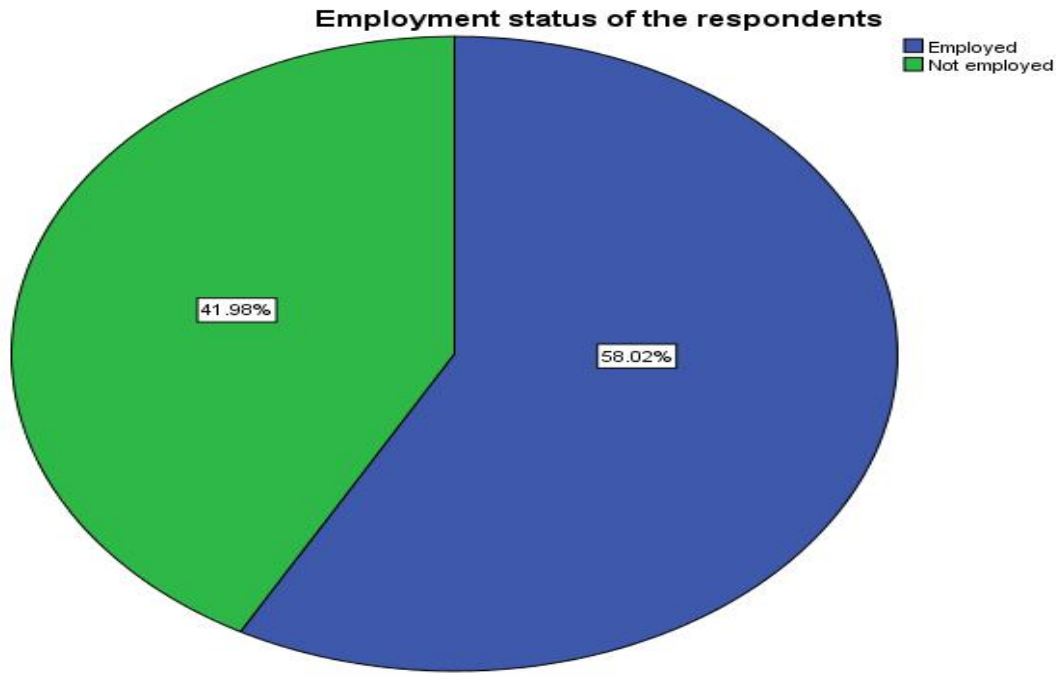

Figure 4.3: Employment status of the respondents

Source: Research data (2023)

4.3.4 Highest level of education of the respondents

The results in figure 4.4 reflect that 48.46% of the respondents have attained tertiary education. Followed by 43.83% who have attained secondary education. Then 7.75% have attained education up to primary level only. This imply that most urban youth inn Mashonaland West Province are literate and that means the respondents were able to understand the aim of the research and managed to answer the questions well since their level of literacy was generally high.

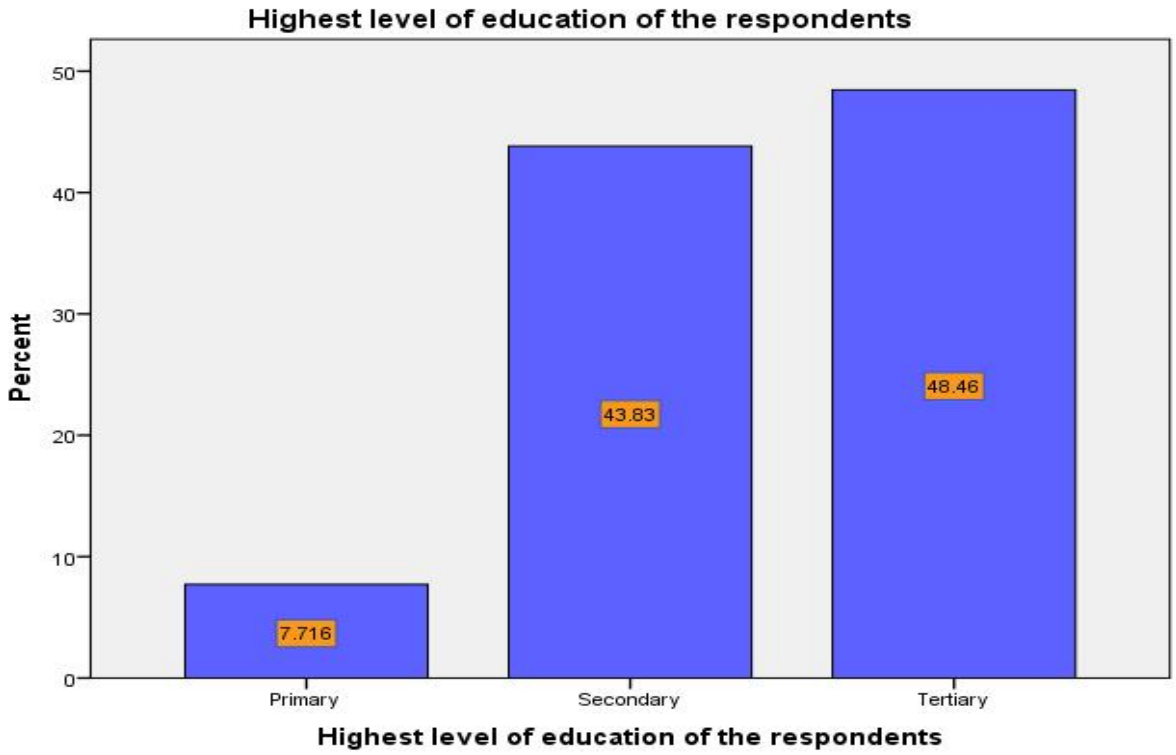

Figure 4.4: Highest level of education of the respondents

Source: Research data (2023)

4.3.5 Marital status of respondents

Figure 4.5 reveal that the highest number of respondents (61.73) are married. Then those who are not married constitute 38.27%. This implies that most youth start businesses because they want to take care of their families. This may be one of the pushing factors for the desire to start a business amongst the youths.

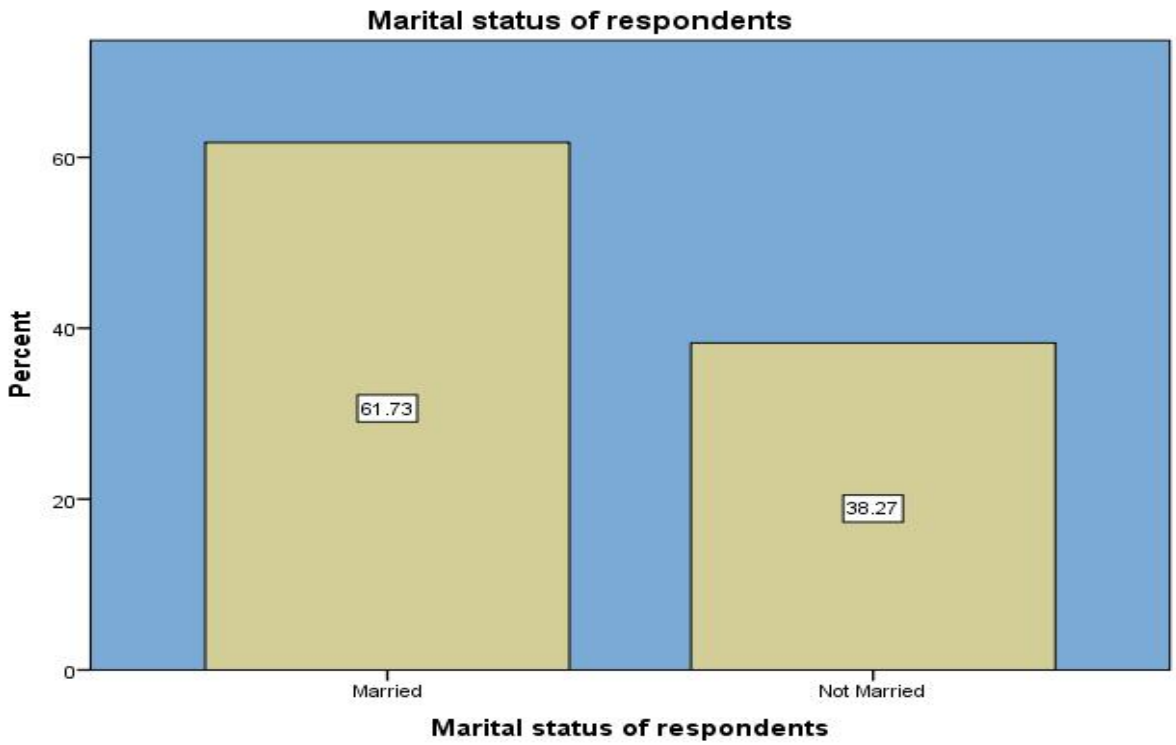

Figure 4.5: Marital status of the respondents

Source: Research data (2023)

4.4 Descriptive statistics

This section presents descriptive statistics on all five constructs (background, formal education, entrepreneurial propensity, age and youth entrepreneurship) that underpin this study. The standard deviation (SD) and the arithmetic means (M) are also presented. The standard deviation describes how the study's responses are spread out around the mean. The usage of the mean and standard deviation increases data comprehension. Respondents to the study's questionnaire were asked to indicate the following: 1 means strongly disagree, 2 means disagree, 3 means neutral, 4 means agree and 5 means strongly agree.

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics for entrepreneurial propensity

Table 4.1 indicate mean scores and standard deviation results for all items used when measuring the extent to which youth are likely to start a business.

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics for entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

Item code	Item description	Mean score	Mean response	SD
EP1	I have an urge for starting my own businesses	3.37	Neutral	1.02
EP2	I have a liking for starting my own businesses	3.46	Agree	0.95
EP3	I have an attitude towards starting my own businesses	3.68	Agree	0.86
EP4	I have a tendency for starting my own businesses	3.82	Agree	0.84
EP5	I have a feeling for starting my own businesses	3.73	Agree	0.94
EP6	I have a preference for starting my own businesses	3.64	Agree	0.92
EP7	I have an enduring likelihood for starting my own businesses	3.63	Agree	0.93
EP1	**Overall**	**3.62**	**Agree**	**0.92**

Source: Research data (2023)

Results in Table 4.1 indicate that mean responses ranged between 3.37, SD = 1.018 (Item EP1) and 3.82, SD 0.842 (Item EP4). Calculations of mean score averaged (overall mean 3.61: SD = 0.918) agree out of a possible score of 5 (strongly agree). Results suggested that urban youth have an urge for starting their own businesses, they have a feeling and liking for starting their own businesses, have a positive a positive attitude and a tendency of starting their own businesses. Also, youth have a preference and an enduring likelihood for starting their own businesses.

4.4.2 Descriptive statistics for background of urban youths

Table 4.2 indicate mean scores and standard deviation results for all items used when measuring the extent to which background influence entrepreneurial propensity. Results in Table 4.2 indicate that mean responses ranged between 3.55, SD = 1.014 (Item B10) and 4.13, SD 0.913 (Item B8). Calculations of mean score averaged (overall mean 3.78: SD = 0.996) agree out of a possible score of 5 (strongly agree). Results suggested that their parents had some form of business activity and they acquired some business knowledge and skills from

family and they were raised in families with business culture. They confirmed that they grew up in an area where people start their own businesses and they experienced business creation and management through formal and or informal education.

Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics for background of urban youths

Item code	Item description	Mean score	Mean response	SD
B8	My parents own some form of business activity	4.13	Agree	0.91
B9	I was raised in a family with business culture	3.72	Agree	0.96
B10	I acquired some business knowledge and skills from family.	3.55	Agree	1.01
B11	I grew up in an area where people start their own businesses	3.74	Agree	1.06
B12	I experienced business creation and management through formal and or informal education.	3.76	Agree	1.03
	Overall	**3.78**	**Agree**	**1.00**

Source: Research data (2023)

4.4.3 Descriptive statistics for level of formal education of urban youths

Table 4.3 indicate mean scores and standard deviation results for all items used when measuring the extent to which level of formal education influence entrepreneurial propensity.

Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics for level of formal education of urban youths

Item code	Item description	Mean score	Mean response	SD
LE13	My level of formal education developed a liking to start my own business	3.53	Agree	1.02
LE14	My level of formal education developed a desire to start my own business	3.66	Agree	1.02
LE15	My level of formal education developed likelihood to start my own business	3.78	Agree	1.02
LE16	My level of formal education developed a tendency to start my own business	3.72	Agree	1.03
LE17	My level of formal education developed a feeling to start my own business	3.96	Agree	1.04
LE18	My level of formal education developed an attitude towards starting my own businesses	3.79	Agree	0.96
	Overall	**3.74**	**Agree**	**1.02**

Source: Research data (2023)

Results in Table 4.3 indicate that mean responses ranged between 3.53, SD = 1.017 (Item LE13) and 3.96, SD 1.035(Item LE17). Calculations of mean score averaged (overall mean 3.74: SD = 1.015) agree out of a possible score of 5 (strongly agree). Results suggested that level of formal education influence liking, desire and likelihood to start own business. They confirmed that their level of formal education developed a tendency, feeling and an attitude to start their own businesses.

4.4.4 Descriptive statistics for youths entrepreneurship

Table 4.4 indicate mean scores and standard deviation results for all items used when measuring the extent of youth entrepreneurship among urban youth.

Table 4.4: Descriptive statistics for youth entrepreneurship

Item code	Item description	Mean score	Mean response	SD
YE19	I am mobilising resources for my own company	3.64	Agree	0.95
YE20	I developed / have developed ideas for creating my own business	3.91	Agree	1.04
YE21	I have registered my own business	3.72	Agree	0.98
YE22	I am running my own business	3.48	Agree	1.18
YE23	I have formed my own business	3.71	Agree	1.10
YE24	I identified opportunities to start my own business	3.49	Agree	1.19
	Overall	**3.66**	**Agree**	**1.07**

Source: Research data (2023)

Results in Table 4.4 indicate that mean responses ranged between 3.48, SD = 1.181 (Item YE22) and 3.91, SD 1.035 (Item YE20). Calculations of mean score averaged (overall mean 3.66: SD = 1.074) agree out of a possible score of 5 (strongly agree). Results suggested that youths have developed ideas for creating their own companies as well as mobilising resources. They confirmed that they have registered, formed, running and identified opportunities for their own businesses.

4.4.5 Descriptive statistics for age on entrepreneurial propensity

Table 4.5 indicate mean scores and standard deviation results for all items used when measuring the extent to which age influence youth entrepreneurship.

Table 4.5: Descriptive statistics for age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

Item code	Item description	Mean score	Mean response	SD
AGE1	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 16-20 years	3.49	Agree	0.94
AGE2	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 21-25 years	3.88	Agree	1.04
AGE3	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 26-30 years	3.65	Agree	0.98
AGE4	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 31-35 years	3.51	Agree	1.17
AGE5	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 36-40 years	3.79	Agree	1.14
	Overall	**3.66**	**Agree**	**1.05**

Source: Research data (2023)

Results in Table 4.5 indicate that mean responses ranged between 3.49, SD = 0.94 (Item AGE1) and 3.88, SD 1.04 (Item AGE2). Calculations of mean score averaged (overall mean 3.66: SD = 1.05) agree out of a possible score of 5 (strongly agree). Results suggested that age influence the decision to start a business. They confirmed that they started business at different age groups depending on individual circumstances.

4.5 Scale validation

Before conducting a structural equation modelling to test research hypotheses, data were validated through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), reliability analysis, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. These analyses were done in SPSS version 20 and AMOS version 21.

4.5.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis was done in order to understand item structures of variables and to find out which items that really measured the underlying variables within the questionnaire. Bartholomew, Knott and Moustaki (2011) added that the basic purpose of factor analysis is to understand the structure of latent variables.

4.5.2 Sampling adequacy

Prior to performing confirmatory factor analysis, the suitability of data for factor analysis was evaluated using Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity using SPSS Version 20. A KMO measure of sampling adequacy was used to determine the adequacy of the sample. The KMO statistic ranges between 0 and 1; with 0 signifying absolute inadequacy of the sample and 1 representing absolute adequacy of the sample, with 0.6 suggested as the minimum value for a good factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Yong and Pearce (2013) commended a measurement of 0.5 as the simple minimum for the sample to be adequate. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was applied in order to determine whether the data indeed allowed factor analysis to be performed. Field (2013) recommended that the Bartlett's test of Sphericity should be significant at $p < 0.05$ for factor analysis to be performed. Table 4.6 presents results obtained (KMO = 0.862, Approx. Chi-square = 6982.753, Degrees of freedom [DF] = 406; $p<0.001$) and indicated that the sample was suitable and allowed performing of confirmatory factor analysis (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2005). The aim of carrying out confirmatory factor analysis was to refine and reduce the number of related variables to a relevant and manageable size before using them in future analyses. Factor rotation method was used to simplify factor results for a better interpretation. Analysis of factors was simplified using the Varimax method as it maximises the total sum of variables of the squared loadings, that is, squared correlations between variables and factors (Babin & Zikmund, 2015).

Table 4.6: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.862
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6982.753
	Df	406
	Sig.	.000

Source: Research data (2023)

Factor loadings for each factor are presented in Table 4.7. Factor with loadings below 0.5 were not presented since they were suppressed. Hair et al. (2006), Liang and Chia (2014), Pallant (2010), Yong and Pearce (2013) and Wixom and Watson (2001) recommended the consideration of loadings above 0.5 so as to make the understanding much easier. Thus, results in Table 4.7 achieved minimum cut off point for factor loadings as recommended by

Hair et al. (2006), Liang & Chia (2014), Pallant (2010), Yong and Pearce (2013) and Wixom and Watson (2001).

Table 4.7: Construct, items and factor loadings

Construct	Items	Factor loadings
Entrepreneurial Propensity	EP1	.593
	EP2	.800
	EP3	.813
	EP4	.727
	EP5	.655
	EP6	.649
	EP7	.661
Background	B8	.786
	B9	.851
	B10	.801
	B11	.734
	B12	.741
Level of Formal Education	LE13	.799
	LE14	.806
	LE15	.816
	LE16	.782
	LE17	.701
	LE18	.770
Youth Entrepreneurship	YE19	.777
	YE20	.732
	YE21	.626
	YE22	.797
	YE23	.806
	YE24	.728
AGE	AGE1	.665
	AGE2	.825
	AGE3	.805
	AGE4	.716
	AGE5	.766

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.
a. 5 components extracted.
Based on Eigenvalues > 1.00
Total Variance Explained = 74.621%
Loadings of less than 0.5 were suppressed

Source: Research data (2023)

Table 4.7 indicate that rotation converged in 8 iterations with total variance explained of 74.92% way above recommended limit of 60% (Pallant, 2005). The results shown in Table 4.7 indicate that rotated component matrix solution gave 5 components, these components are YE, AGE, EP, B and LE.

4.5.3 Reliability analysis

Reliability is the degree to which results accomplished by a measurement procedure may be replicated and produces similar results on repetitive trials (Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Hair, et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2012). Also, Bolarinwa (2015) describes reliability as the extent to which variables in a study are consistent with what they are supposed to measure. Thus, reliability has much to do with replicability of results after several attempts. The instrument must be reliable so that results are consistent (Henseler et al., 2015). Reliability is regarded as an important measurement scale in quantitative research. Internal consistency of a construct determines reliability as it stipulates the standardisation of items of a measurement scale (Pallant et al., 2020). Internal consistency of constructs was measured using the Cronbach's alpha (α). Reliabilities of the study's constructs are represented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Construct, number of items and Cronbach's (α)

Construct	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Entrepreneurial propensity	7	0.860
Background	5	0.920
Level of formal education	6	0.803
Youth entrepreneurship	6	0.824
Age	5	0.863

Source: Research data (2023)

Table 4.8 shows that all constructs had Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability index with a cut-off point of more than 0.68 as recommended by Zhang, Meng, at al (2021).

4.5.4 Convergent validity

Validity is described as the extent to which a research instrument measures what it is meant to measure (Field, 2013; Pallant et al., 2020). The research instrument must measure what it is intended to measure as regards to meaningfulness and accuracy (Heale & Twycross, 2015; Noble & Smith, 2015). Various ways may be used to assess validity. For the purpose of this study, the researcher adopted convergent and discriminant validity to assess data validity as recommended by Heale and Twycross (2015). Construct validity is measured with convergent validity. This is done to ensure that no construct correlates with other concepts from which it is expected to be different from. Thus, items of an underlying concept have to be correlated to those they are supposed to relate to (Hair et al., 2013).

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) was used to estimate the measurement model so as to acquire better estimates (Chang et al., 2010; Field, 2013). Standardized factor loadings (λ) and critical ratios (CRs) were used to determine convergent validity (Liang & Chia, 2014) as presented in Table 4.9. CMIN/DF ($\chi 2$/Df), Goodness of fit index (GFI), Adjusted GFI (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative fit index (CFI) and Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were considered in determining the measurement model fit indices.

Results submit that convergent validity conditions were fulfilled. The measurement model indicated appropriate model fit indices (CMIN/DF = 4.087; GFI = 0.913; AGFI = 0.928; NFI = 0.963; TLI = 0.955; CFI = 0.962 and RMSEA = 0.059). Hooper et al. (2008) recommended that a good model should show a $\chi 2$/DF between the scale 0 and 5 with smaller values indicating a better fit. Moreover, Reisinger and Mavondo (2007) suggested that values for GFI, AGFI, NFI, TLI and CFI specify a good fit when they are closer to 1, and RMSEA must be between 0.05 and 0.080 for it to be satisfactory. As indicated in Table 4.9, all items had standardised factor loadings (λ) above the cut-off point of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2006; Liang & Chia, 2014; Pallant, 2010; Yong & Pearce, 2013; Wixom & Watson, 2001). Critical ratios (CRs) were appropriately large and significant at $p < 0.001$.

As shown in Table 4.9, results indicate that standardised factor loadings for all items were greater than the minimum requirement of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2006; Liang & Chia, 2014; Pallant, 2010; Yong & Pearce, 2013; Wixom & Watson, 2001). Similarly, critical ratios were

significant at $p < 0.001$. In addition, all AVEs (Table 4.10) for all constructs indicate results of more than the minimum requirement of 0.5 as proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Therefore, the minimum requirements for convergent validity were satisfied.

Table 4.9: Constructs, items, standardized factor loadings (λ) and critical ratios (CR)

Constructs	Items	λ	CR
Entrepreneurial propensity	EP1	.512	-
	EP2	.642	8.550***
	EP3	.732	8.250***
	EP4	.613	6.852***
	EP5	.549	15.112***
	EP6	.531	15.637***
	EP7	.597	15.742***
Background	B8	.718	-
	B9	.789	15.239***
	B10	.788	10.743***
	B11	.687	17.251***
	B12	.703	17.448***
Level of formal education	LE13	.715	-
	LE14	.798	12.312***
	LE15	.794	16.389***
	LE16	.719	16.874***
	LE17	.693	17.164***
	LE18	.709	15.891***
Youth entrepreneurship	YE19	.703	-
	YE20	.701	13.235***
	YE21	.606	14.493***
	YE22	.728	16.238***
	YE23	.798	17.198***
	YE24	.702	17.124***
Age	AGE1	.609	-
	AGE2	.796	13.235***
	AGE3	.793	14.781***
	AGE4	.695	16.264***
	AGE5	.708	17.358***

Note: - CR is fixed; *** $p < 0.001$

Source: Research data (2023)

4.5.5 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is described as the degree under which items within the construct are strongly associated with other measures of similar variable though different with other items of another construct to which it is unrelated (Liang & Chia, 2014; Pallant, 2010). Average variance extracted (AVEs) were used to measure discriminant validity through comparing them against squared inter-construct correlations (SICCs) (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982). Discriminant validity is acceptable if average variance extracted results are greater than the squared inter-construct correlations (Henseler, et al., 2015). Results in Table 4.10 indicate that conditions essential for fulfilling discriminant validity were satisfied since they were all bigger than their matching squared inter-construct correlations (Mu & Chen, (2023).

Table 4.10: Average variance extracted and squared inter-construct correlations

Construct	EP	B	LE	YE	AGE
Entrepreneurship propensity (EP)	**.605**				
Background (B)	.384	**.584**			
Level of formal education (LE)	.352	.355	**.533**		
Youth entrepreneurship (YE)	.438	.287	.412	**.715**	
Age (AGE)	.423	.351	.418	.392	**.601**

Note: Diagonal elements in bold represent AVEs

Source: Research data (2023)

Table 4.10 indicates that all average variance extracted figures were above 0.5 and greater than corresponding squared inter-construct correlations (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Segars, 1997). Therefore, conditions necessary to achieve discriminant validity were satisfied.

4.6 Testing research hypotheses

After identifying the factors underlying the constructs, the next step was to test the research hypotheses so as to determine the nature of the relationships between variables. The variables for this study were entrepreneurial propensity, background, level of formal education, age and youth entrepreneurship. The research hypotheses that sought to be tested are as follows:

H_1: Background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

H_2: Level of formal education positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

H_3: Age positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

H_4: Entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship.

Hypothesised relationships (H_1, H_2, H_3 and H_4) were tested in AMOS version 21 using structural equation modelling technique. Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) was used to estimate the structural model (Field, 2013). Structural equation modelling technique is ideal since it is able to determine relationships and also able to suggest a general fit between observed data and the research model (McQuitty & Wolf, 2013). The structural model indicated satisfactory model fit indices (CMIN/DF = 4.087; GFI = 0.913; AGFI = 0.928; NFI = 0.963; TLI = 0.955; CFI = 0.962 and RMSEA = 0.059). Table 4.11 shows results of hypotheses tests.

Table 4.11: Results of hypotheses testing (H_1, H_2, H_3 and H_4)

Hypotheses	Hypothesised Relationship	SRW	CR	Remark
H_1	Background → entrepreneurial propensity	0.492	11.981***	Supported
H_2	Level of formal education → entrepreneurial propensity	0.238	9.824***	Supported
H_3	Age → entrepreneurial propensity	0.236	8.168***	Supported
H_4	entrepreneurial propensity → Urban youth entrepreneurship	0.581	12.039***	Supported

Notes: SRW standardized regression weight, CR critical ratio, *** significant at $p < 0.001$,

Source: Research data (2023)

Results shown in Table 4.11 revealed that H_1, H_2, H_3 and H_4, were supported. This imply the following: background influences the desire for youth towards entrepreneurial propensity. Also, level of formal education influences entrepreneurial propensity. In addition, youth decided to start businesses at different age groups depending on their circumstances in life. Finally, entrepreneurship propensity influences urban youth entrepreneurship.

4.7 Chapter summary

Quantitative results in chapter four covered the analysis of socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, validity and reliability analysis, descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis and hypotheses testing. Next is chapter five which covers the qualitative results.

CHAPTER FIVE

QUALITATIVE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter covers the quantitative results. This section focusses on data presentation and analysis of the qualitative findings. The study seeks to examine the influence of the socio-demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths in Mashonaland West Province. The qualitative findings serve as the foundation for drawing conclusions and making recommendations. The specific research questions of the study were: (i) what is the influence of background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths? (ii) What is the influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths? (iii) What is the influence of age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths? And (iv) what is the influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship? The chapter covers reliability, data trustworthiness and results.

5.2 Reliability of the instrument

The interview guide was informed after a wide-ranging review of literature on socio-demographic factor. The interview guide was scrutinised by colleagues who have done research using qualitative study. This was done to improve reliability and content validity. Minor adjustments were done on the interview guide based on recommendations from colleagues. Once the adjustments were done three respondents were asked to answer the interview questions so as to improve data integrity and interview questions sequence (Surujlal, 2011).

5.3 Data trustworthiness

According to Graneheim and Lundman (2004), validity and reliability of studies of qualitative nature hinge on methodology integrity used to produce results. The first step was to ensure methodological coherence by making sure that there was compatibility between the data analysis procedures and the research method (Morse, Barrett, Olson & Spiers, 2002). The second step was to ensure appropriateness of the sample through employing convenience sampling (Morse et al., 2002). As guided by Russell and Gregory (2003) to ensure data richness, convenience sampling was used in an endeavour to answer the research questions better. Patton (1999) postulate that researcher credibility in qualitative research is also crucial and to improve on that assistance was sought from those colleagues who were competent in

qualitative research and also the researcher read widely on research methodologies. Since the researcher had understanding of the concept to be studied hence the interview process was kick started. To improve on trustworthiness of the current study findings, the researcher employed researcher reflexivity. Creswell and Miller (2000) postulate this enforces fair disclosure on all believes and values of the researcher. The researcher used a concept called bracketing and this gives an obligation to tone down intrinsic presumptions hence a clear and unbiased view of research phenomenon.

Interpretivism approach was adopted that recognised that all procedures are well known by the researcher, hence etic-emic and worth assured. Reliability of respondents' answers was measured to guarantee credibility Muniz & Guzmán, (2023). Answers concordance assessed by employing various questioning techniques (Long & Johnson, 2000). There was consistency in responses from participants based on this technique, thus the constancy of the data was shown. Member checks were done by three respondents who were readily available to cross check their responses and they affirmed that their views were well captured by the researcher (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Iterative process was done to avoid the omission of important information (Morse et al., 2002). This was done to improve coherence of themes and sub-categories and examining possible associations (Morrow, 2005).

Peer briefing was done to enhance credibility (Robinson, (2020). This process was conducted by two colleagues who were experienced in qualitative study, this enhances reliability and trustworthiness (Mays & Pope, 1995). The themes show validity as there was convergence between the colleagues and the researcher. The data relates very well with the themes that emerged from it; hence the study results were credible. Emergent themes were supported by representative excerpts from interview transcripts as recommended by Graneheim and Lundman (2004). Internal validity and reliability were evident as themes emerged bond with socio demographic information from existing literature (Surujlal & Dhurup, 2011; Walker & Jones, 2012). Therefore, the likeminded themes were well thought out to be answers to this research. In summary the trustworthiness and credibility of the study were accomplished through the use of peer debriefing, researcher reflexivity and member checks.

5.4 Results

The results are given below in the following sections.

5.4.1 Composition of the sample

Thirty interviews were the basis of the foundation of this study and were carried between June and December 2023. The participants encompassed thirty people who are urban youths from Mashonaland West Province, Zimbabwe and it was determined by saturation. This figure was determined through technical saturation. Of the thirty participants, eighteen (60%) were female and twelve (40%) were male. The age of the participants was from 20 to 40 years and the mean was 32 years. Table 5.1 gives the general information of the participants. O levels constitute 13%, A levels 10%, undergraduates constitute 30% whereas postgraduates constitute 47% of the participants. False names were used to protect respondent anonymity and confidentiality. In terms of ethnicity 13% constitute coloureds whereas 87% constitute Africans.

Table 5.1 Demographics of participants

Name	**Age**	**Gender**	**Level of education**	**Ethnicity**
Sarah	25	Female	A level	African
John	30	Male	Postgraduate	Coloureds
Mary	32	Female	Undergraduate	African
Wadzanai	35	Female	Postgraduate	African
Lameck	25	Male	O level	African
Henry	40	Male	Postgraduate	African? Youth?
Ruvarashe	34	Female	Undergraduate	African
Munashe	40	Male	Undergraduate	African
Tongai	39	Male	Postgraduate	African
Rumbidzai	40	Female	Undergraduate	African

Tsitsi	33	Female	Postgraduate	African
Loyd	27	Male	Undergraduate	African
Shuvai	38	Female	Postgraduate	African
Tatenda	20	Male	O level	African
Joshua	23	Male	A level	African
Abigail	24	Female	Undergraduate	Coloureds
Admire	33	Male	Postgraduate	Coloureds
Tapiwa	39	Male	Postgraduate	African
Taurai	27	Male	Undergraduate	African
Chenai	34	Female	Postgraduate	African
Ellen	28	Female	Postgraduate	African
Miranda	31	Female	Postgraduate	African
Grace	40	Female	Postgraduate	African youth?
Onias	27	Male	O level	African
Wendy	37	Female	Undergraduate	Coloureds
Chipo	26	Female	Undergraduate	African
Edith	22	Female	A level	African

Tariro	39	Female	Postgraduate	African
Monica	24	Female	O level	African
Cecilia	34	Female	Postgraduate	African

The interviews were focusing on age group from 20 to 40 years on the influence of the socio-demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths in Mashonaland West Province. The interview questions were grounded on seven broad questions crafted around: socio demographic factor in general and on background, education, age, marital status, entrepreneurship propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship.

5.4.2 Interview excerpts and descriptions

From the interviews conducted on the research focus areas, the information received were valuable in regard to the factors that influence entrepreneurship propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship. Interview transcripts were analysed and seven underlying themes emerged that give more information on socio demographic factor, entrepreneurship propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship. The themes that came from the study were: Background, experiences, personality are pillars for entrepreneurship development; family/parents and past experiences act as a catalyst for starting a business; formal education is an instrument for entrepreneurial propensity; the relationship between age and the likelihood of starting a new business is highest at a relatively early age and decreases thereafter; marital status is a pushing factor in the desire for one to start a business; the behaviour of an individual to start a business is influenced by entrepreneurial event, where perceived feasibility, perceived desirability and propensity to act influence the intention; the success of urban youth entrepreneurship hinges upon government support and the participation of a multiplicity of stakeholders. Table 5.2 below summaries the important interview extracts, as well as the main emerging themes and sub-themes resulting from transcripts from the interview.

Table 5.2 Interview excerpts and descriptions

Excerpts from interviews	Sub-category	Category	Theme
<u>Socio demographic factor</u> "*Socio demographic factor examine the personal background, family background, gender and the early experiences of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs*". *"Personality factors focus on personality characteristics of entrepreneurs".* *"Socio demographic rests on the assumption that entrepreneurs possess certain inherent characteristics, values and attitudes that provide an impetus for them and distinguish them from others…"* *"Demographic factors such as education, age and work situation are found to be important drivers of entrepreneurial behaviour".* *"Two key demographic variables that influence*	• *Personal background, family background, gender and the early experiences of entrepreneur influence entrepreneurship propensity.* • *Personality characteristics of an entrepreneur influence entrepreneurship propensity.* • *Entrepreneurs possess certain inherent characteristics, values and attitudes that provide an impetus for them and distinguish them from others.* • *Education, age and work situation are influence entrepreneurial behaviour.* • *Entrepreneurship activities is influenced by gender and family/parental background".* • *Gender, age, level of education or job situation can be used to explain the existing entrepreneurial potential among youth.*	• *Entrepreneurial propensity is influenced by the following socio demographic variables:* • *Personal background.* • *Family background.* • *Gender.* • *Early experiences of entrepreneurs* • *Personality characteristics.* • *Inherent characteristics, values and attitudes.* • *Education.* *Age.* • *Work situation*	*Background, experiences, personality are pillars for entrepreneurship development.*

entrepreneurship activities are gender and family/parental background". *"Socio-demographic factors such as gender, age, level of education or job situation can be used to explain the existing entrepreneurial potential".*			
Excerpts from interviews	**Sub-category**	**Category**	**Theme**
<u>Background</u> "*The family, particularly, the father or mother, plays the most powerful role in establishing the desirability and credibility of entrepreneurial actions".* *"It all start with small business work experience and then develop into interest in owning a small firm".* *"Past entrepreneurial experience may be more important for entrepreneurial success and interest in entrepreneurial career".* *"Youth whose parents*	• *Entrepreneurs tended to have a self-employed mother or father in their family history.* • *Through the socialization process of children, exposure to entrepreneurship experience in the family business constitutes important intergenerational influence on entrepreneurship propensity.* • *Those who found a positive view of their family's business experience perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible.* • *Parental entrepreneurial engagement influences entrepreneurial propensity among the youth.* • *Having self-employed parents tend to be especially relevant as*	• *Parental role modelling is the most significant familiar factor on entrepreneurial propensity.* • *In family, entrepreneurial parents form a role model and create management know-how for the individual entrepreneur.* • *A family business has a role to play in enhancing the development of entrepreneurship among family members.* • *There is a broader influence of fathers for male children relative to motherhood effect.*	*Family/parents and past experiences act as a catalyst for starting a business.*

owned a small business showed the highest preference for self-employment". *"Self-employment experience have marginally supported entrepreneurial motivation".* "*Being raised in a family that is entrepreneurial significantly impacts individuals' propensity to start their own businesses…".* *"Children of entrepreneurs learn the factors involving in running a business and consider establishing a new organization as a natural career choice option"* *"Having role models is also a significant factor in wanting to start a business".*	*mentors and guides for children starting their own businesses.*		
Excerpts from interviews	**Sub-category**	**Category**	**Theme**
<u>Formal education</u> *"There is no consensus regarding the impact that entrepreneurship courses actually have on university students' decision to opt for self-*	• *Young educated people cannot any more be as easily occupied in traditional employment types, as in the past.* • *There is an immense concern regarding the role that certain higher education systems in different countries can*	• *Education is an engine of innovation.* • *Greater human capital is associated with increased opportunity perception and an*	*Formal education is an instrument for entrepreneurial propensity.*

employment…" *"Basic literacy in entrepreneurial concepts can at least raise awareness on an entrepreneurial career".* *"Entrepreneurship can be learned, well designed university programmes could promote various components necessary for entrepreneurship such as judgement, risk taking, independency and creativity thus pulling students towards an entrepreneurial life-style".* *"… Formal educational background plays a vital role on creating entrepreneurial skills".* *"On level of education, it is possible to see a positive attitude of university students towards enterprise and small business".* *"There are some doubts on the ability of higher education to promote entrepreneurship ventures".*	*play in fostering students' decisions to found a business upon graduation or even earlier.* • *Graduate with an entrepreneurship major are more likely to start new businesses and have stronger entrepreneurial intentions than other graduates.* • *Education is an important factor that influence entrepreneurship.* • *The relationship between university education in general and entrepreneurship is not so strong and contested.* • *While education can help a person discover new opportunities, it does not necessarily determine whether he or she will create a new business to exploit the opportunity.* • *Others believe higher education in general, and entrepreneurship education in particular, may be key instruments to help promote entrepreneurial activity.* • *The impact of formal education on entrepreneurial intention is still remaining inconclusive.*	*increased likelihood of entrepreneurial behaviour.* • *The effect of general education, measured in years of schooling, on entrepreneur performance is positive.* • *Students who assess the university environment as being insufficient or negative to encourage the entrepreneurship have significantly lower entrepreneurial propensity than those who have positive perceptions.* • *Advanced educational background has a positive impact on one's impulsive entrepreneurship propensity and one's deliberate entrepreneurship propensity.*	
Excerpts from interviews	**Sub-category**	**Category**	**Theme**

Age *"Age is another influential element of socio-demographic factor that has a bearing on entrepreneurship behaviour…"* *"The age of a person plays a significant role in establishing characteristics generally associated with entrepreneurial behaviour".* *"Age play some role on entrepreneurial decisions".* *"The probability of starting a business has been shown to increase with age up to a threshold point and to decrease thereafter".* *"When perceptual variables are considered, the explanatory powers of age decrease or disappear completely, suggesting that age may influence start up decisions primarily because of its influence on perceptions".* *"Entrepreneurship is not essentially different from entrepreneurship*	• *Age has an influence on career decisions.* • *Younger individuals might be more willing to engage in risky entrepreneurial activities as they have less to lose if they were unsuccessful and can well take the lessons learned as experiences.* • *Older individuals may be in a better financial position to participate in entrepreneurial activities.* • *Older youth display the highest level of entrepreneurial propensity.* • *The youth, as a group, generally show significantly higher levels of entrepreneurial propensity than the adults.* • *At some point, age is associated with a lower likelihood of having an entrepreneurial propensity.* • *Age is positively correlated with entrepreneurial propensity.* • *The propensity or the likelihood to be entrepreneurial increases with age, peaking as people get old and then levelling out.* • *As age increases, individuals become less and less willing to commit time to activities which yield returns over time, such*	• *A person's entrepreneurial propensity grows with age.* • *There is an influence between age and entrepreneurial propensity and age positively relates to entrepreneurial propensity.* • *In the older youth category, this propensity translates into a relatively high level of actual entrepreneurial activity.* • *The young youth show a significant decline between entrepreneurial propensity and entrepreneurial activity.* • *The older a youth entrepreneur is, the higher is the entrepreneur's level of entrepreneurial propensity.*	*The relationship between age and the likelihood of starting a new business is highest at a relatively early age and decreases thereafter.*

among adults". *"What differs between youth and adult entrepreneurship, given the inherently different levels of intellectual and behavioural maturity is how entrepreneurship is taught and how it is learned"* *"Young people differ from adults in a number of areas including access to capital and resources, psychology, influence from society and environmental conditions and social attitudes".*	*as starting a new firm.*		
Excerpts from interviews	**Sub-category**	**Category**	**Theme**
Marital status *"I am married".* *"I am not married"* *"I am divorced".* *"I am a widow"* *"I think the marital status of a youth plays a role in thinking or wanting to start his/her own business".*	• *Marital status influences the intention to start a business.* • *Youth entrepreneurship is done by almost everyone despite marital status.* • *Most married youths enter into business to fend for their children.* • *Some start businesses in order to be independent.* • *Most male youths start business in order to be their own boss.*	• *Marital status may contribute in the desire to start a business.* • *It is not a certain group with a given marital status who only start businesses but everyone may start a business.* • *Most single female youths are pushed by their marital status to start a business.*	*Marital status is a pushing factor in the desire for one to start a business.*

"Most female youths start businesses in order to take care of themselves and siblings and to prepare for the future". *"Female youths start businesses in order to be independent and fight poverty".* *"My marital status played a role in thinking or feeling that I should start my own business".* *"I started business because I want to secure my future".*			
Excerpts from interviews	**Sub-category**	**Category**	**Theme**
<u>Entrepreneurial propensity</u> *"Youth should start a business as early as possible".* *"Youth should start businesses because there are no jobs".* *"Youth should start businesses because that is the only way to fight poverty".*	• *I have willingness in undertaking entrepreneurial activity.* • *I always wanted to be self-employed.* • *I always search for information that can be used to help fulfil the goal of venture creation.* • *I always have a conscious awareness and conviction to set up a new business venture and plans to do so in the future.* • *Starting a business is initiated by some type*	• *An individual must perceive the idea of starting a business as credible, that is, he or she finds this idea as both attractive and achievable.* • *The displacement experienced will bring about a change in behaviour, and if the individual views the idea of starting a business as credible, he or she will act upon this feeling.*	*The behaviour of an individual to start a business is influenced by entrepreneurial event, where perceived feasibility, perceived desirability and propensity to act influence the intention.*

"*I always think of starting my own business especially after I completed my first degree".* *"I have an inclination to start my own business because I want to be independent".* "I have p*ositive beliefs about entrepreneurship and I perceive entrepreneurship as a desired career choice…"* *"Higher levels of perceived desirability are associated with higher level of entrepreneurial intention".*	*of displacing event which can take the form of neutral, negative or positive experiences.* • *Neutral events may take the form of graduating from university.* • *Negative events may include losing one's job, or getting a divorce.* • *Whereas, positive events may include receiving an inheritance or venture capital from a stakeholder.*		
Excerpts from interviews	**Sub-category**	**Category**	**Theme**
<u>Urban youth Entrepreneurship</u> "Yes, youths are starting their own businesses". *"I have identified and developed ideas for my own business".* *"I have mobilized resources using personal savings securing premises and*	• *I am aware of the self-employment career option.* • *I have developed ideas, take and manage risks, learn the process and take the initiative in developing and owning a business.* • *The development of youth entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship in general is heavily dependent upon the participation of a multiplicity of stakeholders.*	• *The government plays a pivotal role in promoting youth entrepreneurship.* • *Resources are a major challenge affecting urban youth entrepreneurship.* • *Youth face challenges in registering their businesses.* • *Most youth are now considering starting a business as a career option.*	• *The success of urban youth entrepreneurship hinges upon government support and the participation of a multiplicity of stakeholders.*

preparing business plans for starting my own business". *"I have registered a business of my own".* *"My business is in operation".*			

5.5 Chapter summary

This chapter covers qualitative results and reliability of the instrument, trustworthiness of the qualitative data, composition of the qualitative sample and interview excerpts and descriptions from interviews. Also covered are the themes that emerge from the interviews. Next is chapter six which covers the discussion of the results.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented results of the study. This chapter discusses the findings of the study. The main emphasis of this chapter was to assess the level to which the research objectives were accomplished. The discussion of results was guided by the research objectives, hypotheses and research questions. The objectives include:

6.2 The influence of background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The objective of the study was to determine the influence of background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. Thus, it was hypothesised that,

H1: Background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of youths

There is adequate confirmation from the research results to suggest that background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of youths. The implication is that when an individual has a background associated with entrepreneurial activities may results in entrepreneurial propensity. The results imply that if an individual's background is not related to any entrepreneurial activity he/she may lack entrepreneurial propensity. Therefore, background or a person's social background and earlier experiences may influence entrepreneurial propensity (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). Shapero and Skol (1982) revealed that the family, particularly, the father or mother, plays the most powerful role in establishing the desirability and credibility of entrepreneurial actions. Kolvereid (1996a) found a statistically significant relationship between small business work experience and interest in owning a small firm. Compared to other types of work experience, past entrepreneurial experience may be more important for entrepreneurial success (Sandberg & Hofer, 1987; Vesper, 1990) and for interest in an entrepreneurial career.

Results of the current study show that the background of a youth influences his/her desire for starting a business. This implies that individual background positively influences one's desire to start a business. This approves claim by Scott and Twomey (1988) who found that youth with parents who owned a small business showed the highest preference for self-employment and the lowest preference for organizational employment. This is in line with Tkachev and kolvereld (1999) who discovered that family background contributed to self-employment experience

Also, background through family and parents result in increased desire to start a business by youth through role modelling and the individual adopts the behaviour by informal and unintentional observation (Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999). Crant (1996) confirms that being raised in a family that is entrepreneurial significantly impacts individuals' propensity to start their own businesses. Other studies also confirm that the children of entrepreneurs learn the factors involving in running a business and consider establishing a new organization as a natural career choice option (Cooper et al., 1994; Sandberg & Hofer, 1987). Furthermore, having role models is also a significant factor in wanting to start a business as pointed out by Birley and Westhead (1994) and having self-employed parents tend to be especially relevant as mentors and guides for children starting their own businesses as highlighted by Matthews and Moser (1995).

From interviews conducted it is clear that background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity. The theme emerged was: *Family/parents and past experiences act as a catalyst for starting a business.* Some participants outlined that:

"The idea to start a business is inclined to one's background…" [Monica]

"My parents own a business that's why I decided to start my own business…" [Edith]

"My grandparents used to own a business so I learn business skills from them…" [Cecilia]

"My inclination to start a business is due to my background of born in a family of people with businesses…" [Chipo]

"Personality and experience is all that matters for one to start a business…" [Tariro]

Drawing from the above-mentioned verbalisations it can be inferred that entrepreneurial parents form a role model and create management know-how for the individual entrepreneur (Papadaki et al., 2002). McElwee and Al-Riyami (2003) also states that children who grew up with entrepreneur parents had a greater tendency to choose a self-employed career. Similarly, Fairlie and Robb (2007) showed that entrepreneurs tended to have a self-employed mother or father in their family history. Mueller (2006) concludes parental role modelling to be the most significant familiar factor on entrepreneurial propensity. Through the socialization process of children, exposure to entrepreneurship experience in the family business constitutes important intergenerational influence on entrepreneurship propensity (Carr & Sequeira, 2007).

Remarkably, Drennan et al. (2005) reports that those who found a positive view of their family's business experience perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible. Alsos et al. (2011) also indicate that a family business has a role to play in enhancing the development of entrepreneurship among family members. Chaudhary (2017) confirms that self-employed family background will have a positive relationship with entrepreneurial propensity. There is a confirmation by many studies on the impacts of background on entrepreneurial propensity.

There seems to be a consensus on the proposition that the family is the primary agent of socialisation. Parents are seen as role models exercising both overt and covert technical influence on their wards as they set norms, values and orient behaviours in the course of daily life (Nguyen, 2018). Thus, the children on daily basis observe and imbibe certain latent values passed on to them by their parents, all of which shape their future personality and career (Çera, et al., 2018). This signals the likely significant influence of family entrepreneurial history on children's business interest. Stella (2008) in her study of the British Indian and Chinese student concluded that joining family-owned businesses motivates and thus, provide opportunities for realising entrepreneurial ambitions. Czuchry and Yasin (2008) also found that the entrepreneurial engagements of both parents are strongly correlated with the children's business interests. Davidson (1995) in his study of business owners in Sweden and Stanworth et al. (1989) in their work on British actual and aspiring entrepreneurs concluded that parental entrepreneurial engagement influences entrepreneurial propensity among the youth. Verheul and Thurik (2002) noted that not only do entrepreneurs seem to inspire their wards to become self-employed, there is also substantial reason for their children to believe that there is both financial and moral support for starting up, if not taking over their parents' business in the event of the parents' death or retirement. Wang and Wong (2002) and Scott and Twomey (1988) concluded on similar notes.

More precisely, Kirkwood (2007) found a broader influence of fathers for male students relative to motherhood effect. Moreover, study findings agree with literature that background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity (Çera, et al., 2018; Chaudhary, 2017; Moa-Liberty et al., 2016; Nguyen, 2018).

6.3 The influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The objective was to determine if formal education influences entrepreneurial propensity. Thus, it was hypothesised that,

H2: Formal education positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The research results provide enough evidence to demonstrate that formal education has a positive influence on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. This imply is that through continuous upgrading of one's formal education this may result in improved entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. The results imply that if youth does not acquire formal education they are less likely to start successful and sustainable businesses. In recent years, scholars and government officials show a growing interest in business start-ups, particularly those founded by well-educated young people (Audretsch, 2007; European Commission, 2008). At a macroeconomic level, the reason for this development is mainly attributed to an increasing belief that entrepreneurship can play a decisive role both in job generation as well as in the creation of innovation and wealth (Ahmad & Hoffman, 2008; Keilbach et al., 2009; Mariotti, 2009; Reynolds et al., 2001). At an individual level, entrepreneurship is today recognised as a much moreworthy employment option compared to previous decades, since due to the recent economic and financial crises worldwide, it is more probable that young educated people cannot any more be as easily occupied in traditional employment types, as in the past (Bosma et al., 2010; Henderson & Robertson, 2000).

From the interviews one of the main themes emerged during interviews was: *Formal education is an instrument for entrepreneurial propensity.* Influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity is well acknowledged by participants as reflected by the following interview excerpts:

"*I have attained my tertiary education and it has helped me to set up my business…" [Miranda]*

"My highest level of education is a post graduate qualification …" [Grace]

"I think my level of formal education influences my thought, idea, mind set and my inclination tom start a business…" [Ellen]

Drawing from the above-mentioned verbalisations it can be inferred that the role of formal education in different countries can assist in fostering students' decisions to found a business upon graduation or even earlier. Although there is no consensus regarding the impact that entrepreneurship courses actually have on university students' decision to opt for self-employment (Bechard & Gregoire, 2005; Schaper & Casimir, 2007), the number of entrepreneurship study courses delivered by higher education institutions worldwide is

growing fast (Gibb, 2002; Klaper & Leger-Jarniou, 2006; Kuratko, 2003; Schramm, 2006; Volkmann et al., 2009). The rationale behind such initiatives is that basic literacy in entrepreneurial concepts can at least raise awareness on an entrepreneurial career (Reynolds et al., 2003; Storey & Greene, 2010).

This supports sentiments by Nabi and Linan (2011) that entrepreneurship can be learned. Well-designed university programmes could promote various components necessary for entrepreneurship such as judgement, risk taking, independency and creativity thus pulling students towards an entrepreneurial life-style (Gibb, 2002; Knight & Yorke, 2002; Kolvereid & Moen, 1997). Despite, however, the increase in study programmes that promote the attractiveness of entrepreneurship, as an option for the students' career choice, and the role higher education can play to this end, it still remains unclear which are the factors that actually influence an individual's propensity to become an entrepreneur (Gartner, 1985; Gartner et al., 2004). On the one hand, the reason for this uncertainty is partially attributed to differences in entrepreneurship education from country to country and even more across the same country from one educational institution to another, mainly due to differences in learning practices and practical administrative support (Kuratko, 2005; Pittaway & Cope, 2007).

This also agrees with sentiments by Krueger and Brazeal (1994) that a considerable number of researchers argue that no general conclusion can be reached on the matter since there are differences in the way individuals perceive the barriers or facilitators encountered during the pre-foundation and/or early start-up phase of the entrepreneurial process. In this sense, it is important to combine both perspectives and, by focusing on an individual analysis level, explore the factors that an individual considers as leading him/her towards entrepreneurship within a university specific environment.

The findings confirm a study by Kolvereid and Moen (1997) who explored the effect of entrepreneurship education by comparing the behaviour of business graduates with a major in entrepreneurship and graduates with other majors from a Norwegian business school. The result indicated that graduate with an entrepreneurship major are more likely to start new businesses and have stronger entrepreneurial intentions than other graduates. The theoretical literature in economics considers education to be an engine of innovation (Arenius & Minniti, 2005). According to Davidsson and Honig (2003), greater human capital is associated with increased opportunity perception and an increased likelihood of entrepreneurial behaviour. Factors such as the availability of financing, education, labour markets, and quality of

existing infrastructure have all been shown to be important factors that influence entrepreneurship (Levesque & Minniti, 2003).

Results agree with those findings from Van der Sluis et al. (2004) who found that the effect of general education, measured in years of schooling, on entrepreneur performance is positive. Likewise, some other studies show that the educational background plays a vital role on creating entrepreneurial skills (Murphy, 2006). On level of education, it is possible to see a positive attitude of university students towards enterprise and small business (Birdthistle, 2008). However, the relationship between university education in general and entrepreneurship is not so strong and contested (Galloway & Brown, 2002; Pittaway & Cope, 2007). Moreover, Franke and Lüthje (2004) found that students who assess the university environment as being insufficient or negative to encourage the entrepreneurship have significantly lower entrepreneurial propensity than those who have positive perceptions. This finding is consistent with Davidsson and Honig (2003), where they show that while education can help a person discover new opportunities, it does not necessarily determine whether he or she will create a new business to exploit the opportunity. However, Quan (2012) confirms that advanced educational background has a positive impact on one's impulsive entrepreneurship propensity and one's deliberate entrepreneurship propensity.

Also, there is a different literature branch studying the efficiency of higher education in promoting the creation of new firms. In this respect, some authors such as Jones (2010) cast some doubts on such ability of higher education to promote entrepreneurship ventures, while others believe higher education in general, and entrepreneurship education in particular, may be key instruments to help promote entrepreneurial activity (Nabi & Linan, 2011). Therefore, the impact of education on entrepreneurial intention is still remaining inconclusive. However, findings from this study agree with various scholars that formal education positively influences entrepreneurship propensity (Ahmad & Hoffman, 2008; Audretsch, 2007; European Commission, 2008; Keilbach et al., 2009; Mariotti, 2009; Reynolds et al., 2001; Quan, 2012).

6.4 The influence of age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The study sought to ascertain if age influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. Therefore, it was hypothesised that,

H3: Age positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The study established a significant positive relationship between age and entrepreneurial propensity. Thus, age contribute to the entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. Age is another influential element of socio-demographic factor (Al-amri et al., 2022). The age of a person plays a significant role in establishing characteristics generally associated with entrepreneurial behaviour (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Age play some role on entrepreneurial decisions. For example, the probability of starting a business has been shown to increase with age up to a threshold point and to decrease thereafter (Blanchflower, 2004). In fact, when perceptual variables are considered, the explanatory powers of age decrease or disappear completely, suggesting that age may influence start up decisions primarily because of its influence on perceptions (Munir et al., 2021). Volkmann et al. (2009) argue that youth entrepreneurship is not essentially different from entrepreneurship among adults. The only difference is in the age of the entrepreneur and what differs between youth and adult entrepreneurship, given the inherently different levels of intellectual and behavioural maturity is how entrepreneurship is taught and how it is learned (Çera, et al., 2018).

From the interviews one of the main themes emerged during interviews was: *The relationship between age and the likelihood of starting a new business is highest at a relatively early age and decreases thereafter.* Influence of age on entrepreneurial propensity is well acknowledged by participants as reflected by the following interview excerpts:

"*Age of a person plays a role in developing an interest, liking and desire to start a business…" [Onias]*

"My age played a role in thinking to start my own business…" [Tapiwa]

"Age is related to cause someone to think to start his/her own business, because the older the individual he/she may be in a better financial position to participate in entrepreneurial activities…" [Chenai]

"Age may influence someone to have a feeling to start a business, because the younger he person the higher the chance to take risk in starting a business…" [Taurai]

Drawing from the above-mentioned verbalisations it can be inferred that age positively influences entrepreneurial propensity. Age is used as a control variable in many studies because of its influence on career decisions (Choukir et al., 2019). Younger individuals might be more willing to engage in risky entrepreneurial activities as they have less to lose if they were unsuccessful and can well take the lessons learned as experiences (Moa-Liberty et al.,

2016). On the other hand, older individuals may be in a better financial position to participate in entrepreneurial activities (Blanchflower, 2004). Schøtt et al. (2015) postulate that older youth display the highest level of entrepreneurial propensity. The youth, as a group, generally show significantly higher levels of entrepreneurial propensity than the adults (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). In the older youth category, this propensity translates into a relatively high level of actual entrepreneurial activity, while the young youth show a significant decline between entrepreneurial propensity and entrepreneurial activity (Maulani & Agwanda, 2020).

Despite the fact that entrepreneurship is regarded as a potential solution for one of the world's most important current problems, namely the youth unemployment challenge, there are a limited number of studies that investigate young entrepreneurs as a distinct group or in comparison to the older age cohorts (Geldhof et al., 2014). Young people differ from adults in a number of areas including access to capital and resources, psychology, influence from society and environmental conditions and social attitudes (Hlungwani et al., 2021). These differences need to be acknowledged and addressed in research aimed at facilitating youth entrepreneurship (Dragin et al., 2022).

The results from a study by Dzingirai (2020) confirmed a weak negative association between age and youth entrepreneurial success. However, a series of recent studies have indicated that there is an influence between age and entrepreneurial propensity and it was found that age positively relates to entrepreneurial propensity (Al-amri et al., 2022). This finding confirms that a person's entrepreneurial propensity grows with age (Schwarz et al., 2009; Turulja, Agic & Veselinovic, 2020). In addition, previous studies confirm that age is associated with a lower likelihood of having an entrepreneurial propensity (Nguyen, 2018; Hatak et al, 2015). Some other research found that the number of youths starting new businesses is increasing due to unemployment (Turulja, Agic & Veselinovic, 2020; Nazri et al., 2016). Therefore, many studies stated that the age of 25 and above is the most suitable age at which individuals are capable to start their own business.

The results support existing literature that there is positive impact of age on entrepreneurial propensity (Al-amri et al., 2022). Scholars such as Furdas and Kohn (2010) observed an inverted U-shape influence of age on individual start-up propensity. Age can be an important factor in entrepreneurial propensity. Research showed that people mostly decide to establish their own firms between the ages of 20 to 45 (Gulruh, 2010). This tendency was especially between the ages of 25 to 34. Boyd et al. (2000) showed that age is positively correlated with entrepreneurial propensity. More specifically, Bates (2002) demonstrates that the propensity

or the likelihood to be entrepreneurial increases with age, peaking as people approach 40 and then levelling out.

According to Levesque and Minniti (2003), age, risk propensity, wealth and alternative employment options contribute to entrepreneurial decisions. Levesque and Minniti (2003) have shown that the relationship between age and the likelihood of starting a new business is highest at a relatively early age and decreases thereafter. The same study underlines the fact that, as age increases, individuals become less and less willing to commit time to activities which yield returns over time, such as starting a new firm. Reynolds et al. (2003) emphasize the fact that individuals between 25 and 34 years are the most likely to be nascent entrepreneurs.

Some researchers believe that people mostly decide to establish their own firms between the ages of 25 to 34 (Choo & Wong, 2006; Delmar & Davidsson, 2000). Although older people are more capable of exhibiting behaviours that deviate from the customary way of doing business as they have greater means and opportunity for doing so (Curran & Blackburn, 2001; Weber & Schaper, 2004) but they are much less likely as younger people to take steps toward acting entrepreneurially (Hart et al., 2004) or to actually establish a company (Kautonen, 2008). Levesque and Minniti (2006) explain the age-related effect on entrepreneurial intention as a result of the opportunity costs of time. It can thus be assumed that age has a negative relation with entrepreneurial propensity as the person becomes too old. In addition, Hatak et al. (2015) confirms that age is associated with a lower likelihood of having an entrepreneurial propensity when passing the age of 40 to 45. In contrast, Chaudhary (2017) does not support age is inversely related to entrepreneurial inclination.

The results of this study are consistent with what has been established in the literature by various scholars who established a positive influence of age on entrepreneurial propensity (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020; Al-amri et al., 2022; Munir et al., 2021; Schøtt et al., 2015; Turulja et al., 2020).

6.5 The influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship

The objective of the study was to determine if entrepreneurial propensity influences urban youth entrepreneurship. So, it was hypothesised that,

H4: Entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship.

The findings and interpretation imply that entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. The current finding could mean that if youth have entrepreneurial propensity they may be involved in urban youth entrepreneurship. Moreover, youth confirmed that they have an urge for starting their own businesses. Thus, if youth have high level of entrepreneurial propensity they are likely to start businesses. Thus, entrepreneurial propensity is an individual propensity to set up a new business, or to accelerate an enterprise's growth by putting forward or developing a new operating idea or measure, which plays a very important role in starting and running a business. Thus, youth must have willingness to start their own businesses. This is in line with Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999) who defined entrepreneurial propensity as one's willingness in undertaking entrepreneurial activity, or in other words becoming self-employed. Likewise, Choo and Wong (2006) view entrepreneurial propensity as the search for information that can be used to help fulfil the goal of venture creation. Therefore, entrepreneurial propensity can generally be regarded as a conscious awareness and conviction by an individual to set up a new business venture and plans to do so in the future (Bird, 1988; Thompson, 2009).

From the interviews one of the main themes emerged during interviews was: *The behaviour of an individual to start a business is influenced by entrepreneurial event, where perceived feasibility, perceived desirability and propensity to act influence the intention.* Influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship is well acknowledged by participants as reflected by the following interview excerpts:

*"Youth should start a business as early as possible…" [*Wendy*]*

*"Youth should start businesses because there are no jobs…" [*Admire]

*"Youth should start businesses because that is the only way to fight poverty…" [*Abigail*]*

"*I always think of starting my own business especially after I completed my first degree…" [*Joshua]

"I have an inclination to start my own business because I want to be independent…" [Tatenda]

"I have p*ositive beliefs about entrepreneurship and I perceive entrepreneurship as a desired career choice…" [*Loyd]

*"Higher levels of perceived desirability are associated with higher level of entrepreneurial intention…" [*Tsitsi]

Drawing from the above-mentioned verbalisations it can be inferred that entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. Pihie et al. (2009) view propensity as a state of mind or attitude which influences entrepreneurial behaviour.

Entrepreneurial behaviour is a process that unfolds over time for the individual (Shane, 2000). Van Gelderen (2008) states that entrepreneurial propensity is central to understanding the entrepreneurship process because they form the underpinnings of new organizations. The propensity for youths to set up their business, and the opportunities to accumulate the necessary attributes and competence, are based on entrepreneurial intentions which are driven by many factors (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). The individual decision to start a business is influenced by the social demographic factors (Furdas & Kohn, 2010). Among several factors found to influence willingness to undertake entrepreneurial activity are psycho-social and cultural factors such as gender differences, family background, ethnicity, age, educational background and self-efficacy (Munir et al., 2021). Fostering effective entrepreneurial activity among the youth is regarded as a critical development strategy in order to integrate them into the labour market as well as harness their potential to contribute in a meaningful way to sustainable economic development in their regions (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018).

The results of this study are consistent with what has been established in the literature by various scholars who established a positive influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018; Moa-Liberty et al., 2016; Munir et al., 2021).

6.6 Urban youth entrepreneurship

During interviews respondents were asked about their perceptions about urban youth entrepreneurship. From the interviews one of the main themes emerged during interviews was: *The success of urban youth entrepreneurship hinges upon government support and the participation of a multiplicity of stakeholders.* Influence of government and other stakeholders on urban youth entrepreneurship is well acknowledged by participants as reflected by the following interview excerpts:

*"I have mobilized resources using personal savings securing premises and preparing business plans for starting my own business…" [*Mary*]*

*"The development of youth entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship in general is heavily dependent upon the participation of a multiplicity of stakeholders…" [*Lameck*]*

*"The government plays a pivotal role in promoting youth entrepreneurship…" [*John*]*

*"Resources are a major challenge affecting urban youth entrepreneurship…" [*Wadzanai*]*

*"Youth face challenges in registering their businesses…" [*Sarah*]*

The study findings show that youth lack resources and face challenges in registering their businesses. This suggest that if youth are assisted they may participate in urban youth entrepreneurship. Youth entrepreneurship is the process whereby youth become aware of the self-employment career option, develop ideas, take and manage risks, learn the process and take the initiative in developing and owning a business (Chigunta, 2002). The development of youth entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship in general is heavily dependent upon the participation of a multiplicity of stakeholders (Nguyen, 2018). The government plays a pivotal role in promoting youth entrepreneurship (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018).

In some countries governments "discouraged" entrepreneurship while in others government activity has become so pervasive that it "crowds out" private entrepreneurship opportunities (Langa, 2016). Therefore, the government should facilitate the formalization of the informal employment sector in order to motivate more youth to engage in different activities which are currently considered to be informal (Marumbwa, 2014). This will help to reduce the problem of youth unemployment especially on skilled and educated youth in both urban and rural areas (Maireva & Magomana, 2021). Likewise, it appears to be a more prudent approach for the government to implement various interventions targeted to unlock the entrepreneurial value of the youth (Langa, 2016). The study findings validate the general agreement in literature from an extensive variety of studies that government and stakeholder support positively impact on urban youth entrepreneurship (Chigunta, 2002; Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018; Langa, 2016; Nguyen, 2018).

6.7 Influence of marital status on?

During interviews respondents were asked about their perceptions about the influence of marital status. From the interviews one of the main themes emerged during interviews was: *Marital status is a pushing factor in the desire for one to start a business.* Influence of *marital status* is well acknowledged by participants as reflected by the following interview excerpts:

*"Marital status influences the intention to start a business…" [*Munashe*]*

*"Youth entrepreneurship is done by almost everyone despite marital status…" [*Rumbidzai*]*

*"Most married youths enter into business to fend for their children…" [*Ruvarashe*]*

"Some start businesses in order to be independent…" [Henry]

*"Most male youths start business in order to be their own boss…" [*Tongai*]*

Drawing from the above-mentioned verbalisations it can be inferred that marital status positively influences entrepreneurial propensity. The study findings show that marital status has a positive relationship with entrepreneurial propensity. This suggests that the marital status of an individual may act as a push factor for that individual to start a business. Marital status is the key distinction for transitions to self-employment, whereby living with a partner is different for married and unmarried individuals (Mindes & Lewin, 2023). A study by found that marital status is not significant factor determining the likelihood of establishing a social enterprise (Osabohien, Worgwu, Adediran & Soomro, 2023). A study by Ilevbare, Ilevbare, Adelowo and Oshorenua (2022) observed that demographic variables such as marital status influenced entrepreneurial intention among undergraduates. The literature has also begun to extend into the domain of the family, reflecting growing recognition of the disproportionate number of married entrepreneurs (Churchill, Smyth & Trinh, 2023; Parker, 2008). Married people can exploit knowledge spillovers from their spouses (Hayward, Cheng, Wang & Smyth, 2023). Married couples are an especially important group to analyse in the context of entrepreneurship because they make up the majority of business owners (Shahid Satar, Alarifi, Alkhoraif & Asad, 2023). This raises the possibility that the scope of spillovers might extend beyond marriage, and encompass relatives and other kin, especially in societies where extended families are the norm (Tennakoon, Lasanthika, Dilshani, Amarathunga, Praveeni & Wijethunge, 2023).

Parker (2008) indicates that married individuals have higher entrepreneurial potential than single individuals. The findings by Roy and Manna (2014) reveal that the entrepreneur's entrepreneurial attitudes are very much influenced by their marital status and the level of entrepreneurial attitudes increased as the change in the marital status. Literature provides an interesting fact that the demographic characteristics of indicators such as marital status may be twofold (positive and negative) in act of business creation (Bula, 2012). On one hand, marital status increases the opportunity to become entrepreneurs, on the other hand it reduces due to more perspective wage labour (Bula, 2012; Rinaldi, Arrighetti, Lasagni & Canello, 2023). Marital status whether positive or negative, may affect the start-up of business (Byrne, Tounés, Giacomin & Fattoum, 2016). Marital status (marriage, children) influences men's and women's determination to establish a business differently; the family encourages women to become entrepreneurs, contrary to men to suspend them from venturing into business (Chhabra & Karmarkar, 2016). Business-friendly factors are the presence of entrepreneur as

the spouse/parent, race, ethnic minorities, emigration, which both promote genders and people of various age to engage in their own business (Laure Humbert & Drew, 2010; Olorunfemi, 2023).

Marital status has been found to be associated with motivational aspects of women entrepreneurs (Roy & Manna, 2014). Marital status results in lower growth intentions especially for women (Byrne et al., 2016).) Marital status affects the relative importance of intra entrepreneurship (Kang, Sinha, Park & Lee, 2021). Marital status, being a parent is useful in explaining differences in pathways into entrepreneurship for men and women (Laure Humbert & Drew, 2010). Marital status is becoming a weaker predictor of women's participation (Sheng, Niu & Zhou, 2023). It is also strongly linked to the presence of dependent children, while men appear to be largely unaffected by family status (Ensari, 2017).

The results of this study are consistent with what has been established in the literature by various scholars who established a positive influence of marital status on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth (Churchill, Smyth & Trinh, 2023; Hayward, Cheng, Wang & Smyth, 2023; Kang, Sinha, Park & Lee, 2021; Ilevbare, Ilevbare, Adelowo and Oshorenua; 2022; Mindes & Lewin, 2023; Sheng, Niu & Zhou, 2023; Olorunfemi, 2023; Osabohien, Worgwu, Adediran & Soomro, 2023; Oshorenua, 2022; Shahid Satar, Alarifi, Alkhoraif & Asad, 2023; Tennakoon, Lasanthika, Dilshani, Amarathunga, Praveeni & Wijethunge, 2023).

6.8 The influence of socio demographic factor

During interviews respondents were asked about their perceptions about the influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. From the interviews one of the main themes emerged during interviews was: *Background, experiences, personality are pillars for entrepreneurship development.* Influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth is well acknowledged by participants as reflected by the following interview excerpts:

*"Personal background, family background, gender and the early experiences of entrepreneur influence entrepreneurship propensity…" [*Tsitsi*]*

*"Personality characteristics of an entrepreneur influence entrepreneurship propensity…" [*Shuvai*]*

*"Entrepreneurs possess certain inherent characteristics, values and attitudes that provide an impetus for them and distinguish them from others…" [*Loyd*]*

*"Education, age and work situation are influence entrepreneurial behaviour…" [*Rumbidzai*]*

Drawing from the above-mentioned verbalisations it can be inferred that socio demographic factor positively influences entrepreneurial propensity. The study findings show that socio demographic factor has a positive relationship with entrepreneurial propensity. This suggests that the socio demographic factor of an individual may act as a push factor for that individual to start a business. According to the prevailing literature, entrepreneurial behavior of any society is determined by different factors. These are social, personality and environmental factors (Jumamil et al., 2017). Social factors or demographic factors examine the personal background, family background, gender and the early experiences of entrepreneurs and potential entrepreneurs (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). Personality factors, widely known as trait model, focus on personality characteristics of entrepreneurs (Rahman et al., 2021). Trait model rests on the assumption that entrepreneurs possess certain inherent characteristics, values and attitudes that provide an impetus for them and distinguish them from others (Al-amri et al., 2022). Demographic and economic factors such as education, age, wealth, and work situation are found to be important drivers of entrepreneurial behaviour (Arenius & Minniti, 2005). Two key demographic variables that influence entrepreneurship activities are gender and family/parental background (Nguyen, 2018). Socio-demographic factors such as gender, age, level of education or job situation can be used to explain the existing entrepreneurial potential.

The results of this study are consistent with what has been established in the literature by various scholars who established a positive influence of socio demographic factor on urban youth entrepreneurship (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020; Al-amri et al., 2022; Arenius & Minniti, 2005; Jumamil et al., 2017; Nguyen, 2018; Rahman et al., 2021; Rinaldi, Arrighetti, Lasagni & Canello, 2023).

6.9 Chapter summary

Chapter six focused on the research findings comparing study results with related literature. The discussion was guided by major areas of the study that include: research objectives, related research hypotheses and research questions. Next chapter gives the study summary, conclusions and implications as well as recommendations pertaining to the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

7.1 Introduction

Chapter six discussed research results. Then this chapter is the final chapter of the dissertation which provides conclusions of the study. Research conclusions are grounded on the research objectives and related hypotheses. The research conclusions are extracted from the findings and discussion as illustrated in chapter five and chapter six respectively. The implications of the study findings to policy and practice, the current body of knowledge and research methodology are also provided. The research limitations are presented to make relevant recommendations on the basis of the given conclusions. Lastly, suggestions are made on areas that need further research.

7.2 Conclusions

The following are the conclusions that were drawn from the study findings:

7.2.1 The influence of background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The first objective sought to establish the influence of background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. There is sufficient evidence from the findings and interpretation of the results to suggest that background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. The implication is that when an individual's background is associated with entrepreneurial activity this may trigger an individual towards entrepreneurial propensity and starting of a business activity.

7.2.2 The influence of formal education on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The study sought to determine the nature of relationship between formal education and entrepreneurial propensity. The study findings and interpretation reveal that formal education positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. The study findings and interpretation reveal if youth receive formal education and especially in entrepreneurship this may result in improved entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths.

7.2.3 The influence of age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The study sought to establish the influence of age on entrepreneurial propensity. The findings of this study show that there exists a positive relationship between age and entrepreneurial propensity. This implies that entrepreneurial propensity is influenced by one's age to some

extent. Thus, if youths' age is increasing to some point they are likely to be more active in entrepreneurial activities thus entrepreneurial propensity may increase.

7.2.4 The influence of marital status on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths

The study sought to determine the influence of marital status on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. The study results confirm that marital status positively influence entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. This suggests that married individuals have higher entrepreneurial potential than single individuals. This means if someone is now in a marriage he/she may decide to start a business to sustain the family.

7.2.5 The influence of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship

The study sought to establish the effect of entrepreneurial propensity on urban youth entrepreneurship. The study findings and interpretation suggest that entrepreneurial propensity positively influence urban youth entrepreneurship. The findings of the study imply that if youth have high entrepreneurial propensity they may be involved in urban youth entrepreneurship.

7.2.6 The influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth

The study sought to determine the influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. Findings show that socio demographic factor positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. So, the entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth is influenced by socio demographic factor of youths. This make socio demographic factor an important construct in entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth.

7.3 Implications for entrepreneurship theory and knowledge

Studies focusing on the specific demographic factor such as socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth are scarce. Thus, this study sought to contribute to the current entrepreneurship body of knowledge by examining the influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. Globally, there has been a dearth of entrepreneurial studies that have specifically focused on the influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity. The current study is, therefore, a forerunner in entrepreneurship in that it has focused on the influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. From this study, it is therefore for the first time possible, to construct a research model indicating confirmed relationship among

background, formal education, age, entrepreneurial propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship. Figure 7.1 below shows the positive influence of background, formal education and age on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. Likewise, entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship literature should also to pay attention to socio demographic factor issues highlighted in the background and literature review. These include: background, age, formal education and marital status. Therefore, the existing theory must be enhanced to embrace this finding.

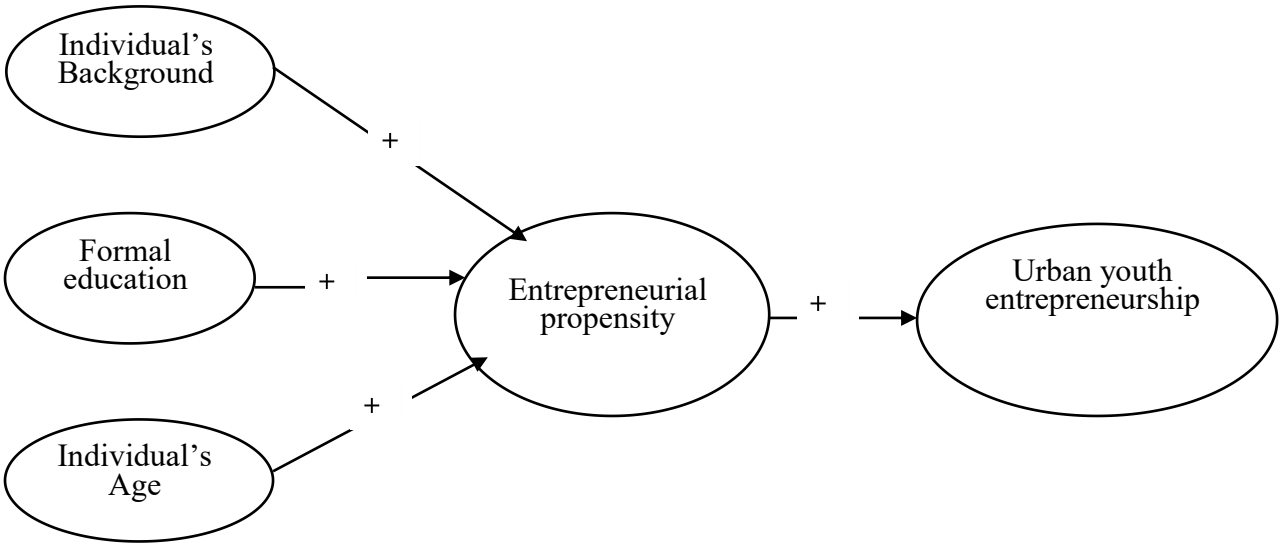

Figure 7.1: Theoretical framework of background, formal education, age, entrepreneurial propensity and urban youth entrepreneurship

This study is pioneering since it examines the influence of socio demographic factor on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. The results of this study are consistent with what has been established in the literature by various scholars who established a positive influence of socio demographic factor on urban youth entrepreneurship (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020; Al-amri et al., 2022; Arenius & Minniti, 2005; Jumamil et al., 2017; Nguyen, 2018; Rahman et al., 2021; Rinaldi, Arrighetti, Lasagni & Canello, 2023). This study establish that background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. The study adds knowledge to the growing body of entrepreneurship literature that there is a significant positive relationship between background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth (Çera, et al., 2018; Chaudhary, 2017; Moa-Liberty et al., 2016; Nguyen, 2018). Also, the study established that formal education positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth and literature agree with the findings (Ahmad & Hoffman, 2008;

Audretsch, 2007; European Commission, 2008; Keilbach et al., 2009; Mariotti, 2009; Reynolds et al., 2001; Quan, 2012).

Furthermore, in line with related literature, the study also established a positive relationship between age and entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. The study adds knowledge to the growing body of entrepreneurship literature that there is a significant relationship between age and entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020; Al-amri et al., 2022; Munir et al., 2021; Schøtt et al., 2015; Turulja et al., 2020). The study improved the knowledge in entrepreneurship literature that marital status positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. The findings complement the existent overall thought that marital status positively influence entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. This research confirms inferences by earlier researches (Churchill, Smyth & Trinh, 2023; Hayward, Cheng, Wang & Smyth, 2023; Kang, Sinha, Park & Lee, 2021; Ilevbare, Ilevbare, Adelowo and Oshorenua (2022); Mindes & Lewin, 2023; Sheng, Niu & Zhou, 2023; Olorunfemi, 2023; Osabohien, Worgwu, Adediran & Soomro, 2023; Oshorenua, 2022; Shahid Satar, Alarifi, Alkhoraif & Asad, 2023; Tennakoon, Lasanthika, Dilshani, Amarathunga, Praveeni & Wijethunge, 2023). Also, it was established that entrepreneurial propensity positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. The finding confirms current knowledge that entrepreneurial propensity is positively related to urban youth entrepreneurship (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018; Moa-Liberty et al., 2016; Munir et al., 2021). This finding adds knowledge to existing literature; therefore, this finding should be incorporated.

7.4 Implications on policy and practice

The study findings have several implications for the study. It was the objective of this study to establish the influence of background on entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. The findings confirm that background positively influences entrepreneurial propensity of urban youths. Thus, individual background plays an important role in influencing entrepreneurial propensity. Therefore, background or a person's social background and earlier experiences may influence entrepreneurial propensity (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). Shapero and Skol (1982) revealed that the family, particularly, the father or mother, plays the most powerful role in establishing the desirability and credibility of entrepreneurial actions. This approves claim by Scott and Twomey (1988) who found that youth with parents who owned a small business showed the highest preference for self-employment and the lowest preference for

organizational employment. This is in line with Tkachev and kolvereld (1999) who discovered that family background contributed to self-employment experience. Also, background through family and parents result in increased desire to start a business by youth through role modelling and the individual adopts the behaviour by informal and unintentional observation (Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999).

Crant (1996) confirms that being raised in a family that is entrepreneurial significantly impacts individuals' propensity to start their own businesses. Other studies also confirm that the children of entrepreneurs learn the factors involving in running a business and consider establishing a new organization as a natural career choice option (Cooper et al., 1994; Sandberg & Hofer, 1987). Kolvereid (1996a) found a statistically significant relationship between small business work experience and interest in owning a small firm. Compared to other types of work experience, past entrepreneurial experience may be more important for entrepreneurial success (Sandberg & Hofer, 1987; Vesper, 1990) and for interest in an entrepreneurial career. Therefore, families are encouraged to expose their children to entrepreneurial activity so that their entrepreneurial activity will be enhanced and improve their chances of starting new businesses.

This research offers imperative insights to government and universities on the need for providing programmes that are entrepreneurial based. Through formal education entrepreneurial propensity of youth may be enhanced. In recent years, scholars and government officials show a growing interest in business start-ups, particularly those founded by well-educated young people (Audretsch, 2007; European Commission, 2008). At a macroeconomic level, the reason for this development is mainly attributed to an increasing belief that entrepreneurship can play a decisive role both in job generation as well as in the creation of innovation and wealth (Ahmad & Hoffman, 2008; Keilbach et al., 2009; Mariotti, 2009; Reynolds et al., 2001). At an individual level, entrepreneurship is today recognised as a much moreworthy employment option compared to previous decades, since due to the recent economic and financial crises worldwide, it is more probable that young educated people cannot any more be as easily occupied in traditional employment types, as in the past (Bosma et al., 2010; Henderson & Robertson, 2000). The rationale behind such initiatives is that basic literacy in entrepreneurial concepts can at least raise awareness on an entrepreneurial career (Reynolds et al., 2003; Storey & Greene, 2010).

Well-designed university programmes could promote various components necessary for entrepreneurship such as judgement, risk taking, independency and creativity thus pulling students towards an entrepreneurial life-style (Gibb, 2002; Knight & Yorke, 2002; Kolvereid & Moen, 1997). Graduate with an entrepreneurship major are more likely to start new businesses and have stronger entrepreneurial intentions than other graduates. The theoretical literature in economics considers education to be an engine of innovation (Arenius & Minniti, 2005). According to Davidsson and Honig (2003), greater human capital is associated with increased opportunity perception and an increased likelihood of entrepreneurial behaviour. Education has shown to be an important factor that influences entrepreneurship (Levesque & Minniti, 2003).

Results agree with those findings from Van der Sluis et al. (2004) who found that the effect of general education, measured in years of schooling, on entrepreneur performance is positive. Likewise, some other studies show that the educational background plays a vital role on creating entrepreneurial skills (Murphy, 2006). On level of education, it is possible to see a positive attitude of university students towards enterprise and small business (Birdthistle, 2008). Quan (2012) confirms that advanced educational background has a positive impact on one's impulsive entrepreneurship propensity and one's deliberate entrepreneurship propensity.

This research established that age positively influence entrepreneurial propensity. Thus, age contribute to the entrepreneurial propensity of urban youth. Therefore, universities, parents and government are advised to ensure they introduce children to entrepreneurship at every stage in their lives. The age of a person plays a significant role in establishing characteristics generally associated with entrepreneurial behaviour (Acheampong & Siiba, 2020). The probability of starting a business has been shown to increase with age up to a threshold point and to decrease thereafter (Blanchflower, 2004). Younger individuals might be more willing to engage in risky entrepreneurial activities as they have less to lose if they were unsuccessful and can well take the lessons learned as experiences (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). On the other hand, older individuals may be in a better financial position to participate in entrepreneurial activities (Blanchflower, 2004). Many studies stated that the age of 25 and above is the most suitable age at which individuals are capable to start their own business. Therefore, government is advised to avail resources to this age group for start-ups.

The other objective of the study was to determine if entrepreneurial propensity influences urban youth entrepreneurship. The study established that entrepreneurial propensity

positively influences urban youth entrepreneurship. The current finding could mean that if youth have entrepreneurial propensity they may be involved in urban youth entrepreneurship. Therefore, government should address the factors that enhance entrepreneurship propensity among youth so that urban youth entrepreneurship may thrive. Thus, entrepreneurial propensity is an individual propensity to set up a new business, or to accelerate an enterprise's growth by putting forward or developing a new operating idea or measure, which plays a very important role in starting and running a business.

The propensity for youths to set up their business, and the opportunities to accumulate the necessary attributes and competence, are based on entrepreneurial intentions which are driven by many factors (Moa-Liberty et al., 2016). The individual decision to start a business is influenced by the social demographic factors (Furdas & Kohn, 2010). Among several factors found to influence willingness to undertake entrepreneurial activity are psycho-social and cultural factors such as gender differences, family background, ethnicity, age, educational background and self-efficacy (Munir et al., 2021). Fostering effective entrepreneurial activity among the youth is regarded as a critical development strategy in order to integrate them into the labour market as well as harness their potential to contribute in a meaningful way to sustainable economic development in their country (Hlungwani & Sayeed, 2018).

7.5 Implications on future research

The current study drew respondents from Mashonaland West Province only. This implies that the generalisation of the study findings is limited to one province in Zimbabwe yet there are several cities and provinces within the country. Even though there are many entrepreneurs in Mashonaland West Province, urban youth entrepreneurs in other towns of Zimbabwe were not considered by this study as part of the sample. Future studies may be improved by extending similar studies across many cities in Zimbabwe and other countries. Also, comparative studies are essential among other related sectors. The study adopted mixed methods, so future studies may adopt either qualitative or quantitative methods. Lastly, it is recommended that similar studies be carried out using rural or peri-urban youth as part of respondents. This may provide new contributions relevant to the study.

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APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW GUIDE

A. Entrepreneurial propensity

1a). Do you think youths should start own businesses? Why? Please briefly

b) Did you ever think about starting your own business?

c) When did you start thinking about forming a business of your own?

d) Do you think you have an inclination to start a business of your own?

B. Urban youth entrepreneurship

2a) In your own view, are youths starting their own businesses?

b) Have you identified and or developed ideas for your own business?

c) Have you mobilized resources or are you mobilizing resources, securing premises and preparing business plans for starting your own business?

d) Have registered a business of your own? Is the business in operation?

C. Demographic factors

3. Background

3a) Do you think the idea, or inclination to start a business is due one's background?

b) Do your parents own a business / Did it have a business?

c) Do your relatives or some of them / siblings own a business / had a business?

d) Do you think the idea or inclination to start your own business is/was due to your background?

4. Level of Formal education

4a) Where did you attend your primary, secondary and or tertiary education?

b) What is your highest level of formal education?

c) Do you think one's level of formal education influences their thought, idea, mindset or inclination?

d) Do you think your level of formal education plays / played a role in thinking to start your own business? Explain

5. Age

5a) Do you think the age of a person plays a role in developing an interest, liking and or desire to start a business?

b) Do you believe that your age played or plays a role in thinking to start your own business? May you explain in brief (How does age cause someone to think or have a feeling to start his/her own business?)

6. Marital Status

6a) Are you married or not?

b) In your opinion, do you think the marital status of a youth plays a role in thinking or wanting to start his/her own business?

c) Do you think that your marital status played or plays a role in thinking or feeling that you should start your own business? Explain briefly

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE

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SCHOOL OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND BUSINESS SCIENCES

I, Mukunga Everjoy Reg. Number C22151031G and mobile telephone number: 0778 407 653, a MPHIL student in the School of Entrepreneurship and Business Sciences at Chinhoyi University of Technology. As part of the Master of Philosophy degree in Entrepreneurship by research at this university I am conducting a survey that investigates the influence of socio-demographic factors of entrepreneurship on urban youth in Mashonaland West Province. You are being invited to participate in this research study and I kindly request you to complete this form by putting a tick or an X in the appropriate space or box as honestly as you can. Any information obtained in connection with this study that can be identified with you will remain confidential. **DO NOT WRITE** your name or anything that identifies you in any way. Should you have any questions or concerns about completing this questionnaire contact me or my supervisors: Dr Murebwa at 0778 283 359 and Dr Marima at 0772 206 313.

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5, 1 being 'Strongly Disagree' and 5 being 'Strongly Agree". **(Key: 1 'Strongly Disagree' 2 'Disagree' 3 'Neither Agree nor Disagree' 4 'Agree' 5 'Strongly Agree')**

Code	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Section A					
EP1	I have an urge for starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5

EP2	I have a liking for starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
EP3	I have an attitude towards starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
EP4	I have a tendency for starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
EP5	I have a feeling for starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
EP6	I have a preference for starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
EP7	I have an enduring likelihood for starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
	Section B					
B8	My parents own some form of business activity	1	2	3	4	5
B9	I was raised in a family with business culture	1	2	3	4	5
B10	I acquired some business knowledge and skills from family.	1	2	3	4	5
B11	I grew up in an area where people start their own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
B12	I experienced business creation and management through formal and or informal education.	1	2	3	4	5
	Section C					
LE13	My level of formal education developed a liking to start my own business	1	2	3	4	5
LE14	My level of formal education developed a desire to start my own business	1	2	3	4	5
LE15	My level of formal education developed likelihood to start my own business	1	2	3	4	5
LE16	My level of formal education developed a tendency to start my own business	1	2	3	4	5
LE17	My level of formal education developed a feeling to start my own business	1	2	3	4	5

LE18	My level of formal education developed an attitude towards starting my own businesses	1	2	3	4	5
	Section D					5
YE19	I am mobilising resources for my own company	1	2	3	4	5
YE20	I developed / have developed ideas for creating my own business	1	2	3	4	5
YE21	I have registered my own business	1	2	3	4	5
YE22	I am running my own business	1	2	3	4	5
YE23	I have formed my own business					
YE24	I identified opportunities to start my own business	1	2	3	4	5
	Section E					
	Kindly indicate the age range in which you started thinking to start your own business					
AGE1	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 16-20 years	1	2	3	4	5
AGE2	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 21-25 years	1	2	3	4	5
AGE3	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 26-30 years	1	2	3	4	5
AGE4	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 31-35 years	1	2	3	4	5
AGE5	I started thinking of starting my own business at the age of between 36-40 years	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: Socio demographic data

1. Age: 16-20 ☐ 21-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ 31-35 ☐ 36-40 ☐

2. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

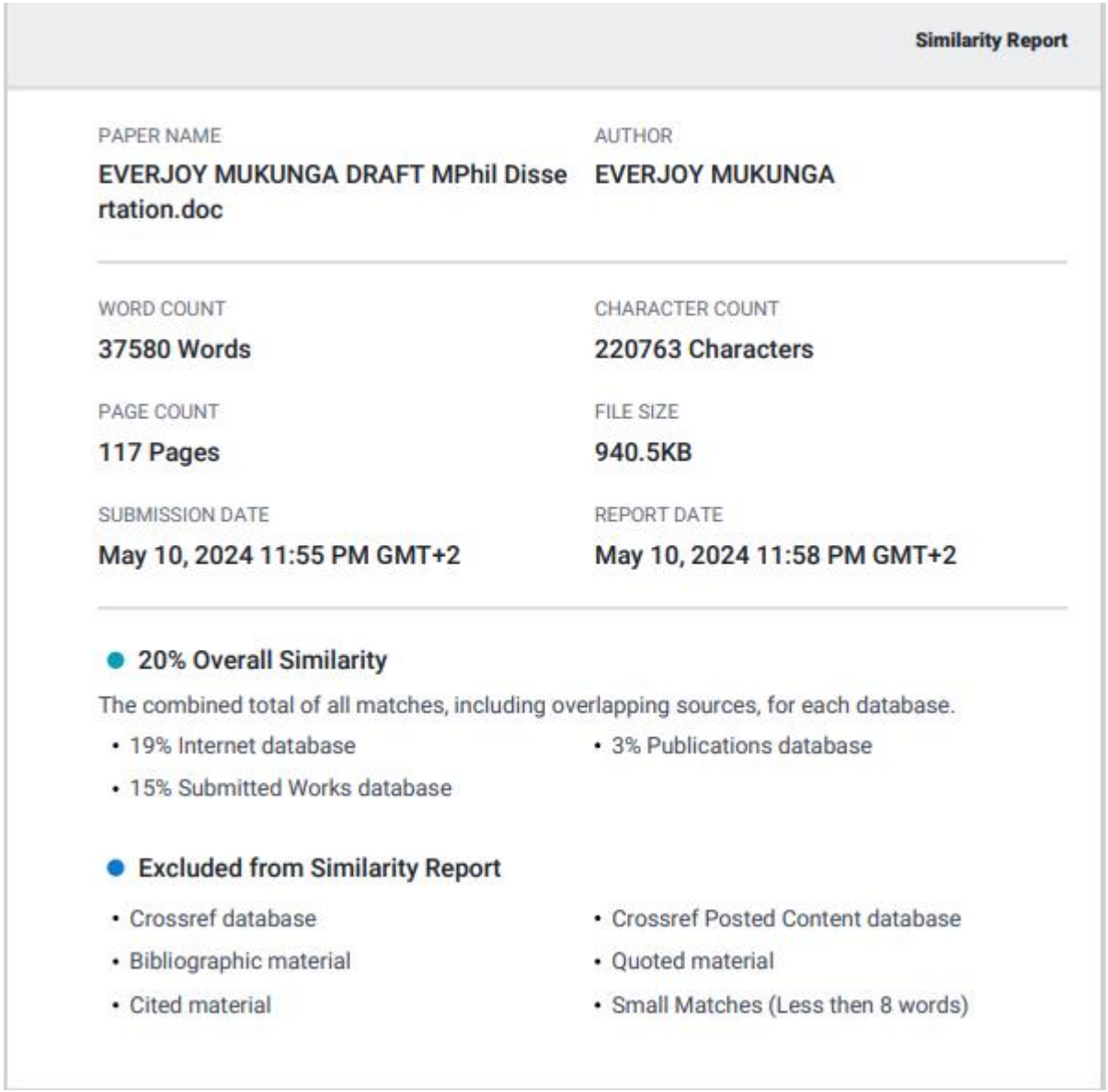
3. Highest level of Education: Primary ☐ Secondary ☐ Tertiary ☐

4. Employment status: Employed ☐ Not employed ☐

5.Indicate your marital status: Married ☐ Not married ☐

Thank You for your Time and Co-operation

APPENDIX III: SIMILARITY INDEX REPORT



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