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**Demographic and Individual Factors as a
Predictor of Social Entrepreneurial Motivation
among University Students**

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Declaration:

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of the thesis entitled “Demographic and Individual Factors as a Predictor of Social Entrepreneurial Motivation among University Students” I duly marked out all quotations. The used literature and sources are stated in the attached list of references.

In Prague on

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List of Symbols and Abbreviations

CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CZ	Czech Republic
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
MY	Malaysia
SDT	Self-determination Theory
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises
UM	University of Malaya
VSE	University of Economics, Prague

INTRODUCTION

Social entrepreneurship is a rather new but much discussed topic, which is interesting to investigate as there is not one clear definition of the term (Mair, 2010). The Skoll Foundation (2015) defines social entrepreneurship as “Society’s change agents: creators of innovations that disrupt the status quo and transform our world for the better”. An introduction to the background of social entrepreneurship and definitions will be presented later in this thesis. Social entrepreneurship is a growing research field of high interest as it connects anthropology, economics, political science and psychology (M. T. Dacin, Dacin, & Tracey, 2011). Mair and Martí (2006) suggest that social entrepreneurship arise from the interaction between a social entrepreneur and the context, thus it is interesting to investigate how social entrepreneurship varies according to the cultural- and socioeconomic environment.

Griffiths and Tan (2007) suggests that businesses and enterprises plays an important role in reducing poverty, and uses the example of microfinance as an initiative to support SMEs in developing countries to create jobs and reduce aid-dependency. An excellent example of a social entrepreneur with ambition to reduce poverty is Muhammad Yunus, a pioneer of microfinance. He grew up in Bangladesh and was inspired by his mother who always helped the poor. He started giving small loans to businesswomen in a village who told him they spent a lot of money paying middlemen and loan sharks and therefore got no profit for themselves. In 1983 he established Grameen, a bank that gave poor people in Bangladesh small loans to start their own business and work themselves out of poverty. Later on, in 2006 Yunus received the Nobel Peace Prize in his work to fight poverty. Today Grameen bank is serving 8.29 million borrowers in 81.357 villages (Grameen Bank - Bank for Small Business, 2015), and is an excellent example of a social enterprise. In the paper “Creating a world without poverty: social business and the future of capitalism” Yunus (2008) discuss how capitalism, governments and non-profit organizations have tried but fail to successfully lift the poorest out of poverty. Due to inequality, bureaucracy and aid-dependency, governments and non-profits have not managed to achieve the desired results within poverty alleviation. Moreover, Yunus (2008) discuss how companies have started to support poverty alleviation initiatives

through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Many companies have modified their policies in regard to labor, fair trade products or environmental issues. Yunus (2008) salute the good intentions of CSR, but claims that some companies selfishly exploit workers or pollute the environment in order to gain high profits, and only donate a tiny portion to CSR activities to maintain a good image. Finally, Yunus (2008) presents the concept of social businesses as a tool to reduce poverty and solve social issues. He describes a social business as entrepreneurs who set up a business to pursue specific social goals and not for personal gain. At the same way as a commercial company, a social business employs workers and sells a good or a service to customers for a fair price. According to Yunus (2008) the company is cause-driven and not profit-driven, but it is important to point out that it is not a charity as it is self-sustainable. Social entrepreneurship is a very broad term, while social business is more narrow, and considered to be a branch of social entrepreneurship (Yunus, 2008).

Several foundations have been established to support the work of social entrepreneurs. One of the first official foundations to serve social entrepreneurs was the Ashoka foundation, which was funded by Bill Drayton in the 1980s. Today it is one of the largest networks of social entrepreneurs with nearly 3,000 Fellows operating in 70 different countries (Ashoka, 2015). The Schwab foundation was funded in 1998 (Schwab Foundation, 2015) and the Skoll foundation in 1999 (Skoll Foundation, 2015). All of them support social entrepreneurship through investing in, connecting and celebrating social entrepreneurs.

A literature search revealed numerous scholarly papers on the intentions and motives of business entrepreneurs. However, only a small number of studies look into the motives of social entrepreneurs, and even less on nascent social entrepreneurs (Boluk & Mottiar, 2014; Germak & Robinson, 2014; Omorede, 2014). Therefore, the aim of this thesis is to investigate social entrepreneurial motivation among nascent social entrepreneurs. By investigating individual- and demographic factors of social entrepreneurial motivation between two unique student samples, this study contributes to an area of social entrepreneurship research that has received little attention in the past.

This diploma thesis comprises four chapters. The first chapter presents the research problem, the objective and importance of the research. This chapter also states the limitations of the study, and most importantly presents the research model.

The second chapter presents previous literature on the topic. The chapter gives an introduction to the concept of entrepreneur and social entrepreneurship, followed by a more detailed overview of previous research associated with the (dependent and independent) study variables outlined in the research model outlined in Figure 1.1.

The third chapter addresses the research- and data collection method and the analysis techniques. This chapter contributes to closing this gap about the motivational aspects of nascent social entrepreneurs by investigating a group of students from central Europe and South East Asia. Individual motivation, cross country differences, gender and attitudes towards corporate social responsibility (CSR) will be used as potential explanatory (independent) variables in order to inform this empirical investigation into intentions and motives (dependent variable) of nascent social entrepreneurs. Data were compiled from a web-survey and 149 students from the Czech Republic and Malaysia informed our research. Five specific hypotheses were evaluated by correlational analysis, t-test, ANOVA and hierarchical regression analysis in order to examine the relations between the dependent and independent variables.

The forth chapter presents the analysis and the result which indicate that country and attitudes towards CSR are strongly related to social entrepreneurial motivation. The results indicate that basic need satisfaction has a positive, but modest correlation, while gender had no significant relation with social entrepreneurial motivation. All together the independent variables explained nearly 30% of the variance in student motivation to become social entrepreneurs.

The final part discusses the findings and gives suggestions for future studies. This final part concludes the study and sum up the findings.

1. RESEARCH PROPOSAL

The first chapter presents the background of the study and why this topic is important to study. Furthermore, the motivations behind the study, the objectives and the research model are presented in this chapter.

1.1. Background of the study

Entrepreneurship is strongly linked to Small and Medium enterprises, which are important in the development of emerging economies (Stefanovic, Rankovic, & Prokic, 2011). J. C. Short, Moss, and Lumpkin (2009) identified 152 journal articles on social entrepreneurship and notes that research on social entrepreneurship is growing. The field of psychology is the second largest contributor to entrepreneurship research, but falls short when it comes to social entrepreneurship research (J. C. Short et al., 2009). Mair and Martí (2006) refer in their research to the inadequate definitions and boundaries of the term social entrepreneurship, and points out the need for researches to challenge and rethink the concepts. Mair (2010) notes that while the number of articles and publications on social entrepreneurship has increased, so has also the number of definitions. Furthermore she argues that social entrepreneurship means different things to different people, and to people in different places. By this she emphasizes the importance to consider different cultures, demographic factors and habits to fully deconstruct the driving forces in social entrepreneurship. Mort, Weerawardena, and Carnegie (2002) points out that although social entrepreneurship is much discussed, it is not well understood, and the increasing number of social enterprises and their significance to the developing economies makes it necessary to address this shortcoming.

Studying human motivation is important in order to understand what motivates people to be more entrepreneurial (Braga, Proenca, & Ferreira, 2015), and understanding the individual entrepreneur is important in order to understand why someone becomes and entrepreneur (Conger, 2012). Several studies have been done on personality, motivation factors and motives of entrepreneurs (Segal, Boriga, & Schoenfeld, 2006; Shane, Locke, & Collins, 2003; Stefanovic et al., 2011), but only a few studies on the motives of social entrepreneurs were identified (Braga et al., 2015; Smith, Bell, & Watts, 2014; Zahra,

Gedajlovic, Neubaum, & Shulman, 2009). Most of the studies on social entrepreneurial motivation are dominated by qualitative studies, thus it is an opportunity to contribute to current research by quantitative studies to be able to rank order factors after importance. Only a few studies focusing on motivational factors of nascent social entrepreneurs were identified (Germak & Robinson, 2014). This provides an excellent opportunity of the present study to contribute to increased understanding of social entrepreneurship by exploring an area, which has received little attention in the past; student's motivations to launch a social enterprise, based on demographic and individual factors.

1.2. Statement of the problem

This study proposes to gain insight into the factors that motivates students to become social entrepreneurs. Various studies have been done to investigate the psychological motivation factors behind an entrepreneur, in order to explain an entrepreneurs mind and behavior. Carserud, Brannback, Elfving, and Brandt (2009) discuss how intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is related to entrepreneurship, and connects Ryan and Deci (2000) Self-Determination Theory to identify psychological needs that are necessary for self-motivation, and applies this to entrepreneurship. Most entrepreneurial research assume that an entrepreneur is motivated by external rewards such as money (Carserud et al., 2009). However, intrinsic motivation may explain why social entrepreneurs start a social venture when there are no economic rewards like money present. Social entrepreneurs may be motivated by intrinsic factors such as internally generated satisfaction (Carserud et al., 2009). These statements presented by Carserud et al. (2009) are not supported by empirical research, thus it provides an excellent opportunity to investigate intrinsic motivation factors of social entrepreneurs. In order to fill this gap of knowledge, the self-determination theory is a well-established theory that may be used to investigate social entrepreneurial motivation among university students.

Recently researchers have connected corporate social responsibility (CSR) with social entrepreneurship (Page & Katz, 2012; Saatci & Urper, 2013), and studies show that managers who have a positive attitude towards CSR (Moyeen & West, 2014) share some of the same personality traits of social entrepreneurs (Braga et al., 2015). For example, personal or ethical

values are something that researchers individually point out as a motivation factor of both CSR activities and social entrepreneurship (Balta, Darlington, Smith, & Cornelius, 2012; Boluk & Mottiar, 2014; Braga et al., 2015; Hemingway, 2005; Nga & Shamuganathan, 2010). Based on theoretical research, Kickul and Bacq (2012) find that personal values are important for understanding entrepreneurial motivation, and suggest that studying values may provide useful insight in the understanding of social entrepreneurs. However, no studies were found connecting attitudes towards CSR with social entrepreneurial motivation, thus this study aim to fill this gap in research by looking at personal values through attitudes towards CSR in relation to social entrepreneurial motivation.

Demographic factors such as culture and gender have been found to play an important role in entrepreneurship and innovation (Lee, 1997; Turro, Urbano, & Peris-Ortiz, 2014). The GEM 2009 report on social entrepreneurship highlights the differences of social entrepreneurship globally, but also investigates social entrepreneurship activity between gender (Terjesen, Lepoutre, Justo, & Bosma, 2009). Current studies on social entrepreneurial motivations have overall been focusing on one country (Braga et al., 2015; Germak & Robinson, 2014; Omorede, 2014) or one region (Boluk & Mottiar, 2014; Lee, 1997). A former study on entrepreneurial intentions among university students shows that students from efficiency driven economies have higher entrepreneurial intentions than students from innovation-driven economies (Küttim, Kallaste, Venesaar, & Kiis, 2014). This finding opens up for similar studies on social entrepreneurship among students in different economies. This study aims to contribute to increased knowledge about differences in social entrepreneurial motivation across students in different countries and between genders.

1.3. Significance of the study

Studying social entrepreneurship motivation is important in order to understand the individual; who they are and why they become social entrepreneurs. This study will provide information through empirical results on the factors that are most important in predicting social entrepreneurial motivation. The outcome of the study will provide useful information to policymakers, universities and researchers in the field of social entrepreneurship in different regions. Social policymakers will gain a better understanding of the reasons why students

chose to become social entrepreneurs, and whether these choices are affected by demographics (university, gender) or on the individual (attitudes towards corporate social responsibility and self-determination). The result of the study can help institutes to improve policies to encourage social entrepreneurship, i.e. through education or financial schemes.

In recent years there has been a call for more empirical research in innovation and entrepreneurial aspects of commercial ventures in developing economies (Idris, 2009; Idris & Tey, 2011). In the present study students from South East Asia, i.e., the University of Malaysia is compared to students from Central Europe, i.e., the Czech republic. This comparison is interesting since the countries vary in terms of economic development and culture. The Malaysian society represent a very multi-ethnic context (Hirscham, 1987). This multi-ethnic aspect of the Malayan society is also well represented among university students. 72,000 international students are enrolled at private and public universities in Malaysia, which makes Malaysia the 11th country with the most international students in the world (Ministry of higher education Malaysia, 2010). Most of the international students come from China, Indonesia and the Middle East. At the University of Malaya 30% of all students are international students who represent a very diverse student population from more than 84 nations (International Student Centre, 2015). On the other hand, the Czech Republic is a relatively homogeneous nation, but is a popular destination for exchange students with 39,000 international students represented (Study in the Czech Republic, 2015). The University of Prague has a also a diverse student population with more than 16% foreign students from 52 nations, with the majority of students coming from the Slovak Republic, the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Belarus and Vietnam (University of Economics in Prague, 2010). These two student groups are therefore interesting to compare as the students may reveal differences in instinct motivation and attitudes due to differences in culture, economic development or political factors.

1.4. Research objectives and model

The objective of this study is to investigate if basic psychological needs, gender, university and attitudes towards corporate social responsibility (CSR) may influence intentions and motives towards social entrepreneurship in two samples of university students. The study

variables and research model are illustrated in Figure 1.1 below, and the empirical investigation will aim to answer the following questions:

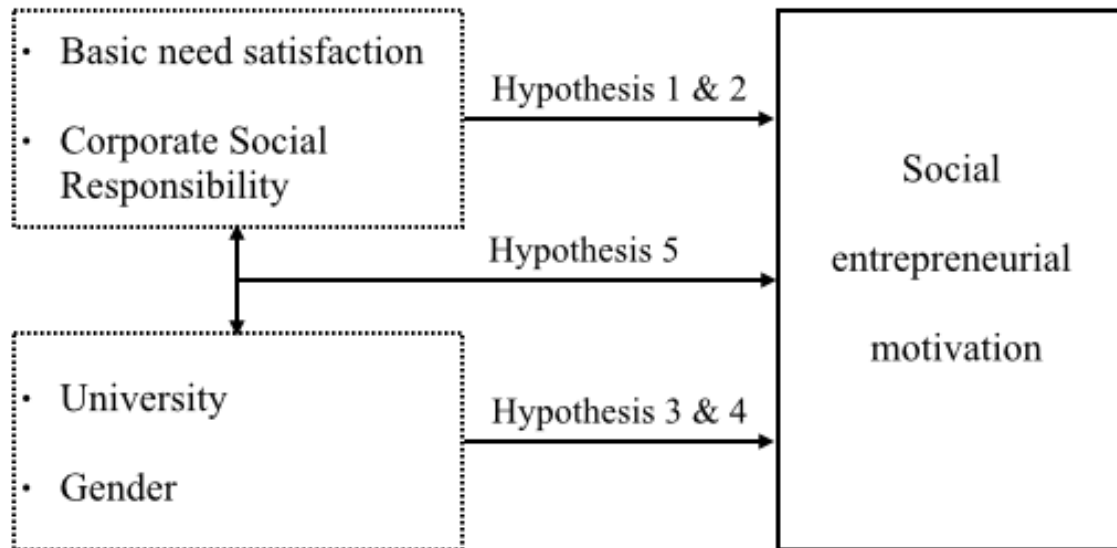


Figure 1.1 Research model and hypothesized relationship between independent and dependent variables

- I. Will individual differences in basic psychological needs according to the Self-Determination Theory (i.e. autonomy, competence and relatedness) be related to the student's motivations to launch a social enterprise?
- II. Will individual differences in attitudes towards corporate social responsibility (CSR) be related to the student's motivations to launch a social enterprise?
- III. Will students enrolled at study programmes in Europe and South East Asia be equally motivated to launch a social enterprise?
- IV. Will male and female university students reveal different motivations to launch a social enterprise?

- V. In comparison, will psychological factors (i.e., basic psychological needs and attitudes towards CSR) or demographic factors (i.e., gender and university) explain more of the expressed motivations to become a social entrepreneur?

1.5. Scope and limitations

This study will be limited to investigate a random number of students from South East Asia, i.e. the University of Malaya, and students from central Europe, i.e. the University of Economics in Prague. The students may represent different nationalities, but all must be students at the respective Universities. It could therefore not be inferred that differences between the student samples reflects general differences between the Czech and the Malaysian populations, but may reflect differences between the student population in these two countries. The study is cross-sectional and this limits the possibility to evaluate trends over time and to make causal attributions. Also, the study is based on self-report, thus the responses may be subject to self-presentation bias and general tendencies to anticipate more favorable outcomes, so called optimism bias. The study will be conducted as a web-survey in English, and therefore students without good command of English or student without access to the Internet will be excluded from the study.

1.6. Assumptions of the study

It is assumed that the participants in this study answer the questionnaire truthfully. To ensure this, anonymity and confidentiality is preserved by not asking personal questions or questions which may identify the individual. Furthermore, the participants in the study are informed about their ensured anonymity before participating in the study and may chose to not participate. Moreover, it is assumed that the majority of the respondents are Czech or Malaysian nationals, but some foreign nationals whom are enrolled at the University of Malaya or the University of Economics in Prague may have participated in the study as well. It is assumed that these students are legal residents in the country and possess a valid student or residency visa as required by the government (Embassy of Czech Republic, 2010; Immigration Department of Malaysia, 2012). Furthermore, it is assumed that these students

are embedded into the local student community, and may on an equal line take part in student activities, events and courses offered by the university or local community.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The terms currently used in social entrepreneurship studies are not clear, and the majority of literature on social entrepreneurship has been developed within the frame of nongovernment and not-for-profit organizations. In order to understand the term social entrepreneurship, it is crucial to understand the term social and entrepreneurship separately and in relation to each other (Mair & Martí, 2006; Nicholls, 2006). Therefore, this chapter will first investigate how social entrepreneurship is different from commercial entrepreneurship, and further discuss the dependent and independent variables outlined in figure 1.1. and develop the hypothesis.

2.1. Defining the concept of “entrepreneurship”

Before defining the social entrepreneur, it is necessary to define the entrepreneur alone (Dees, 1998). Understanding the difference between an entrepreneur and entrepreneurship is important in order to understand how they are linked. Entrepreneurship is what an entrepreneur does when they are being entrepreneurs (Pedro & McLean, 2006). The term entrepreneur comes from the French language and means someone who “undertakes”, for example undertakes a specific project or activity (Dees, 1998).

Dees (1998) presents historic and current definitions of entrepreneurship as stated by four different economists of over a time period of more than 200 years. The theories, which will be presented, were developed by the French economist Jean Baptiste Say (1767-1832), the Austrian economist Joseph A. Schumpeter (1883-1950), the Austrian-American management consultant Peter F. Drucker (1909-2005) and the American Harvard Business School professor Howard C. Stevenson (1941 - present).

Jean Baptiste Say defines an entrepreneur as someone who manages to exploit fully economic resources (Dees, 1998), and Dees (1998) interprets this as a value creation process. Schumpeter who describes how entrepreneurs create change through “creative destruction” further develops this perspective (Dees, 1998).

Furthermore Drucker connects Schumpeters definition of change with opportunity, stating that “The entrepreneur always searches for change, responds to it and exploits it as an opportunity” (Dees, 1998, p.2). Moreover Drucker touches upon the field of social entrepreneurship by stating that entrepreneurship is not necessarily driven by financial gain

(Dees 1998). Finally, in the theory presented by Stevenson the concept of resourcefulness is added to Drucker's theory about opportunity. He defines the heart of entrepreneurial management as "the pursuit of opportunity without regard to resources currently controlled" (Dees, 1998, p.3) According to Dees entrepreneurs are not constrained by their own limited resources; they mobilize the resources of others to achieve their own entrepreneurial objectives and this is also crucial for social entrepreneurs.

These definitions including value creation, innovation and change, opportunity and resourcefulness based on historic and present scholars, lay the foundation for Dees (1998) definition of social entrepreneurs that will be presented in section 2.2.

Looking further beyond the definition of Dees (1998), into the more recent study of Jones and George (2008) to clarify the difference between an entrepreneur and entrepreneurship. They define an entrepreneur as "an individual who notices opportunities and decides how to mobilize the resources necessary to produce new and improved goods and services" while they define entrepreneurship as "the mobilization of resources to take advantage of an opportunity to provide customers with new or improved goods and services" (Jones & George, 2008, p.280). This distinction is particularly interesting since it implicates that entrepreneurship is closely linked to motivational processes and actions taken by an individual, e.g. the entrepreneur, in order to execute change. Factors motivating entrepreneurship will be discussed in a latter section of the chapter.

2.2. Defining the concept of "social entrepreneurship"

P. A. Dacin, Dacin, and Matear (2010) have identified as many as 37 different definitions to social entrepreneurship, something which makes it difficult to find a common understanding of the concept. As Mair (2010) points out, social entrepreneurship has different meanings to different people. The numerous definitions contribute to the broad use of the term social entrepreneurship. However the aspects of creating (social) value, which has its roots from Jean Baptiste Say, is reoccurring in several of the definitions (Dees, 1998; Mort et al., 2002). Several researches use the term social value or social mission in their definition of social entrepreneurship (Mair, 2010; Martin & Osberg, 2007; Nicholls, 2006). Pomerantz (2003) defines social entrepreneurship "as the development of innovative, mission-supporting, earned

income, job creating or licensing, ventures undertaken by individual social entrepreneurs, nonprofit organizations, or nonprofits in association with for profits” (Pomerantz, 2003, p.26). By this definition Pomerantz (2003) emphasizes the social mission, and the innovation aspect of a social entrepreneur. He also opens up for categorizing non-profits under the term of social entrepreneurship. Mair and Martí (2006) look at the differences between the commercial entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs, and state that the difference lies in the priority given by social entrepreneurs to create social wealth versus economic wealth. In the field of commercial entrepreneurship, social wealth is only a by-product of the economic value created (Mair & Martí, 2006). Furthermore, Mair and Martí (2006) explain that social wealth is the primary objective of social entrepreneurship while the creation of economic value is only necessary to ensure the sustainability and self-sufficiency of the organization.

Moreover it is relevant to explain the difference between social entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurs. Mair and Martí (2006) identify social entrepreneurship as a process or a behavior, while social entrepreneurs focus on the individual behind the process. The term social enterprise they define as the actual outcome of social entrepreneurship. In this thesis social entrepreneurship is primarily concerned about the process of creating social value, whilst economic profit is the second priority.

After having explained the term social entrepreneurship, it is relevant to investigate the term social entrepreneur and the characteristics of one. Lepoutre, Justo, Terjesen, and Bosma (2013) have found three main characteristics that distinguish social entrepreneurs from commercial entrepreneurs. These are presented as the predominance of a social mission, the importance of innovation to fulfill that mission and the role of earned income. Social entrepreneurs are innovators that seek to benefit the society in some way and they address social needs. Thus the aim of an entrepreneur is the social mission and the welfare of the community (Dees, 1998; Pedro & McLean, 2006). In his paper “The meaning of social entrepreneurship” Dees (1998) transferred the basic concepts of Say, Schumpeter, Drucker and Stevenson from the commercial entrepreneur to the social entrepreneur. By combining the four important aspects of value creation, change and innovation, opportunity and resources in entrepreneurship Dees (1998) has defined social entrepreneurs as: “Social entrepreneurs play the role of change agents in the social sector, by a); Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value), b); Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new

opportunities to serve that mission, c); Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning, d); Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and e); Exhibiting a heightened sense of accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created” (Dees, 1998, p.4).

With the knowledge of who the social entrepreneurs are, it is necessary to look at what a social enterprise does. Dees (1998) emphasizes the process of creating social value, innovation and to serve a mission. Pomerantz (2003) describes a social enterprise like a commercial enterprise in the meaning of being self-sustainable through profit making, but with a specific social, environmental or communal mission in focus. Shaw and Carter (2007) present seven characteristics describing a social enterprise; among them the social enterprise must have explicit social aims, strong social value and social mission, and distributes profit for the benefit of the community. Thus a social enterprise can be described as similar to a commercial enterprise but with a strong social mission, and using profit to benefit the community, marginalized groups or the environment.

2.3. Social entrepreneurial motivation

The overall aim of the present study is to provide a better understanding of nascent social entrepreneurs by examining the intentions and motivation of prospective university graduates to become a social entrepreneur. From a research literature, findings revealed that studies on motivation factors of social entrepreneurs have received little attention in the past, and have only been in the focus over the last years. One of the earliest studies of social entrepreneurial motivation was done by Shaw and Carter (2007). In their findings they noticed that social entrepreneurs and commercial entrepreneurs have a notable difference in their motivation. The highest influencing factors of social entrepreneurs were belief in the work of the enterprise, to affect change and make a difference, to meet local needs, to tackle a social issue and personal satisfaction (Shaw & Carter, 2007). In contradiction to commercial entrepreneurs, few social entrepreneurs ranked “to become your own boss,” and “to create personal financial security” as important. Another study investigating social entrepreneurial drivers, by Bacq, Hartog, and Hoogendoorn (2014) assessed entrepreneurs and social entrepreneurs on the organization’s goals on four themes; intentions, self-perceptions, perceived legitimization of entrepreneurship,

occupational commitment. The outcome shows that social entrepreneurs are most likely to be driven by social goals and less likely by economic goals. In a qualitative study, Omorede (2014) identified four areas of motivation factors of social entrepreneurs; local conditions, intentional mindset, passion for a cause and social network support. Two areas emerged as dominate; the first was the local conditions such as economic deficiency, ignorance or inequalities. The second dominant factor is intentional mindset, and is related to the entrepreneur's alertness to social issue, religious conviction and propensity to act. Highly relevant for this current study on university students, Germak and Robinson (2014) present five components which motivates nascent social entrepreneurs. These components are; personal fulfillment, helping society, non-monetary focus, achievement orientation and closeness to social problem. Two of the most dominant motivation factors were found to be helping the society and closeness to social problem. However the authors emphasize that there is a blend of motivational factors that engage social entrepreneurs.

Taken together, this brief overview of previous research findings suggests that it is relevant to consider intrinsic factors expressed by individual differences such as personal motivation, values and attitudes in relation to social and societal issues. In accordance with Germak and Robinson (2014) the following sections of this study will elaborate on how individual differences in basic psychological needs and attitudes towards corporate social responsibility may explain university student's intentions and motives to become a social entrepreneur.

2.4. Motivation theories and social entrepreneurship

This section will briefly review some well-known content and process theories of motivation and then in more detail present the self-determination theory (SDT) of need fulfillment to shed light on how individual differences in need satisfaction may explain why some individuals are more inclined to be involved in social entrepreneurship.

2.4.1. Content and process theories of motivation

The main purpose of motivational theories is to address the basic underlying question of "why do people do what they do?". All behavior is motivated by some need (Lussier, 2008) and it is

therefore important to understand how the behavior of social entrepreneurs can contribute to fulfill basic individual needs. Motivational theories are usually classified as content or process theories. While the content motivation theories focus on identifying the specific need that motivate people, the process motivation theories aims to analyze how and why individuals are motivated (Lussier, 2008). In the following three classical content motivation theories will be briefly presented.

In 1943 Abraham Maslow introduced his needs theory in the seminal paper “A theory of Human Motivation”. Maslow’s classical theory consists of five needs, with the most fundamental needs such basic physiological needs, followed by need for safety and subsequently social needs in the lower part of the need hierarchy – and finally in the higher end people will strive for esteem and finally for self-actualization at the top. Maslow (1943) assumes that in order to achieve one step, the previous step(s) must be accomplished. Applied to social entrepreneurship, starting an enterprise can contribute to fulfill both the more fundamental needs and the higher order needs such as the esteem needs and need for achievement, they may provide a feeling of accomplishment and self-confidence but what is more, starting a successful social enterprise can also fulfill the need for self-actualization. As discussed before a social entrepreneur is someone who identifies the need of a social change, and by starting and running a social enterprise, the final level of needs, the self-actualization need in Maslow’s theory can contribute to explain the altruistic and idealistic aspects of social entrepreneurship.

Following a similar line of reasoning the ERG theory of Clayton Alderfer (1969) organizes Maslow’s need theory in three levels; existence needs which consists of psychological and safety needs, relatedness needs which represent the social (love) needs, and finally growth needs which represents esteem and self-actualization (Lussier, 2008). Again, the esteem and self-actualization factors of the ERG theory may represent important aspects of social entrepreneurship related to a sense of duty or obligation to serve the community or a socially desirable goal that also will increase the self-esteem and present a meaningful higher order purpose of self-actualization for those involved.

Finally, Herzberg’s classification of needs as “hygiene” and “motivators” (the two-factor theory) extends Maslow’s theory of needs and Alderfers ERG theory. In his two-factor theory Herzberg presents two different sets of needs; the first one is the “hygiene factors”

which concerns basic survival needs of a person (psychological, safety, love needs and relatedness). These factors are not directly related to the job itself but to the surroundings. Examples of these factors can be reward systems, salary and favorable interpersonal relations (Lussier, 2008). When these factors are not present at work, they can cause dissatisfaction. On the other hand when these factors are being met, they do not motivate or cause satisfaction, they can only prevent dissatisfaction (Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Andersson, 2009). The second set of needs presented by Herzberg is the “motivators”. These needs are directly linked with the work itself, and can be connected to recognition, achievement, challenge and advancement (Lussier, 2008). Herzberg’s theory presents a theoretical framework that also is relevant to understand the motivation forces of social entrepreneurship. In social entrepreneurship the hygiene factors are not only represented by monetary rewards or income, but also by social recognition, gratitude, relatedness and social bonds. These hygiene factors will then promote the motivators of social entrepreneurs in the form of achievement and recognition of the work that is accomplished.

In contrast to these three content theories of motivation; Vroom’s expectancy theory aims to understand how and why people are motivated in their work environment. According to Vroom it is vital to understand how valence, instrumentality and expectancy contribute to motivational processes in the workplace. Expectancy represents an individual perception and level of confidence that an action will lead to a desired result and valence explains how attractive a particular result is to an individual. Generally, the higher perceived value of the particular result, the higher is the chance of motivation. Instrumentality represents the belief of an individual that he or she will receive a reward if a performance is met (Mullins, 2010). Vrooms theory suggests that it may be particularly important to provide successful role models and educate prospective social entrepreneurs about best practice and how to succeed as a social entrepreneur.

Finally, the process motivation theory of Locke (1968) is worth mentioning in relation to social entrepreneurship. He assumes that individual goals are vital in determining behavior. According to Locke (1968) there are five goal setting principles that are particularly important in setting goals that will motivation human behavior, including the actions of social entrepreneurs. These goal setting principles are clarity, challenge, commitment, feedback and task complexity (Mullins, 2010). Similar to Vroom, the goal setting theory of Locke (1968) is

developed within a traditional commercial framework and based on the assumption that individuals are basically rational and will seek to maximize monetary reward, profit, or personal outcomes. This assumption does not necessarily apply to social entrepreneurs who in some cases will devote considerable time, energy and personal resources into building and sustaining a commercial venture that yields social welfare and not necessarily profitable return on investments. The self-determination theory of basic psychological needs may provide a better foundation to understand social entrepreneurship processes.

2.4.2. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and basic needs

The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) was developed by Deci and Ryan in 1985, and is a well-researched motivation theory that aims to integrate the aforementioned content and process theories of motivation (Self-Determination Theory, 2015b). The SDT theory is currently one of the most influential and well-researched psychological theories of motivation represented in more than 300 peer reviewed empirical studies indexed in the search base ISI Web of science as of July 2015. STD investigates the what (content) and why (process) of human motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to STD people have three universal psychological needs; the need for autonomy, relatedness and competence. These needs are not learned but innate in human nature, and therefore remains constant across gender and cultures (Chen et al., 2014; Deci & Vabsteenkiste, 2004) The SDT model has previously been used by Kingma (2011) in his research connecting the social environment, intrinsic motivation factors and the innovation process.

Autonomy is one of the basic needs in SDT. Autonomy is described as “the ability and the will to be self-directed in the pursuit of opportunities” by Lumpkin and Dess (1996). Autonomy has received little attention as a motivator of social entrepreneurship in the past. However, the characteristics of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial activities could indicate that autonomy in the form of personal agency, initiative and the ability to rise and seize business opportunities represents a valued personal attribute of entrepreneurs. A recent research paper supports this assumption in that autonomy is seen as the most important reason for entrepreneurs to start a business (Stephan, Hart, Mickieweicz, & Drew, 2015). Furthermore, autonomy is also closely related to being able to take responsibility for one’s own decisions.

According to Deci and Ryan (2000), autonomy is not the same as independence or individualism, but more closely related to the experience of personal integration and freedom to decide and take responsibility for one's actions. Autonomous motivation comprises both intrinsic motivation and the types of extrinsic motivation in which people have identified with an activities value and will strive to integrate it into ones view of self. When people are autonomously motivated they experience to be in control and to exercise self-endorsement of their actions in contrast to controlled motivation where the individual is solely motivated by extrinsic rewards. This apparently strong link between autonomous motivation and personal values, beliefs and ideals is particularly interesting when it comes to social entrepreneurship. In a study among social entrepreneurs in the health sector, autonomy emerged as one of the most frequent motivation factors of becoming a social enterprise (Addicott, 2011) From this, it is reasonable to expect that the basic need for autonomy may represent a potentially motivating factor for social entrepreneurs.

Competence is another basic need according to SDT. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), and Gagné and Deci (2005) the need for competence rests deeply in every living organism who is striving to grow and develop in the face of a new and changing context. People perceive themselves to be competent when they are able to attain desired life outcomes. In the context of entrepreneurial activity it is vital to be prepared for new situations and demands in the physical and social world, and moreover, to take advantage of the varied cultural and economic niches in to which a given enterprise will need to adopt or develop. Again, it is reasonable to expect that the basic need for competence may represent a potentially motivating factor for social entrepreneurs.

Relatedness is the third and final basic need according to SDT. Relatedness is a fundamental need, and represents the feeling of being loved and cared for, and to love and care for others. According to Gagné and Deci (2005) relatedness is about feeling a connection to others. In humans, the need for relatedness has its own species-specific forms of expression, forms that are clearly under-going continual elaboration over biological and cultural evolution, for instance through the recent surge in use of social media, but it is quite clear that the need itself remains relatively constant despite cultural and social changes. According to Deci and Ryan (2000) relatedness influence intrinsic motivation, but is less important than competence and autonomy. Starting up an enterprise will in most cases imply the need to attend to the

needs of prospective employees, authorities, and not least the customers. The social entrepreneur must be comfortable with building relationships to clients and stakeholders and managing staff and co-workers. Although the need for relatedness can be fulfilled outside the workplace, it is unlikely that a successful social entrepreneur can ignore the basic need for relatedness in workers and prospective clients. It is therefore reasonable to assume that the need for relatedness also may represent a potentially motivating factor for social entrepreneurs. From this review of content and process theories of motivation the first hypothesis will therefore be as follows:

H1: Students with a higher degree of need satisfaction of autonomy, competence and relatedness are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs.

2.5. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and social entrepreneurship

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has been a part of businesses for a long time, and the term has been discussed since the 1930s (Page & Katz, 2012). The definition of CSR is not clear, and Friedman (1970) created debate in the 70s when he stated that CSR is mainly a tool for companies to increase profit, while others have defined CSR as a way for companies to voluntarily contribute to improve social or environmental issues, and create social value (Weber, 2008).

Although CSR and social entrepreneurship have much in common, they differ in terms of structure, targets and profit related policies to mention some (Saatci & Urper, 2013). A few researchers connects CSR with social entrepreneurship, for example Page and Katz (2012) discuss in their paper “Is Social Enterprise the New Corporate Social Responsibility?” how the two terms are connected. Their findings reveals that while the two terms seems similar, the answer to the question is negative, as they find the social enterprise term to be far more interesting and substantive than CSR (Page & Katz, 2012).

Seelos and Mair (2004) state that there is a huge potential for sustainable development by combining social entrepreneurship, CSR efforts and public institutions. Furthermore, they suggest that corporate companies can use CSR budgets to fund local entrepreneurs to set up social businesses, and when the business grows too big for the entrepreneur to manage, the

corporate company can take over the daily running of the business, and free the social entrepreneur to start a new venue.

Moyeen and West (2014) give a brief overview of previous research on attitudes and perceptions of CSR. For example, in a study conducted among business students at Masters level in the US, the outcome shows that idealistic individuals, and individuals with social responsible attitudes acknowledge the importance of ethics and social responsibility in a business long-term strategy. In contrast, they found that individualistic individuals see these as short-term benefits. Another study presented, also from the USA found that ethical idealism was positively associated with the students attitudes towards CSR, while ethical relativism and materialism were negatively related to attitudes towards CSR (Moyeen & West, 2014). These findings are also supported by Rosnan, Saihani, and Yusof (2013), who investigated students from Malaysia. Individuals with an idealistic view tend to be more altruistic and unselfish (Rosnan et al., 2013), which are similar to findings when describing personality traits of social entrepreneurs, as in section 2.3. Finally, a study by Hemingway (2005) discuss how personal values impact socially responsible activities in corporate companies, and the researcher states that personal values are not a fixed entity and varies in different context.

This relatively brief overview over research on CSR clearly suggests that students who share positive attitudes towards CSR also may share many of the same personal values that are connected to social entrepreneurship. It is therefore reasonable to believe that positive attitudes towards CSR may be positively related to intentions and motives to engage in social entrepreneurship. From this line of reasoning follows the second hypothesis:

H2: Students who have a positive attitude towards CSR in business are more likely to be motivated to become social entrepreneurs.

2.6. Social entrepreneurship across universities

The student samples in this study were full time students and the economic and cultural differences between Europe and South East Asia will in many ways constitute the interpersonal and cultural context for the motives, attitudes, and future intentions that are communicated through the survey. The university topics and educational ambitions of the

leading universities in Malaysia and the Czech Republic will also reflect the national culture, political and social ambitions of the societies. In the following a brief outline of the political, cultural and economical environment where the universities operate in will be presented in order to understand the contextual factors, which may influence the respondents.

A brief background check of Malaysia and the Czech Republic reveals that the countries are very different in terms of history, ethnicity, religion, economic development and culture. The Czech Republic is a landlocked country in the center of Europe. In terms of religion, the Czechs are not very religious as approximately 40% consider themselves as atheist, and 40% as Roman Catholics, and the rest as other (Czech, 2015). The Czech Republic was founded in 1993, after a peaceful split of the former Czechoslovakia (Arnett, 2007). Czechoslovakia became a communist country after World War 2, but after a political revolution in the 1980s the country moved into a new political and democratic area, and the communism fell in 1989 (Arnett, 2007). Today the political system of the Czech Republic is a parliamentary democracy (Czech, 2015). The country is an ethnically homogeneous country as the number of foreigners living in the country only represents about 4-6 % of the total population (Arnett, 2007; Šveráková & Kořínek, 2008). On the other hand Malaysia is an excellent example of an ethnically heterogeneous country, or plural society (Asher, Newman, & Snyder, 2002). Malaysia is a peninsula in South East Asia. Malaysia is mainly divided by religion and race; Malaysian represent 51%, Chinese 22.9% and the Indians 6.8% of the total population (Kumar, 2012). In terms of religion, 61% are Muslim, 19.8% are Buddhists, 9.2% are Christian and 6.3% are Hindus (Kumar, 2012). Concerning politics, Malaysia is a federal constitutional monarchy (The Commonwealth, 2015). The federation of Malaya received its independence from the Brits in 1957, and Malaysia was formed in 1963 comprising the Federation of Malaya, North Borneo, Sarawak and Singapore (The Commonwealth, 2015). A brief comparison of the main demographic factors is presented in table 2.1 below. From the table, it is clear that the countries are different in terms of economic development and size. The notable differences in terms of the context where the universities operates, makes it an interesting object to further research.

Table 2.1 Demographic factors of Malaysia and the Czech Republic

	Czech Republic	Malaysia
Location	Central Europe	South East Asia
Population (in million)	10.5 (2014)	30.1 (2014)
Income level	High income level	Highly open upper-middle income economy
GDP	USD 205.5 billion (2014)	USD 312,5 billion (2013)
GDP per capita (PPP)	USD 30,444.9 (2014)	USD 24,714.8 (2014)
Poverty rate	5,8% (2014)*	1,0 % (2014)
Unemployment level	6,9 % (2014)	3,2 % (2014)
Gini index (inequality)	26.4 (2011)	42.21 (2009)
SMEs	1 million**	645.000***

*The World Bank (2014) * OECD (2014) **European Commission (2014) *** N. S. D. Council (2013)*

When comparing the level of entrepreneurial intentions in different countries the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) Global Report offers good statistics and understanding of entrepreneurial behavior. Table 2.2 below presents entrepreneurial attitudes and perceptions of individuals between the age of 18-64 and is measured by percentage (Amorós & Bosma, 2013). It is interesting to note that the sample requirements for participants in the GEM survey are not limited to nationals of the country, but also includes students and residents in the country investigated (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2015). Table 2.2 compares Malaysia and Czech Republic according to entrepreneurial attitudes and perceptions (Amorós & Bosma, 2013). What is interesting to notice is that the Malaysian sample indicates higher perceived opportunities than the Czech Sample, while the Czech sample has higher perceived capabilities. This could be related to the level of economic development within the country, as the Czech market for goods and services might be considered more saturated than the Malaysian market which is currently experiencing rapid economic growth.

Table 2.2 Entrepreneurial attitudes and perceptions

	Czech Republic	Malaysia
Economic Development level	Efficiency-driven economy	Innovation-driven economy
Perceived opportunities	23.1%	40.7%
Perceived capabilities	42.6%	27.9%
Fear of failure	35.8%	33.3%
Entrepreneurial intentions	13.7%	11.8%
High status to successful entrepreneurs	47.8%	44.9%

Amorós and Bosma (2013)

In addition to looking at entrepreneurial intentions, economic and political factors, it is interesting to compare the contextual environment of where the universities operate in terms of culture. Irwin (2000) states that an entrepreneur is influenced by cultural factors, and an individual and shares a certain set of beliefs and values with people from the same culture. Hofstede, Noorderhaven, Rhurik, Uhlaner, and Wennekers (2004) find that a country's culture and economic development affects the rate of self-employment and entrepreneurship within the country. Another study states that high individualism, low in power distance, high in masculinity, weak uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation is positively connected with entrepreneurship activity (Ogbor, 2009). Therefore, it is relevant to investigate the culture of Malaysia and Czech Republic when determining the differences in social entrepreneurial motivation. Hayton, George, and Zahra (2002) found that the cultural factors most often positively related to entrepreneurship activities are individualism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance, although the relationships are weak. Table 2.3 gives a brief overview of the cultural dimensions of Malaysia and the Czech Republic according to Hofstede. The striking difference in terms of uncertainty avoidance is maybe the most interesting factor as Malaysia has a low preference for avoiding uncertainty, while in the Czech Republic it is high. High uncertainty avoidance means that the country has a strong need of rules, personal security is very important (i.e. in terms of money) and innovation may be resisted. Therefore it

is apparent that in terms of uncertainty avoidance, students from Malaysia will be more open to taking the risk of starting a social enterprise or innovation in general.

Table 2.3 Comparison of Hofstede's cultural dimensions

	Czech Republic	Malaysia
Power distance	57	100
Individualism	58	26
Masculinity	57	50
Uncertainty avoidance	74	36
Long term orientation	70	41

The Hofstede Centre (2015)

After presenting the differences in economic, entrepreneurial and cultural environment in the Czech Republic and Malaysia, it is relevant to look at the entrepreneurial and social entrepreneurial aspects of where the two universities operate, in order to get a better understanding of the factors which affect social entrepreneurship. In Czech Republic, social enterprises are still nascent and the economy sector is weak (Jetmar, 2013). The slow development in social enterprises in the Czech Republic, is according to the Jetmar (2012) related to the lack of values associated with social entrepreneurship in the Czech Republic, in combination with lack of institutional support. Most of the current social enterprises in the Czech Republic are providing employment for disadvantaged people, but some also for social inclusion, work on environmental issues or sell fair trade products (Jetmar, 2013). Two organizations work on promote social enterprises in the Czech Republic. P3 (People, planet, profit) support social beneficial business according to their website. The website contains a database of more than 200 registered social enterprises (P3, 2015). Another organization found in the Czech Republic to support social enterprises is NESsT providing financial investments, capacity support and social capital and has been present in Czech Republic since 2013. According to their website they have during this short time evaluated over 60 social enterprise ideas, and assisted over 32 organizations and entrepreneurs by providing them start-up, incubation support as well as help in developing the business plan (NESsT, 2015). According

to Jetmar (2012), social enterprises in the Czech Republic lack funding opportunities, and only two support mechanisms were found to support social enterprises. Moreover, it is interesting to look at the support systems for students as they are representing the investigated population in this thesis. Küttim et al. (2014) found that students who participate in entrepreneurship education have higher entrepreneurial intentions than those who doesn't participate in entrepreneurship courses. They also found that students in efficiency-driven economies are more likely to participate in entrepreneurship education. A report by the European Commission from 2008 states that some institutions offer entrepreneurial courses, but in general there is not a system of entrepreneurship teaching in the Czech Republic (European Commission, 2008). In order to find more updated information, a search on the Internet was executed in order to investigate a growth in entrepreneurial courses since 2008. Only one Master's programme focusing on entrepreneurship was found among more than 900 study programmes offered in English in the Czech Republic (Studyin.cz, 2015). Furthermore four programmes on Bachelor's degree level were identified within the field of entrepreneurship, all offered in Ostrava (ECSB, 2015). No courses in social entrepreneurship were identified. This may indicate that students in Czech Republic traditionally are not encouraged and/or supported by the university or the government to engage in either commercial or social entrepreneurial activities, but recent initiatives show that this trend might be changing in the upcoming years.

On the other hand, in Malaysia, 17 education institutions offer one or more Master degrees within the field of entrepreneurship, and 44 educational institutions offer one or more courses within the field of entrepreneurship, among them is the Asia-Europe Institute, University of Malaya (Hotcourses Malaysia, 2015). In addition, the Binary University of Management and Entrepreneurship, has their own Centre for Social Entrepreneurship which has according to the website been open since 2010 (Binary University, 2015). Furthermore there are several organizations supporting Malaysian social enterprises. The Social Enterprise Alliance Malaysia is acting like an incubator, offering various services to support social entrepreneurs. They have 24 registered social enterprises in their database (SEA, 2015). Secondly, the organization Social Enterprise Malaysia are focusing on providing information on social entrepreneurship (Social Enterprise Malaysia, 2015), Moreover, Genovasi encourages social entrepreneurship and announces a cash prize of RM 5.000 for social

entrepreneurial ideas (Genovasi, 2014). Finally, in 2013 the government set up MaGIC (Malaysian Global Innovation Centre) and allocated RM 20 million for the creation of a social enterprise fund. MaGIC also provides support in terms of training and financing to entrepreneurs (Chi, 2013). Recent news articles report that social entrepreneurship is gaining traction in Malaysia (Yeoh, 2015). According to an article in The Star by Yeoh (2015) published in March 2015 hundreds of social entrepreneurs attended a Youth Leadership Conference. The keynote speaker pointed out that social entrepreneurship is becoming more important in Malaysia as well as on a global basis. Furthermore she pointed out that the Malaysian society has many problems to address; access to education, clean water and basic infrastructure to mention some. 1.45 million Malaysians are earning less than USD 5\$ a day and thus living in poverty, which provides excellent opportunities to make a positive impact on the community (Yeoh, 2015). The Malaysian prime minister has expressed his support to the social enterprise sector by recently launching the Malaysian Social Enterprise Blueprint 2015-2018 at MaGIC. He states that there are currently around 100 successful social enterprises in Malaysia, but aims to have 1.000 social enterprises within three years (Kaos, 2015). These findings suggest that the Malaysian government is focusing on encouraging social entrepreneurship both through education but also through institutional support.

However, In 2009, GEM also conducted a study on social entrepreneurship in 49 countries, among them Malaysia (Terjesen et al., 2009). According to the GEM 2009 report on social entrepreneurship, Malaysia comes out as the country with the less prevalence of social entrepreneurial activity in the world, with only 0.2% of the working-age adult population being seriously involved in social activities. Malaysia also scores low on the early-stage social entrepreneurship activity, with a mere 0.2% (Terjesen et al., 2009). Unfortunately Czech Republic was not a part of the GEM 2009 study, therefore it is not possible to draw direct comparisons between the two countries.

In terms of cultural, political and economic factors in the countries where the university students are enrolled, it is not apparent which student group will have higher social entrepreneurial motivation. However, as former research has found that students in efficiency-driven economies are more likely to participate in entrepreneurship education, and more likely to become entrepreneurs, it is reasonable to assume that this is also the case for students in Malaysia. Moreover, looking at factors such as entrepreneurial education available for

students and institutional support for social start-ups, findings indicate that students studying in Malaysia will reveal higher motivation for starting a social enterprise than students studying in the Czech Republic. Although Malaysia came out with low social entrepreneurial activity score in the 2009 GEM report on social entrepreneurship, recent initiatives taken to encourage social entrepreneurial activities after 2009 suggests that Malaysia has a growing number of support functions which can be motivating in starting a social enterprise. Findings suggest that the institutional support for entrepreneurship in general and for social entrepreneurship is weak in the Czech Republic. Therefore the third hypothesis is developed as follows:

H3: Students studying in Malaysia are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs than students studying in the Czech Republic

2.7. Gender and social entrepreneurship

Due to limited research in the field of social entrepreneurship among genders, this part will investigate factors such as entrepreneurial motivation in general and also engagement in other social ventures such as charity organizations or non-profits as these have often been associated with social enterprises (Weerawardena & Mort, 2006). According to a report on female entrepreneurship by the European Commission, the number of female entrepreneurs in Europe is nearly half the size of men, with only 12,9% of females being entrepreneurs, in comparison to 22% male being entrepreneurs. In Europe female entrepreneurs are mainly involved in scientific and technical activities, and real estate and communications (European Commission, 2012). According to the same report from the European Commission, female entrepreneurs also had the access to capital support through low-interest rate loans and grants. Czech Republic have four established organizations to support female entrepreneurs, and bringing them together in order to share experiences, and develop new skills (European Commission, 2012).

The GEM 2009 report on social entrepreneurship, consider the gender difference between women and men running a social enterprise as smaller compared to gender differences among commercial entrepreneurs. However, as with commercial entrepreneurs, men are more likely to start a social enterprise than women. As an

exception, Malaysia is one of the few countries where women are more likely to start a social venture than men. On the other hand Idris (2009) also notes that Asian women entrepreneurs face specific challenges in the form of family commitments and sex-role conflicts. Cultural, historical and reasons may contribute to explain why the GEM report states that in some countries women are more likely to start a social enterprise, while in others men are more likely. According to a report by SELUSI (2015), who has investigated hundreds of social enterprises in Europa, discovered that 43% of all the social enterprises are being run by women, this is a remarkably high share, especially compared to women being commercial entrepreneurs (SELUSI, 2015).

As Pomerantz (2003) has previously linked social entrepreneurship with the non-profit sector, it is also relevant to look at gender differences in this field. In Canada, research has found that 75% of those working in the non-profit sector are female, and are mainly holding administrative and support staff positions, while male occupy senior management positions (H. Council, 2008). Another research done by the Core Capacity Assessment Tool (CCAT) finds that female lead 64% of all non-profits, and male lead only 36%. It is, however interesting to notice that nonprofit organizations which are led by women are more effective in several areas, but male led non-profits make more money (CCAT, 2015).

With the knowledge of men representing a higher share of total number of commercial entrepreneurs, and women being higher represented in the non-profit sector, it is reason to expect that female students would be more motivated than male students to start a social enterprise. Although social and cultural factors may interfere with their capacity to actually start a social enterprise it is assumed that their desire to do so would still be high among university students. Thus the forth hypothesis is developed as follows:

H4: Female students are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs than male students.

2.8. Demographic or individual – what are the most important determinants of social entrepreneurship?

Taken together, individual differences in need satisfaction and attitudes towards corporate social responsibility may represent two powerful psychological factors that motivate nascent

social entrepreneurs. This is also emphasized by Braga et al. (2015) who mainly found pull factors as motivator of social entrepreneurs where altruism is the most mentioned reason for creating a social venture. Secondly, was the passion or personal interest in the cause another kind of intrinsic motivation factor. Still, like Short, Moss, & Lumpkin (2009), have pointed out, demographic and cultural factors outside the individual may also present opportunities and barriers to become a social entrepreneur. The present study has addressed two important demographic factors, which are gender and university association across regions. Braga et al. (2015) also noted that role models and other entrepreneurs, friends or family also had influenced more than half of the entrepreneurs they had studied. Although the prevalence and contribution of social entrepreneurship to society is increasingly acknowledged, there are few quantitative studies analyzing who these entrepreneurs are, what drives them, and how they perform, especially across countries (Lepoutre, Justo, Terjesen, & Bosma, 2013; Short, Moss, & Lumpkin, 2009). The present study may contribute to increased knowledge in this area by providing empirical data on the relative importance of psychological (i.e., basic needs and attitudes towards CSR) versus demographic (i.e., gender and university) factors in determining nascent social entrepreneurs. From the aforementioned discussion of these factors the fifth hypothesis will be as follows:

H5: Psychological factors in the form of basic needs and attitudes towards CSR will be a relatively stronger predictor of student's motivation to become social entrepreneurs than the demographic factors of gender and university association.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter is going to introduce the research method applied to the study. A quantitative approach has been chosen to answer the research questions. First the selection of measures is discussed, second, the chosen sampling design is presented and furthermore, the data collection procedure the development of the questionnaire will be presented. In the end, the data analysis technique is presented.

3.1. Selection of measures

In order to understand the differences in university association, gender, personal needs satisfaction and attitudes towards corporate social responsibility related to social entrepreneurship the study employs a quantitative research. As this study aims to determine relationships between variables, quantitative method is considered to be highly effective (Lowder, 2009). Social entrepreneurship studies are dominated by qualitative research methods (J. Short, 2014). However, in a recent study J. Short (2014), found 25 empirical studies about social entrepreneurship published in journals between the year 1998 to 2013. Of these 25 studies, 13 of them were published after 2010, thus quantitative studies in social entrepreneurship is at an early but growing stage. Furthermore, former scholars in the field of motivation and social entrepreneurship have recommended in their studies to conduct a quantitative study on the motivation of social entrepreneurs, in order to measure and range the factors after importance, which is not possible in a qualitative study (Braga et al., 2015; Boluk et al., 2014). This provides an excellent opportunity to contribute to increased empirical research methods within social entrepreneurship, and the quantitative strategy has been chosen for this study through the distribution of surveys. Survey strategy is chosen since this strategy is well suited to answer questions such as who, what, where and how. The survey strategy is well connected with an exploratory and deductive research approach (Saunders 2009). There are several benefits by using a survey strategy. First of all it allows researching a big population, furthermore the questionnaires are standardized and easy to compare and understand. The survey strategy is a low-cost, and allows for findings, which are representative to a whole population; however the sample must be representative. One of the main constraints with using the survey strategy is the comprehensive and time consuming

process of analyzing the results through the use of computer software. Another downside is that the number of questions is limited as questionnaires which are too long would demotivate people, and people might choose not to answer (Saunders 2009). The survey form is associated with some risk related to reliability, which is built upon three principles. First of all the measurements yielded should show the same results on other occasions, similar observations should be reached by other observers and finally there should be transparency in how the data was analyzed. There are mainly four threats to reliability (Saunders 2009). In this study the main threat will be related to subjects or participant error, as it will be difficult for the researcher to control at what time the participant will conduct the survey and where the participant will be as the survey will be conducted online. Therefore the researcher has no control over the external environment of the participant; if the participant is in hurry, what time or day the participant answers, and if the participant is influenced by others. In the present study reliability issues were taken into consideration by using a plain and nontechnical English language, also to keep the questionnaire short and by explaining and defining crucial terms such as “social entrepreneur” to ensure that this was understood by all respondents. In this case, the relative homogeneity in age and educational background of the respondents also contributes to increased reliability in good command of language and familiarity with basic concepts and survey research.

3.2. Sampling design

The target population of this study is students from South East Asia and Central Europe, more specifically from University of Malaya and University of Economics, Prague. Students from two different universities are chosen to represent the sampling frame, and these two Universities are both highly ranked within their own country according to the QS World University Rankings (QS Top Universities, 2015). In this study students from the University of Economics in Prague are compared to students from the University of Malaya in Kuala Lumpur. These two universities represents a convenience sample since the author is enrolled as a Double Degree Master student in both Malaysia and Czech Republic. University of Malaya (UM) had 25,000 students enrolled in 2010 and among them about 10,000 were graduate students (University of Malaya, 2015). International students represent

approximately 30% of the student group at UM, and they come from 84 different nations (International Student Centre, 2015). At the University of economics in Prague (VSE) there were around 20,000 students enrolled in 2014 within all programs (University of Economics, 2015). International students come from 52 different nations and represent approximately 16% of the student group. (University of Economics in Prague, 2010). Among the students at UM and VSE, student enrolled at Master's level within the field of business and/or economics have been invited to participate in the study, as previous research have found these students to be the most entrepreneurial study groups (Sieger, Fueglistaller, & Zellweger, 2011). Ideally probability sampling should be done when conducting a quantitative study (Saunders, 2009). However, due to limited access to the whole population, non-probability sampling was used. One of the main disadvantages with non-probability sampling in quantitative studies is the risk of the sample not being representative of the population (Saunders, 2009), thus the findings of this study may not be representative of generalizing across country, but may be limited to findings across universities.

3.3. Data collection procedure

The primary data was collected through a self-administrated questionnaire, which was administrated electronically by using the Internet. Due to the researcher's distance from the population investigated, self-administered questionnaires have several advantages as it makes it possible to reach a large, geographically dispersed sample (Saunders, 2009). The probability of the right person respond to the questionnaire is high and there is little risk of contamination of the respondents answer. In addition the costs are low, and the use of self-administrated questionnaires automates the data entry, which allows for time-saving (Saunders, 2009). An email with basic information about the study, and an invitation to participate to the study by accessing a link in the email was provided. A new software, Typeform (2015) was used to collect the questionnaires as it is free of charge, has no limitations of the number of questions asked and automates the data entry in excel. Furthermore the design is beautiful and is mobile friendly (Typeform, 2015). The data collection took place at one point in time due to time constraints and inherent limitations of a diploma thesis. Although a longitudinal study would have provided additional advantages, the

use of cross-sectional data is well suited for a survey study and appropriate to address the research questions in this thesis (Saunders 2009). The data was collected between the 5th and the 20th of July, 2015.

3.4. Development of questionnaire

The questionnaire was developed after reviewing the research literature and developing the research questions and hypothesis. Several previous studies were consulted and sample questions were developed by combining questions from previous studies. The questionnaire consisted in total of 20 questions, divided into four parts. In part one there were two questions related to demographics. These questions asked the respondent to list their gender and home university to identify the study institution of the sample. In order to ensure confidentiality of the respondents, information about nationality/citizenship were not collected. Although the student group may include some individuals that represent other nationalities, all respondents were full time students at their respective universities and at the time of the survey and it is assumed that they were embedded in the national culture of their universities. In addition a question about the respondents field of study was asked, as the research aim to investigate students of business and economic study background, as described in section 3.2. This was only a control-question to ensure that all the respondents were enrolled in a business or economic related study program, in order to prevent contamination of the sample.

The second part contained 11 questions adapted from Deci and Ryan (2000) basic psychological needs theory in general. The original questionnaire consists of a 21-item questionnaire, which aims to investigate the need for competence, autonomy and relatedness. Of these 21 questions, 9 of them are negatively worded. A study evaluating the basic need satisfaction model has come to a conclusion that some of the questions are redundant, and these have been removed from the study (Johnston & Finney, 2010). Furthermore, the same scholars found that the questions that were negatively worded had a negative method effect, thus in order to simplify and shorten the model, the negative worded questions were also removed from the questionnaire. This leaves the second part of the survey with 11 questions where the respondents were asked to use a 7-point likert-style rating scale in order to indicate how the questions were true in relation to their own life, with 1 being “not true at all” and 7

being “very true”. Sample questions, scale reliability scores and descriptive statistics for the basic needs questionnaire is shown in Table 4.1, section 4.1, below.

The third part of the survey consisted of 3 questions adapted from the GEM 2009 Report on Social Entrepreneurship. These four questions were asked in order to index the respondent’s attitudes towards corporate social responsibility. These four questions were asked on a 7-point likert scale, and the respondent were asked to rate their opinion on the seven statements, where 1 was “completely agree” and 7 was “completely disagree”. Sample questions, scale reliability scores and descriptive statistics for the CSR questionnaire is shown in Table 4.2, section 4.1, below.

The final three questions were also adapted from the GEM 2009 Report on Social Entrepreneurship and intend to serve as an outcome measure in assessing the respondent’s motivations to launch an entrepreneurial venue in the future. These final questions asked the respondent to state how motivated s/he feels to launch an enterprise in the future, either commercial, social or in a combined form. The definition of these three forms of entrepreneurial activity was provided and adapted from the GEM 2009 Report on Social Entrepreneurship. A pure social entrepreneurial activity is defined as an organization without any commercial activities, a pure commercial entrepreneurial activity is defined as an enterprise without any particular social goals, and a combined social and commercial entrepreneurial activity is defined as an organization which is both social and commercial in nature (Terjesen et al., 2009). These questions were asked on a 7-point Likert scale, and the respondent were asked to rate their opinion on the seven statements, where 1 was “completely agree” and 7 was “completely disagree”. Sample questions, scale reliability scores and descriptive statistics for the entrepreneurial motivation questions is shown in Table 4.3, section 4.1, below.

3.5. Data analysis techniques

SPSS version 22.0 was used to analyze the data. According to scoring instructions for the SDT survey a composite score and scale reliability scores was calculated for basic psychological needs (including the sub-scales of autonomy, competence and relatedness). Furthermore, composite scores and scale reliability statistics were computed for the CSR scale and the

outcome measure indicating future motivation to engage in social entrepreneurship. In order to examine hypothesis 1 and 2, Pearson's correlations were observed between the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness, attitudes about CSR, and the outcome measure of student motivations to become a social entrepreneur. In order to examine hypothesis 3 and 4 a t-test was performed to examine if students in Malaysia were more positive towards social entrepreneurship than students in the Czech Republic and possible gender differences. Because of the predicted direction of the means for the demographic data, one-tailed tests were used (Vogt, 1999). Finally, in order to address hypothesis 5, a standard linear regression was performed to examine the individual variables in the equation, followed by a stepwise regression analyses using social entrepreneurship intentions as outcome variable with home university and gender as predictor variable in step 1, followed by basic psychological needs and attitudes about CSR in step 2. The independent variables were allowed to enter the equation if they fulfilled the inclusion criterion ($p < .05$).

Validity is related to the underlings of the findings, and if they are really what they are presented to be. Six threats to validity are presented by Saunders (2009). In this study, the threat related to history is important to mention, as if a student has just attended a course in social entrepreneurship, the participants motivations to become a social entrepreneur might be higher than a person who has no previous experience or knowledge about the topic. Mortality and maturation are not considered as big threats as the study only takes place at one point in time. Testing and instrumentation have also small threat to the validity as the survey will be conducted anonymous and online. Ambiguity about casual direction might pose a small threat, but the researcher will prevent this by looking to previous studies done on the topic. In the present study the use of already established outcome measures of attitudes on social entrepreneurship (i.e. the GEM 2009 report on social entrepreneurship) and scientifically established measures of basic psychological needs i.e. Ryan and Deci (2000) contribute to strengthen the internal validity of the study.

An examination of the survey Typeform survey metrics on July 20th, 2015 showed that the survey had 212 unique visits, out of which 152 individuals responded, providing a completion rate of 72% and on average each individual used 4,22 minutes to answer the questionnaire. The web-link in the survey was valid over a 2-week period, and a reminder was sent by email to the investigated group after the first week.

A manual check of the personal codes was performed to ensure that each individual had only responded once to the web-survey. Out of the 152 unique responses, 3 were incomplete and had to be disregarded, leaving 149 valid cases for the remaining analysis. In table 3.1 the distribution of valid cases over university and gender are shown. A Chi-test revealed that the distribution of the respondents were not significant different between gender and universities, indicating that the samples are fairly comparable in size and composition.

Table 3.1 Gender distribution of respondents over countries (N=149)

	University of Economics, Prague	University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur	Total
Male	37	31	68
Female	36	45	81
Total	73	76	149

4. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This part of the thesis presents the descriptive statistics and the outcome of the statistical analysis. The data are presented in form of tables and figures, and is supported by written description. Furthermore, the hypothesis are tested and either approved or rejected. Towards the end, the limitations and suggestions for further research are discussed.

4.1. Descriptive statistics

Table 4.1 shows the mean values and standard derivation for the items included in the basic need satisfactions scale. The items are scored from a 7-point likert-scale from 1 (not at all true) to 7 (very true). The table also displays mean and standard derivation for the sub-dimensions of autonomy, competence and relatedness. The reliability scores for the sub-dimensions range from Cronbach alpha .65 to .78. The summary statistics for the total need satisfaction scale is also included with an excellent scale reliability score of .86. According to Ryan and Deci (2000) the total scale was used to index basic psychological needs in the following analysis. Table 4.1 shows that the student sample (N= 149) showed relatively high scores on the need satisfaction scale, indicating that they experienced a quite high level of autonomy and relatedness. Their score on competence were slightly lower. No gender or cross-university difference in basic need satisfaction was found in this sample.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics, basic need satisfaction including sub-dimensions

Items and sub-scales	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I feel like I am free to decide for myself how to live my life.	149	5.44	1.40
I generally feel free to express my ideas and opinions.	149	5.28	1.26
I feel like I can pretty much be myself in my daily situations.	149	5.18	1.27
Sum autonomy satisfaction (scale reliability: $\alpha = .77$)	149	5.30	1.09
People I know tell me I am good at what I do.	149	5.13	1.24
I have been able to learn interesting new skills recently.	149	5.34	1.36
Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from what I do.	149	4.67	1.36
Sum competence satisfaction (scale reliability: $\alpha = .65$)	149	5.05	1.01
I really like the people I interact with.	149	5.21	1.10
I get along with people I come into contact with.	149	5.22	1.03
I consider the people I regularly interact with to be my friends.	149	4.95	1.37
People in my life care about me.	149	5.34	1.18
People are generally pretty friendly towards me.	149	5.34	1.11
Sum relatedness satisfaction (scale reliability: $\alpha = .78$)	149	5.21	.85
Sum basic need satisfaction (scale reliability: $\alpha = .86$)	149	5.19	.83

Table 4.2 shows the mean values and standard derivation for items scored: 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree), indicating that this student sample had relatively favorable attitudes towards social corporate responsibility. Based on inter-item correlations and item-analysis, a composite measure of attitudes towards CSR was made from the three first items in Table 4.2. This summary index of CSR had an excellent reliability with Cronbach alpha of .76 and was used in the following analysis.

Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics, attitudes towards CSR

Items and sub-scales	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Companies should give some of their profits back to the community through contributing to important social or environmental projects.	149	5.61	1.52
Businesses should invest more in socially responsible activities if they want to regain public confidence lost due to the global economic crisis.	149	5.32	1.41
Social responsibility is a significant source of competitive advantage for new and growing businesses.	149	5.40	1.56
Sum attitudes towards corporate social responsibility (scale reliability: $\alpha = .76$)	149	5.44	1.23

Table 4.3 shows the mean values and standard derivation for items indicating that quite many of the students were motivated to start a business enterprise and/or social enterprise on a score from: 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree). Two summary sub-scales were created from these three items. One sub-scale includes all three items and was intended to measure general entrepreneurial motives, be it commercial or social entrepreneurship. The second index is based on two of the items and measures the motivation to involve in social entrepreneurship in the future (either purely social entrepreneurial activity, or a combined social entrepreneurial activity). Both of these indexes had excellent reliability and showed that the student sample in general was motivated to be involved in entrepreneurial activity in the future.

Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics, entrepreneurial motivations

Items and sub-scales	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I am motivated to launch a pure commercial entrepreneurial activity in the future	149	4.72	1.73
I am motivated to launch a pure social entrepreneurial activity in the future	149	4.20	1.77
I am motivated to launch a combined social and commercial entrepreneurial activity in the future	149	4.81	1.62
Sum general entrepreneurial intentions (scale reliability: $\alpha = .75$)	149	4.58	1.40
Sum social entrepreneurial intentions (scale reliability: $\alpha = .80$)	149	4.51	1.55

4.2. Testing of hypothesis 1-5

In order to test the first and second hypothesis assuming that students with higher degree of basic need satisfaction and positive attitudes towards CSR are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs a correlational analysis was used. The zero order correlations are displayed in Table 4.4 and shows that basic need satisfaction has a rather modest correlation with social entrepreneurship ($p = .07$) and a small but significant correlation with general entrepreneurial motivation ($p < .05$). In contrast to this, positive attitudes towards CSR show a strong correlation with favorable motives towards social entrepreneurship ($p < .001$) and with general entrepreneurial motivation ($p < .001$). In order to follow up on possible differences in attitudes towards CSR between the two groups students from the University of Malaya (UM: $n = 73$) and the University of Economics in Prague (VSE: $n = 73$) an independent samples t-test was used. The analysis revealed a significant difference in attitudes towards CSR with students enrolled at UM scoring higher ($M = 5.96$, $SD = .85$) compared to students from enrolled at VSE ($M = 4.90$, $SD = 1.32$); $t(147) = 5.88$, $p < .001$. Taken together, the results from the correlational analysis provide partial support to hypothesis 1 and fully supports hypothesis 2.

Table 4.4 Zero order correlations between basic need satisfaction, CSR and entrepreneurial motivation

Pearson correlations (N=149)	1.	2.	3.
1. Basic Need satisfaction	--		
2. Corporate Social Responsibility	.00	--	
3. Social Entrepreneurship motivation	.12(*)	.51***	--
4. General entrepreneurship motivation	.16*	.41***	.93***
Note: * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$ (1- tailed)			

In order to assess the third hypothesis stating that students from the University of Malaya (UM) are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs than students from the University of Economics in Prague (VSE), an independent samples t-test was used with students from VSE ($n = 73$) and UM ($n = 76$) as sub-groups. The analysis showed a significant difference in general entrepreneurial motivations with students enrolled at UM scoring higher ($M = 4.93$, $SD = .138$) compared to students enrolled at VSE ($M = 4.20$, $SD = 1.32$); $t(147) = 3.32$, $p < .001$. Furthermore, a significant difference in social entrepreneurial motivations emerged with students enrolled at UM scoring higher ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 1.42$) compared to students enrolled at VSE ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 1.51$); $t(147) = 4.42$, $p < .001$. Taken together these results supports the third hypothesis indicating that students from UM are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs than students from VSE, and in addition that they have higher entrepreneurial aspirations in general.

In order to investigate the forth hypothesis assuming that female are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs than male an independent samples t-test was used with male ($n = 68$) and female ($n = 81$) respondents as sub-groups. The first analysis showed no significant difference in general entrepreneurial motivations between male students ($M = 4.54$, $SD = 1.33$) and female students ($M = 4.60$, $sd = 1.47$); $t(147) = .26$, $p = n.s$. Furthermore, in the second analysis no significant difference in social entrepreneurial motivations between male

students ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.55$) and female students ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 1.55$); $t(147) = 1.27$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ was found. Overall, the analysis does not support the forth hypothesis indicating that female students would be more motivated to engage in social entrepreneurship than male students.

To follow up on the findings that indicates marked differences between the two groups of students, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were applied with gender and university as independent measures and entrepreneurial intentions as outcome. Both factors were treated as independent measures in a 2 (gender: male vs. female) by 2 (VSE vs. UM) factorial design. The two-way ANOVA analysis revealed no significant interaction effect of gender by university for general entrepreneurial motivations. However, the analysis revealed a borderline significant interaction effect of gender by university regarding social entrepreneurial motivations. ($F(1, 145) = 3.50$, $p = .06$); with both male ($M = 5.17$, $SD = .26$) and female ($M = 4.93$, $SD = .22$) students from UM reporting stronger motivations to become social entrepreneurs compared to male ($M = 3.64$, $SD = .24$) and female ($M = 4.31$, $SD = .24$) students from the VSE. The two-way analysis of variance presents a new outlook on the gender issue in that there is a significant gender difference in motivation to become a social entrepreneur, but there seems to be a cultural or cross-university dimension to it. Female students enrolled at UM are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs compared to male students enrolled at VSE. Thus, the forth hypothesis is partly supported. The interaction effect is shown in Figure 4.1 below.

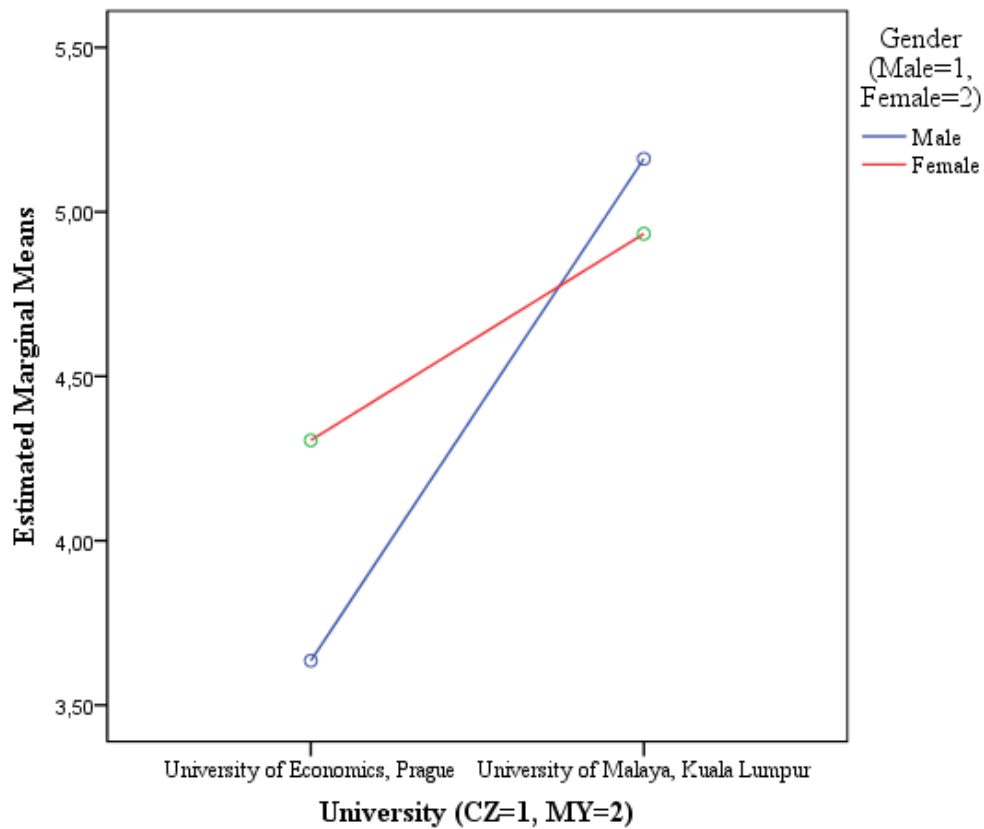


Figure 4.1 Estimated marginal means of social entrepreneurial motivations

The aim of the final analysis was to evaluate the fifth hypothesis and address the question if psychological factors in the form of basic needs and attitudes towards CSR will be a relatively stronger predictor of student's motivation to become social entrepreneurs than the demographic factors of gender and university. In this analysis social entrepreneurial activity was used as outcome variable and the dependent variables were entered in a block-wise hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The independent variables were grouped in two blocks: (1) university and gender, (2) attitudes towards CSR and basic needs satisfaction. The variables in block 1-2 were allowed to enter the equation if they fulfilled the inclusion criterion ($p < 0.5$). In the first equation a significant model emerged [$F(2, 146) = 10.17, p < .001, R^2 = .12$], with university as significant ($p < .001$) predictor variable. In the second equation, controlling for university and gender, a new significant model emerged [$F(4, 144) =$

14.95, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .17$, $p < .001$; $R^2 = .29$, $p < .001$], with university ($p < .05$), basic psychological needs ($p = .07$) and university ($p < .001$) as predictor variables. In total, 12% of the variance in the respondent's motivations to establish a social enterprise was explained by the demographic factors (i.e., university and gender), while individual differences in basic needs and attitudes towards CSR explained an additional 17%. Taken together, demographic and individual differences explained 29% of the variance in motivation to start a social enterprise; lending support to the fifth and final hypothesis. The result from the standard linear regression analysis is presented in Table 4.5 and the hierarchical regression analysis is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.5 Summary of regression analysis for variables predicting social entrepreneurship motivation (N=149)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig</i>
Constant	-0.73	0.92		-0.79	0.43
Gender	0.18	0.22	0.06	0.82	0.41
University	0.47	0.24	0.15*	1.94	0.05
Need Satisfaction	0.24	0.13	0.13(*)	1.83	0.07
Corporate Social Responsibility	0.55	0.10	0.43***	5.56	0.00
R^2		.29			
<i>F</i> for change in R^2		14.95***			

Note: Model: $F(4,144) = 14.95***$,

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4.6 Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting social entrepreneurship motivation (N=149)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Constant	2.91	0.38		-0.43	0.85	
University	0.47	0.24	.34***	0.48	0.24	0.16*
Need Satisfaction				0.23	0.13	0.12(*)
Corporate Social Responsibility				0.56	0.10	0.44***
R^2		.12			.29	
F for change in R^2		19.54***			17.65***	

Note: Model 1: $F(1,147) = 19.54***$, Model 2: $F(3, 145) = 19.76***$

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. The gender variable did not fulfill the inclusion criteria and is therefore not part of the significant model in step 1 and step 2.

4.3. Summary of research results

In summary the web-survey had relatively high response rate and with a fairly good representation of respondents across gender and university. The first hypothesis indicating that students with higher degree of autonomy, competence and relatedness need satisfaction are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs was supported, although the strength of the relationship was relatively modest. The second hypothesis stating that students, who have a positive attitude towards CSR in business, also show higher degree of social entrepreneurial motivation was accepted. The third hypothesis was also supported in that students enrolled at UM showed higher motivation to engage in entrepreneurial activity, both in social and commercial entrepreneurship. Moreover, the forth hypothesis was not accepted as the results revealed no significant gender effects in the total student sample with respect to social entrepreneurial motivations. However, a further analysis of the data revealed an interaction effect of gender by university indicating that both male and female students enrolled at UM appeared to be more motivated to launch a social entrepreneurial venue compared to students

enrolled at VSE. Taken together, the most important determining factors for social entrepreneurial motivations appears to be attitudes towards CSR and university, with basic needs satisfaction playing a minor role. Altogether these three variables explain 29% of the variance in the student's expressed social entrepreneurial motivations.

4.4. Limitations and suggestions for further research

This study presents several issues that could be followed up in future research and the most significant will be discussed in the following.

First of all, the present study was collected through an online questionnaire due to the author's distance to the sample population. The author was only able to obtain a partial complete list of students from the respective universities, thus non-probability sampling was used. This adds some limitations to the generalization of this study, and the findings may not be representative for the whole population. However, the result of the analysis shows strong correlations, which are positively contributing to the reliability of the study.

It is notable to mention that the data collection through web-survey was efficient, timely and convenient. The new web-survey tool Typeform (2015) proved to be easy to use and with an excellent user interface and a good response rate was observed. An obvious downside is that a web-survey will be limited to individuals with basic computer skills and Internet access. However, given the target population in this survey this was not a problem and in future studies of social entrepreneurs a web-survey approach could be a very efficient tool to gather responses from a larger sample.

Furthermore, this study is limited to investigate students studying business and economic related Master degrees at two specific universities. The sample is rather small, and future studies should aim to target a larger sample, and also include respondents from other universities within the two countries, and possibly also extend to include students at universities in different countries. The results from this study need to be replicated and by the use of web-survey, it should be fairly accessible to build a larger database.

Moreover, this was the first time the basic need satisfaction scale was used in relation to student's motivation to become social entrepreneurs. Although the findings show a positive

correlation, the questions were quite general. This opens for an opportunity for future studies to adapt a model specifically related to entrepreneurship motivations.

Finally, the research model (Figure 1.1) in this study is limited to only four independent factors and in future studies one should consider to include more variables that could present new and additional information about social entrepreneurship. For instance, it would be of interest to know if the respondents are aware of specific social entrepreneurship needs or if they have particular projects in mind when they respond to the questionnaire. Also, it would be of interest to learn more about what the respondents see as specific barriers or limitations and what they see as enabling and beneficial forces in their quest to become a social entrepreneur. It would also be interesting to see whether the respondents have participated in an entrepreneurship course, or if they have any relevant work-experience. Additional demographic factors could be included to investigate differences across age, religion or ethnicity.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this diploma thesis was to investigate how context and demographic factors affect student's motivations to launch a social enterprise in the future. Based on previous research, five hypotheses were developed in order to investigate whether gender, university, attitudes towards CSR and basic needs satisfaction are related to student's social entrepreneurial motivations. In this final chapter the outcome of the study are presented, and opportunities for further research is discussed.

The result from this enquiry indicates that basic need satisfaction has a relatively limited relation to student's social entrepreneurial motivations. Based on the initial review of the research literature it was somewhat surprising that the data did not fully support the first hypothesis. One reason for this may be that the questions used in this study were quite general in nature and not specifically adapted towards entrepreneurship. In Deci and Ryan (2000) application of basic need theory the questionnaire has been tailored towards different areas, for example the basic psychological needs in exercise scale, or the basic psychological needs at work scale (Self-Determination Theory, 2015a). It may seem that this may be an issue to consider in future studies of entrepreneurship motivation too. It may also be relevant to consider different approaches to measure individual needs and motives given other than the SDT approach, given that some studies suggests that entrepreneurs in developed countries are motivated by independence and self-fulfillment rather than income (Nishantha and Pathirana 2013). Along the same line a similar study done among Sri Lankan entrepreneurs showed that the factor security was the most important, followed by independence and income. Finally a comparison of Malay and Chinese commercial entrepreneurs revealed notable similarities across these developing economies in that family security was the predominant motive for entrepreneurial decisions, followed by independence and intrinsic rewards (Chong 2012).

Still, the general nature of the questions in the basic needs scale may also represent an advantage in this study since the sample is a relatively young and inexperienced student sample with quite limited experience from work-life. Therefore, the general nature of the assessment may be better suited to detect genuine individual differences in the student group than to ask them about needs or motives that is more directly related to work-life experiences.

Despite possible measurement issues, the result in this study suggests that the basic needs theory was positively related to entrepreneurship in general, and most likely also may be related to social entrepreneurship. One should however, be aware that this relationship is not strong and future studies should aim to build a larger sample in order to establish a more definite answer to this issue than it was possible to do within the constraints of a diploma thesis and a somewhat limited sample size.

In contrast, the evaluation of the second hypothesis showed that favorable attitudes towards CSR had a strong and significant relationship with social entrepreneurial motivation. Based on the review of the literature, these findings were expected, as lines have been drawn between CSR activities and social enterprises in terms of integrated economic, environmental and social aspects in business (Page & Katz, 2012). The strong correlation between attitudes towards CSR and social entrepreneurial motivations can be linked to personal values and intentional mindset. This assumption is supported by previous studies that show that both students with positive attitudes towards CSR and social entrepreneurship are more idealistic, and that altruism is as an important factor in their decision to engage in social activities (Braga et al., 2015; Moyeen & West, 2014). These findings are interesting since they seem to indicate that an indirect pathway to promote social entrepreneurial activity can be to stimulate and encourage CSR in general business ventures. This may be an interesting topic to follow up in longitudinal studies looking into the growth and development of social entrepreneurial activity from ordinary commercial enterprises.

Turning to the demographic factors, a notable and strong significant difference in social entrepreneurial motivations emerged cross-universities. In support of our third hypothesis students enrolled at UM were found to be more motivated to launch not only a social enterprise, but also in general entrepreneurial motivation in the future compared students enrolled at VSE. These findings are quite interesting, since Malaysia was found to be the country with the less prevalence of social entrepreneurial activity in the world according to the GEM 2009 Report on Social Entrepreneurship. Unfortunately, the GEM 2009 report does not allow a direct comparison to the present study since the Czech Republic was not included (Terjesen et al., 2009). Thus, the present study fills a gap in existing knowledge in this area. The initial review of the literature supports this finding, and the present level of economic development within the countries may be one of the reasons for this relatively big difference

in social entrepreneurial motivation across students enrolled at UM and VSE. Findings from Küttim et al. (2014) shows that efficiency-driven economies have higher entrepreneurial intentions than innovation-driven economies, and findings suggests that this might also be the case in regards to social entrepreneurship. In the case of Malaysia, social problems may be more visible in the society, as 1.45 million Malaysians are living in poverty (Yeoh, 2015), thus students in Malaysia may be more idealistic and feel a stronger need to do social good. Another factor may be the institutional support given to both social and commercial entrepreneurs, as the Malaysian government seem to have an increased focus on social entrepreneurship the last years (Kaos, 2015). In contrast to these findings some studies suggests that entrepreneurs in developed countries are motivated by independence and self-fulfillment rather than income (Nishantha and Pathirana 2013). A similar study done among Sri Lankan entrepreneurs shows that the factor security was the most important, followed by independence, income (extrinsic rewards) and intrinsic rewards. The reasons for these significant differences in social entrepreneurial motivations cross-university opens for further research opportunities along several lines. One obvious issue to look into would be to bring in and compare more samples of students from other European and Asian universities. Another issue to consider would be to build more representative samples to include respondents with past work-experience engagement in social entrepreneurship, charities and volunteer work to see if the differences in these two student samples still would be representative for the populations at large. For future research, it would be interesting to broaden the demographic questions to include age, nationality, religion and whether the student has participated in entrepreneurial courses at the university.

The fourth hypothesis showed no significant difference in male and female motivations towards social entrepreneurship, therefore the forth hypothesis was not accepted. However, a two-way analysis of variance presents a new outlook on the gender issue in that there is a significant gender difference in motivation to become a social entrepreneur, but there seems to be a cultural or cross-university dimension to it. Female students enrolled at UM are more motivated to become social entrepreneurs compared to male students enrolled at VSE.

This finding is quite interesting, since previous research on gender differences between male and female social entrepreneurs is not unanimous. While women are more often represented in the non-profit sector (Pomerantz, 2003), there are more male than female

commercial entrepreneurs in Europe (European Commission, 2012). However SELUSI (2015) found that the gap between male and female in social entrepreneurship is lower than the gap in commercial entrepreneurship. The results from this study indicates that this might well be the case within the same national context, but that there may still be significant differences over cultures. The findings of this study may imply that within the same university and national culture, male and female students are equally motivated to launch a social enterprise. Despite being equally well motivated as students, national statistics seems to indicate that men are more likely to follow through and reach the goal of launching a social or a commercial enterprise. This gender gap between the student sample and actual social entrepreneurs may be caused by several reasons. This could be explained by family tradition, and traditionally women have more responsibilities in relation to the upbringing of children, and the household (Idris, 2009). Another reason could be the uncertainty and personal risks associated with entrepreneurial work (uncertainty avoidance) and the lack of institutional support for women who wishes to engage in social entrepreneurial activity (Idris, 2011). The findings of this study show that male and female are equally motivated to become social entrepreneurs during studies, but measures should be put in place in order to increase the number of actual female social entrepreneurs. Institutional support functions such as access to kindergartens and childcare, practical training, start-up grants and capital especially allocated for female entrepreneurs may increase social entrepreneurial activity among women.

According to hypotheses five social entrepreneurship can be viewed as a process resulting from the continuous interaction between individual differences in need satisfaction and attitudes towards CSR on one hand and demographic factors associated with their gender and societal context in which they and their activities are embedded. Thus, to understand the motivational processes of social entrepreneurship one need to take a multidisiplinary approach and to recognize historical, cultural, economic, legal and sociological/ psychological factors that combines into successful entrepreneurial initiatives. In the previous discussion of gender differences in entrepreneurship, one emerging issue is that although many prospective social entrepreneurs recognize potential business opportunities in their societies, they may lack the capital, technology or knowledge needed to start a successful enterprise. On the other hand, the business opportunities and structural factors may be perfectly aligned, but individual lacks personal qualifications or social capital to start a social entrepreneurial enterprise. The

relational dimension of social capital focuses on the quality of relationships, such as trust, respect and friendliness. Social capital is a cornerstone in social entrepreneurial activity. There is growing evidence that when trust is built up between parties, they are more eager to engage in cooperative activity, through which further trust and social exchange may be generated (Fukuyama, 1995).

The results from the present study emphasize that it is needed to take a trans-disciplinary outlook on social entrepreneurship motives in that both cross-university differences and personal attitudes and needs seems to work in concert to fuel individual motivations to become a social entrepreneur. It is a remarkable discovery that almost 30% of the variation in motivation could mostly be explained by the three independent factors of university association, basic needs and attitudes towards CSR. If the aim of future government policy is to increase social entrepreneurship activities these findings may provide some direction for future policy initiatives such as increasing social entrepreneurial education or financial support systems.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Please answer the following question about yourself
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Your gender2. Your University3. Your Field of Study
Please read each of the following items carefully thinking about how it relates to your life and then indicate how true it is for you
<ol style="list-style-type: none">4. I feel like I am free to decide for myself how to live my life5. People I know tell me I am good at what I do6. I really like the people I interact with.7. I get along with people I come into contact with.8. I generally feel free to express my ideas and opinions.9. I consider the people I regularly interact with to be my friends.10. I have been able to learn interesting new skills recently.11. People in my life care about me.12. Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from what I do.13. I feel like I can pretty much be myself in my daily situations.14. People are generally pretty friendly towards me.
Express your opinion on the following statements
<ol style="list-style-type: none">15. Companies should give some of their profits back to the community through contributing to important social or environmental projects.16. Businesses should invest more in socially responsible activities if they want to regain public confidence lost due to the global economic crisis.17. Social responsibility is a significant source of competitive advantage for new and growing businesses.
Rate your motivation for launching your own business
<ol style="list-style-type: none">18. I am motivated to launch a pure commercial entrepreneurial activity in the future <i>(A pure commercial entrepreneurial activity is defined as an enterprise without any particular social goals)</i>19. I am motivated to launch a pure social entrepreneurial activity in the future <i>(A pure social entrepreneurial activity is defined as an organization without any commercial activities)</i>20. I am motivated to launch a combined social and commercial entrepreneurial activity in the future <i>(A social and commercial entrepreneurial activity is defined as an organization which is both social and commercial in nature.)</i>

Question 1-3 were multiple choice while question 4-20 were 7-point likert scale.

Appendix 2: Continuation, spreadsheet of (raw) data collection result

#	GEN	UNI	STUDY	AU1	CO1	REL1	REL2	AU2	REL3	COM2	REL4	COM3	AU3	RELS	CSR1	CSR2	CSR3	ENTR	S.ENTR	COM.ENTR	Start Date	(Submit Dat	Network ID
81b15c186f	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 7	7	6	6	7	5	4	5	5	5	5	6	6	7	5	3	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	82a7feedbf	
ab06073525f	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 7	5	5	5	4	7	5	5	4	7	7	6	5	7	4	5	7	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	dca67ed38a	
240efe14ec	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 7	5	7	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	47a1fa2000	
345bb2b05	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Economit 2	7	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	3	3	4	7	3	4	5	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	f7c7ae880b	
e41442470	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Engineeri 4	3	4	4	3	5	3	3	2	3	4	5	6	6	5	3	4	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	80ad25e866	
9e7ff12cfd	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 5	6	6	5	4	5	3	6	3	4	5	4	5	6	6	6	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	be5e4d4d37	
1e7ee1042	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 4	5	6	6	6	5	4	5	4	6	4	4	6	5	4	5	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	f796515de9	
0fdcf56a5	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Economit 6	4	7	5	4	6	5	7	6	5	6	5	5	6	2	2	2	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	89a2c77fda	
b825747a7	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business 6	6	6	7	5	7	6	6	4	6	5	4	3	3	5	2	4	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	b7e8be5726	
b42b96fa1	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Economit 6	4	6	5	6	4	5	5	4	6	6	4	6	6	4	5	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	7c2e69160d	
b54e36adb	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 3	2	4	2	3	1	5	5	6	3	6	7	7	6	6	6	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	72bfdfafb	
6416aa304	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 3	4	5	5	5	6	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	75523e9777	
b5b88c59d	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 7	6	4	5	7	3	5	6	5	6	6	7	6	6	2	2	2	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	1c743b1cdd	
7f1582c404	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 6	3	4	4	6	3	5	5	4	5	6	6	6	7	5	7	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	0515f4cd15e	
8139efb15	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	6	6	6	6	7	7	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	f2494800e7	
64fa54126e	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Economit 7	7	7	6	7	4	6	7	6	7	6	2	2	6	7	7	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	f2494800e7	
17c0fd5004	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Economit 6	5	7	6	4	5	6	6	6	6	5	6	5	6	7	2	3	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	2394f5422b	
2d07afcc68	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business 4	6	3	4	6	5	2	3	6	6	6	2	7	3	4	5	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	61b3491096	
20f010f662	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business 6	4	5	5	4	3	5	4	3	6	5	7	5	4	4	4	4	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	ed07ad6db2	
40d4f298af	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 3	3	6	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	7	6	6	5	5	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	048578ed9e	
e20ca437c8	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 7	6	6	4	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	7	6	6	4	4	7	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	d455603848	
dc49753aaf	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 7	6	5	6	7	5	4	6	5	5	6	7	5	7	4	7	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	82a7feedbf	
2bfc2cafc5f	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 6	5	5	7	4	6	5	6	6	5	6	5	4	6	5	6	4	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	1967fdb5c2	
d27d9265b	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 4	4	5	5	6	5	6	5	5	5	3	5	7	6	4	4	4	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	eeaf637df3	
e2bb2826d	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business 7	6	6	7	3	6	5	5	6	6	6	5	2	6	3	1	1	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	0fce60e9c6	
e856be458	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business 7	6	5	5	5	3	6	5	6	6	5	5	4	6	7	4	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	f656d6bbb9	
5c43e6944	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business 5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	6	3	6	7	2	2	2	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	a3d62abd5b	
0106e8753	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business 7	5	6	5	6	6	6	5	6	6	5	4	4	4	6	2	3	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	7daed850ca	
1fd67a161	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Economit 5	7	7	7	7	5	7	7	7	7	7	7	4	2	7	7	1	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	971cb89dd5	
7bf9a5380	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Economit 4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	06f406e92a	
14e3ff1895	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 6	6	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	853cba955c	
43c1d68fc4	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Economit 6	4	7	6	5	7	6	5	6	7	6	7	5	7	4	7	5	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	f401c4d035	
0221f69a4f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Economit 7	4	6	5	6	5	5	5	5	5	6	5	7	6	6	4	3	2015-07-05	2015-07-05	9d87a09dc6	
2f79f5d50	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 7	7	4	6	5	6	5	5	6	6	6	7	3	4	1	4	4	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	65109b9aa7	
fb1fde114c	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 7	5	6	7	7	3	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	7976154f25	
830cb74d2	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 6	5	5	6	6	5	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	c29f82db3d	
ed7398789	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Economit 6	6	4	5	7	4	5	6	5	5	5	7	4	5	2	4	7	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	9271d61cdf	
6df5a33fb5	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Economit 3	5	5	6	4	5	6	6	4	6	6	7	6	6	2	4	7	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	8e37a5ab39	
735eddb9cf	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 5	6	5	4	5	6	5	5	5	4	4	7	5	7	2	4	6	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	516d9dc3ec	
9a36846a3	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Economit 7	7	5	5	5	4	6	5	5	6	6	6	6	4	5	5	5	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	6f5dbcf3c1	
0f90ee836f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum	Business 6	5	6	6	7	6	6	4	4	5	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	1f96d440b1	

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Appendix 4: Continuation, spreadsheet of (raw) data collection result

4d070acba4	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	4	4	4	7	7	7	7	4	7	7	4	1	1	1	7	1	1	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	daf06caa6b
fdca7ab8c	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	6	6	6	4	4	4	4	5	5	6	6	2	2	2	6	2	4	2015-07-06	2015-07-06	179c84702
2f7795c8a7	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 3	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	7	4	5	3	3	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	98831b3fef
7fde81e62f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 1	4	5	4	3	5	3	3	3	4	4	4	7	7	7	4	4	7	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	b78e329fee
313c92135f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 2	4	4	6	4	3	7	2	2	2	2	4	7	7	7	6	6	6	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	4f312e457c
7d4b7ab81	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 4	4	5	5	5	6	3	6	5	6	6	7	7	7	5	3	3	6	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	0b9f318008
d375dd232	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 6	6	4	5	6	5	6	3	5	5	4	6	7	7	6	2	6	6	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	0c442ce9fe
b1a8cfdcef	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 6	7	6	6	5	3	7	6	5	5	7	7	4	3	3	4	5	5	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	eb4bad86c6
b1c4c6fee2	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 7	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	3	3	3	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	2639d6690d
4170063c3f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 5	5	4	5	3	5	5	5	6	4	4	4	6	4	4	5	5	5	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	e2e3b610de
5741cbc54f	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	5	6	6	6	6	3	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	5	5	5	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	6090b424f0
fb5e7a20fa	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 6	5	7	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	3	6	3	7	7	7	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	d06c76565b
5fbd8d99fc	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	4	3	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	3	4	5	4	5	3	3	3	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	4df2647e0f
208cecc2f	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	4	6	4	6	5	3	5	3	6	5	4	5	6	6	7	5	5	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	6c4a3e03ea
da836cc32f	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 4	2	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	3	3	3	7	6	7	4	4	5	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	b9f9348d9b
0d458f7b8f	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	5	6	5	5	6	5	6	5	6	5	6	7	5	6	6	6	4	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	baa869f5a1
bc5e71526	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	7	6	6	7	7	5	6	4	5	6	5	5	1	5	2	4	4	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	69ab6b95bd
bcee71500	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 6	5	5	5	7	2	2	7	4	5	6	4	4	5	6	5	3	3	2015-07-07	2015-07-07	aa0827ac47
146ea24c7f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 7	7	7	4	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	902573e7bf
84bb907cd	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 6	6	6	6	5	6	6	6	6	4	6	6	7	6	6	6	6	6	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	188c225fe7
1dec785fe	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 5	4	6	5	4	4	4	4	5	2	4	6	5	6	6	2	2	2	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	6e7685ea21
3935c9e98	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 6	6	4	4	5	4	5	6	4	4	5	6	5	5	3	4	3	3	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	12ceecb68
f802eaa62f	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 5	6	6	6	5	7	6	4	5	6	7	4	5	6	6	2	6	6	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	76248097e6
d5becebfdf	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	6	4	7	5	3	5	6	5	6	5	6	4	6	4	6	2	4	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	7ef91610da
2db384d30	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 6	5	6	4	3	5	7	4	5	5	4	5	4	3	5	5	1	5	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	91a998a10d
97d71b5ed	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 5	6	6	4	5	6	7	6	3	6	6	7	4	5	6	4	4	5	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	e58925b13a
941b4e703	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	6	4	5	6	7	7	6	3	6	6	6	7	4	5	7	7	7	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	7c9cbcccd
d798cf9db7	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	5	6	6	5	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	6	2	6	4	5	6	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	68da609e98
b28e1d0dd	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	6	6	6	6	6	7	5	6	6	6	6	4	5	5	6	4	6	2015-07-08	2015-07-08	6c2bde17af
dc5cc4532f	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	4	6	6	7	6	5	5	5	7	5	5	5	6	3	4	5	5	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	5665b214f1
26632b18e	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	4	5	5	5	7	4	5	4	5	6	5	6	7	6	5	5	5	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	9c3166d439
c54e203c0f	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 7	6	5	5	4	4	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	7	4	4	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	1c15a821c5
d17db0a60	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	5	5	5	4	3	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	3	4	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	2bc095734c
664f3fea12	Female	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	7	7	6	6	6	5	7	6	5	7	7	4	6	4	4	4	4	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	fede65d57c
acbab3c62f	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 7	4	4	3	7	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	7	7	7	7	4	4	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	1f96d4d0b1
37545df01f	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 5	6	6	6	5	6	4	5	7	4	6	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	024831752e
9c7b2e3b0	Male	University of Economics, Prague Business 5	6	6	6	7	4	6	4	5	7	6	7	7	7	7	1	6	7	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	7ee4910fbc
e55e461a3	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 6	4	5	5	5	6	6	5	5	6	4	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	2015-07-09	2015-07-09	276242cde8
f4cc4e5bf3	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 3	4	5	4	5	5	3	4	4	3	4	4	6	6	6	3	3	4	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	cd009d40c7
627f08190c	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	6	5	5	7	7	7	7	6	6	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	10393e3df29d
b74f0e35f1	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 7	7	4	4	6	3	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	22d029c877
e4106b76ff	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 5	5	5	5	6	4	6	4	6	5	5	5	7	7	7	7	1	5	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	d8fb784d61
5b65657f6c	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lum Business 5	7	6	6	6	6	6	4	5	3	5	6	7	6	6	6	6	6	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	1090cbe23fe8

Appendix 5: Continuation, spreadsheet of (raw) data collection result

cbdf13c9a0	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Economic7	6	6	6	6	5	6	7	7	7	7	5	7	5	7	5	3	5	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	e58ea32d8f	
f9b9b03bdf	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Business7	7	5	6	5	7	7	7	7	6	6	5	5	5	5	2	1	2	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	d2665f0de3	
d0e90de7c	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Business7	6	7	7	7	7	7	5	7	7	7	2	7	2	7	7	3	4	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	42401bf3e9	
9ffc995e2	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Economic5	4	5	4	6	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	4	5	2	5	5	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	b384aa81b4	
3430bb9e4	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Business4	5	3	5	6	5	7	2	3	4	4	4	7	7	7	7	7	7	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	107581fa4f	
dbee7c0c	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Economic5	6	5	5	6	5	7	6	5	6	6	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	5680e9be11	
58b9570da	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Economic6	6	6	7	7	4	6	7	7	7	7	6	3	7	4	3	3	3	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	956932002b	
eaee91972	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Economic4	7	6	7	6	6	7	7	7	5	6	7	7	7	7	4	4	4	2015-07-10	2015-07-10	5d3e0e74ed	
9c289c649f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Business4	4	3	5	4	4	5	6	5	5	6	5	6	5	6	6	6	6	2015-07-11	2015-07-11	690c9b88b2	
6091e7c1d	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business5	4	4	6	6	3	7	6	4	6	7	7	6	6	4	2	5	5	2015-07-11	2015-07-11	506ab30db2	
9ba9d1a1	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Business6	6	4	6	7	3	7	6	6	6	5	5	7	7	6	7	7	7	2015-07-11	2015-07-11	6a672e4af2	
69608f309	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Business5	5	6	5	6	6	5	6	6	6	6	5	7	5	7	5	6	7	2015-07-12	2015-07-12	c9d27b23b7	
c8e7eb6aff	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Business7	6	6	5	7	6	6	6	5	6	6	7	5	7	4	4	4	4	2015-07-13	2015-07-13	ef6e9faaab	
9ddca418f	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Economic6	6	4	4	5	3	3	6	6	6	4	4	7	6	6	4	4	4	2015-07-13	2015-07-13	3847d8e8c2	
4ff993526a	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business6	5	4	6	4	2	7	6	3	4	4	4	6	6	6	3	4	4	2015-07-13	2015-07-13	64fa7f9257	
6c06dfe30	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Economic2	3	6	7	2	7	5	3	1	5	6	5	5	6	5	4	6	6	2015-07-14	2015-07-14	5ee7aff6f	
0a5741dc4	Female	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Economic5	4	4	4	4	3	5	5	5	4	3	6	5	5	4	4	4	4	2015-07-14	2015-07-14	1018d5c60c	
d30f473c6e	Male	University of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur	Business2	3	5	5	4	6	6	4	5	5	5	5	7	7	6	3	4	4	2015-07-14	2015-07-14	9577c71565	
385d2e7c3	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business5	6	6	6	4	6	6	7	5	5	7	6	4	5	6	3	4	4	2015-07-14	2015-07-14	680ab99506	
35a388d66	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business5	5	4	6	6	4	3	6	4	6	6	3	5	2	6	4	4	4	2015-07-15	2015-07-15	a7913e1d27	
e06673e71	Male	University of Economics, Prague	Business5	7	5	6	6	4	7	6	4	4	6	7	6	7	6	7	3	5	4	2015-07-17	2015-07-17	9cfa6080c8
a9c9e7d9b1	Female	University of Economics, Prague	Economic1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2015-07-18	2015-07-18	a4501f97b0	