ISSN 1816-6075 (Print), 1818-0523 (Online) Journal of System and Management Sciences Vol. 13 (2023) No. 5, pp. 61-87 DOI:10.33168/JSMS.2023.0505

Determinacy of Social Awareness and Cosmopolitanism Towards Female Students' Social Entrepreneurship Intention

Atikah Mohd Zulkifle¹, Kamarulzaman Ab Aziz²

¹Faculty of Management, Multimedia University, Cyberjaya 63100, Selangor ²Faculty of Business, Multimedia University, 75450 Bukit Beruang, Melaka

kamarulzaman.aziz@mmu.edu.my

Abstract. The declining female workforce participation in Malaysia, despite the increase in female graduates, has emerged as a worrisome trend. Recent reports from the Department of Statistics Malaysia (DoSM) indicate that a significant proportion of unemployed graduates in 2022 were women, accounting for 54.2% of the total. This gender disparity in the workforce poses obstacles to female participation in nation-building and impedes economic growth. To tackle this issue, it is essential to explore the determinants of social entrepreneurship intention (SEI) among female students in Malaysian higher learning institutions, considering the potential of entrepreneurship, particularly social entrepreneurship, in addressing unemployment. This study aims to investigate the influence of social awareness and cosmopolitanism on SEI among female students, utilizing the model proposed by Hockerts (2017) and employing regression analysis on a sample of 273 respondents. The results highlight the significant impact of social awareness and cosmopolitanism on SEI among female graduates in Malaysia. Moreover, the findings underscore the substantial roles played by self-efficacy and perceived social support in fostering SEI. To further examine the results, crosstabulation is employed. These findings hold significant implications for policies and programs aimed at encouraging and nurturing female graduates to actively contribute to the nation's development through social entrepreneurship. By addressing the gender gap in the workforce, promoting economic growth, and enhancing social welfare, these initiatives can foster a more inclusive and prosperous society.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship, intention, social awareness, cosmopolitanism, women

1. Introduction

Given its ability to generate innovations, create job opportunities and the development of engines of economic growth, entrepreneurship has been acknowledged as a key intervention in developing nations to alleviate poverty (Baron and Shane 2008). Additionally, entrepreneurship is also recognized as an important strategy for empowering and developing youth. According to Jilenga (2017), entrepreneurship is not limited to profit-making business, although profit is necessary for a long-term business, profit is not always the main objective. Entrepreneurs can benefit the community and address social issues while also making a profit. This explains the recent emergence of social entrepreneurship as a new social innovation mechanism.

According to Okpara & Halkias (2011), the concept of solving social problems has been around for decades. Thousands of lives have been transformed through interventions focused on the disadvantaged and oppressed. Social entrepreneurship has attracted much interest from various political parties, financial institutions, and non-governmental organizations. Social entrepreneurs are known for creating effective and efficient solutions to complex social problems (Johnson, 2000). It is suggested that social entrepreneurship addresses social problems overlooked by the public, the corporate sector, non-governmental groups, and governments, such as inequalities in access to education, clean water, human rights, and other issues (Abeysekera, 2019).

When the Malaysian Social Enterprise Blueprint was released in 2015, it caught people's attention with the idea of social entrepreneurship. A three-year plan called the Malaysian Social Enterprise Blueprint lays out key initiatives enabling the sector to proliferate. The plan highlights three critical thrusts: in 2015, it is about inspiring a movement; in 2016, it is about creating an enabling ecosystem; and in 2017, it is about creating systemic change. In the blueprint, the strategy has three main goals: to inspire a movement in 2015, to build an enabling ecosystem in 2016, and to effect systemic change in 2017. Three sectors will be built to make the three-year plan successful, namely social enterprise and social entrepreneurship, a broader ecosystem, and institutions with both public and private actors. In addition, Magic Social Enterprise received RM20 million in funding from the previous government to support social entrepreneurs. By 2018, the previous government aimed to reach at least 1000 social enterprises. However, by the second quarter of 2022, the number of social enterprises was 414, which did not meet the target set by the Malaysian Social Entrepreneurship Blueprint 2015.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (https://www.gemconsortium.org/) traced country data on l) the percentage of female 18-64 population who are either nascent entrepreneurs or owner-manager of a 'new business', divided by the equivalent percentage for their male counterparts, ll) the percentage of those females involved in Total Early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) who (i) claim to be driven by opportunity as opposed to finding no other option for work; and (ii) who indicate the main driver for being involved in this opportunity is being independent or increasing their income, rather than just maintaining their income, divided by the equivalent percentage for their male counterparts. The following figure presents the data available for Malaysia. The data available indicated there are differences according to gender and for TEA the trend was decreasing for the most recent 4 years. Meanwhile, the second indicator showed that opportunity reasons seem to be more important for females. This raises the question of what factors influence a female's intention to take the entrepreneurship path generally and to become a social entrepreneur specifically.

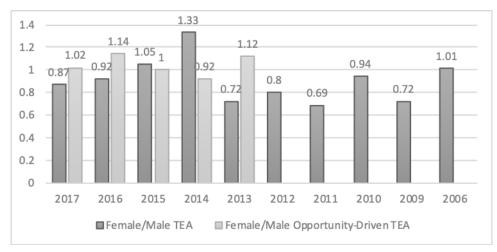


Fig. 1: Malaysia Female/Male TEA Data

Azuar (2022) reported that more women in Malaysia are enrolling in tertiary education outnumbering their male counterparts. However, more than half (54.2%) of the graduates' unemployment rate in the country is the female graduates. According to Syed Salleh and Mansor (2022) the low participation rate for female graduates is due to their struggle towards achieving work-life balance and suggested better provision of childcare services from the government. The participation rate is significantly lower than the neighboring nations; Singapore and Thailand. Thus, this study suggests that social entrepreneurship can be a viable solution to the problem observed, since 1) entrepreneurship might be a more attractive option than employment for female graduates seeking better control on determining their work-life balance, 11) social entrepreneurship can be seen as being more in line with the nurturing nature of the fairer gender.

According to the Thomas Reuters Foundation Poll 2016 & 2019, the Women's Survey shows where women perform best as social entrepreneurs. Women's participation in leadership roles in social enterprises and the gender pay gap are two factors considered for this ranking. The Thomas Reuters Foundation 2016 & 2019 survey found that Malaysia ranked 5th out of 44 countries worldwide as a top location for women social entrepreneurs. According to The State of Social Enterprise in South East Asia 2021, women are significantly more likely to lead social enterprises than in the general business sector. Singapore and Malaysia had high percentages of women in leadership positions at 56.1% and 54.5%, respectively. The Hay Group report shows that 45% of women are more likely than men to show empathy and outperform men in adaptability, teamwork, and inspirational leadership. Women entrepreneurs use different strategies when starting a business at different stages. In the initial stages of motivation and opportunity identification, they tend to use a more cause-oriented strategy. According to a cross-case analysis, women entrepreneurs start their businesses based on specific problems they have encountered, either personally or professionally, suggesting the causation strategy. In the opportunity assessment and formalization stages, women entrepreneurs tend to use the effectuation strategy. This could result from institutional gaps, lack of expertise/resources, and high levels of uncertainty in the BoP environment, which encourage women entrepreneurs to experiment with available resources and adhere to the principle of justifiable loss. In contrast to the product development phase, most of this experimentation takes place in identifying revenue sources and distribution channels. In the latter stages of development, such as scaling up the business through partnerships, a combination of cause-and-effect strategies was demonstrated. Social issues directly affecting the female population are more likely to inspire female social entrepreneurs. This may be related to their empathetic feminist characteristics (Rosca et al., 2020). A study on women entrepreneurs in the Middle East highlighted that external, internal, socio-culture and financial factors affect their development (Altarawneh & Ahmad Albloush, 2023).

In April 2022, the Malaysian government launched the Malaysia Social Entrepreneurship Blueprint 2030 (SEMy2030), a comprehensive plan for how Malaysia can embrace social innovation and develop its social entrepreneurship agenda by the year 2030. With the broad goal of having 5,000 social entrepreneurs by 2025 and 10,000 by 2030, the strategy focuses primarily on fostering a national ecosystem centred on new social entrepreneurs. SEMy2030 outlines strategies to promote the development and competitiveness of social enterprises by improving awareness, market, skills, and competence through training on technology adaptation and digitalization, market access, and access to finance. This can be seen as affirmation of the political will towards the social entrepreneurship agenda. The uptake among the nation's youth, especially college graduates, is critical to the agenda's success. This is due to graduates' knowledge, experience, and commitment that will likely enable them to develop effective and innovative solutions. Driving participation amongst female graduates will address the gender gap in the workforce and increase their contribution to the nation's development. Therefore, understanding the dynamics that influence SEI among the female graduates is critical. The study aims to investigate the factors influencing female students' intention to pursue entrepreneurship with a specific focus on social entrepreneurship in Malaysia. The findings will provide valuable insights such as the policies and initiatives aimed at promoting social entrepreneurship and empowering female graduates in Malaysia.

The existing literature on social entrepreneurship intention has evolved from the framework initially formulated by Mair and Noboa (2006). Hockerts (2017) expanded upon their model by replacing moral judgment with moral obligation and adding prior experience with social organizations as an antecedent. This study further adapted the model by substituting moral obligation with social awareness as a proxy for social norms and incorporating cosmopolitanism as a factor. Despite these advancements, there are still gaps in the literature. Firstly, there is a need to explore the role of other antecedents or factors that may influence social entrepreneurship intention. Additionally, the specific mechanisms through which social awareness and cosmopolitanism impact social entrepreneurship intention require further investigation. Moreover, more research is needed to understand the contextual and cultural influences on the relationships between these variables. Lastly, the long-term outcomes and impact of social entrepreneurship, particularly in relation to social awareness and cosmopolitanism, warrant further exploration. Addressing these gaps will contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the determinants and implications of social entrepreneurship intention.

2. Literature Review

There will be three elements that will be discussed in this section, namely, Social Entrepreneurship, Social Awareness, and Cosmopolitanism.

2.1. Social Entrepreneurship

In their 2006 book on social entrepreneurship, Mair, Robinson, and Hockerts present the social entrepreneurship intention model. Robinson (2006) explores the opportunities associated with social entrepreneurship, while Mair and Noboa (2006) focus on the intention aspect. Mair and Noboa (2006) propose a new concept for determining whether entrepreneurs will start a social enterprise, drawing from intention formation literature in entrepreneurship and incorporating social psychology theories. The objective of social entrepreneurship is to create both social and economic value, driven by emotional and cognitive attitudes that social entrepreneurs perceive social enterprises as desirable (Mair & Noboa, 2006). Social entrepreneurs exhibit high self-efficacy in social entrepreneurship and a heightened awareness of their potential to establish a social enterprise.

Three factors explain the emergence of social enterprise. First, there is a strong interest in resolving social issues. It has led to the continuous innovative and sustainable solutions to challenging social issues (Santos 2009) and liberate communities from struggles (Thompson et al. 2000). For instance, unemployment, inequality in health care and access to education (Catford 1998), poverty, crime, and

exclusion from society (Blackburn and Ram 2006). However, it was perceived that the public sector had failed to address the problems effectively, but at the same time, the private sector appeared uninterested in taking on the responsibilities more actively (Darby and Jenkins 2006). Third, the rise of social capital globally has been facilitated by business leaders in the social sector (Shaker et al. 2008) and created wealth for society (Wallace 1999). Subsequently, Perrini and Vurro (2006) concluded that social enterprises, private, public, and voluntary philanthropic or social activities overlap. However, social enterprises are seen as more sensitive to the needs of the most disadvantaged segments of society than traditional non-profit organizations, which place emphasis on donation or charity.

According to Nicholls and Cho (2006), the concept of social entrepreneurship in the geographic region is diverse. According to Kerlin (2006), these variances result from the many factors that model and reinforce the territory in each location. Studies also have highlighted a number of best practices, such as the Szimbiózis Foundation in Hungary (Lipták et al. 2022), Masala Wheels, Project B, and Pit Stop Community Café in Malaysia (Wong Abdullah et al. 2022).

Furthermore, Kickul and Lyons (2012) discuss the concept of social entrepreneurship and explore the role of mission in the pursuit of social goals. Mair and Marti (2006) provide a review of social entrepreneurship research and suggest that it can contribute to our understanding of social change. Dees (1998b) offers a definition of social entrepreneurship and discusses the role of social entrepreneurs in addressing social problems. The paper by Austin et. al. (2020) provides a comprehensive overview of the similarities and differences between social and commercial entrepreneurship and proposes a framework for understanding the hybridity of social enterprises. Another paper examines how social entrepreneurs are using emerging technologies such as artificial intelligence and blockchain to address social and environmental challenges (Ratten & Jones, 2021). Earlier, Mair and Marti (2006) argued for the importance of studying social entrepreneurship as a distinct field of research, highlighting its potential to address social and environmental challenges. Furthermore, the importance of universities in developing social entrepreneurship in Nigeria, emphasizing the importance of creating an enabling environment for social entrepreneurship education.

The earliest work to propose a specific model for social entrepreneurship intention was by Mair and Noboa (2016). The model was proposed based on earlier works explaining entrepreneurial intention (Shapero and Sokol 1982; Krueger 1993; Krueger and Brazeal 1994; Krueger et al. 2000), all of which can be seen to be supported by the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen 1991). Specifically, Mair and Noboa (2006) proposed the following four determinants for SE intention: Empathy, Moral Obligation, Self-Efficacy, and Perceived Social Support. Next, based on the model by Mair and Noboa (2006), Hockerts (2017) offered his model by including "Prior Experience with Social Organizations" as a new determinant for SE intention.

Specifically, Hockerts (2017) proposed experience with the types of issues that social entrepreneurs strive to solve as a catalyst for behavioral intention. Additionally, the variables suggested by Mair and Noboa (2006) were adapted as mediators to the relationship between experience and intention. His model also suggested that having access to and participation in social organizations also promotes the formation of social entrepreneurship intention.

2.2. Social Awareness

Research on community collaboration has emphasized the importance of social and human-related issues, such as social awareness (Steinfield, Jang, Pfaff, 1999; Prinz, 1999; Tollmar, Sandor, Schömer, 1996; Schmidt, 2002). The concept of awareness is multifaceted and can be understood in different ways. It has been identified that there are two distinct types: social awareness and task-oriented awareness. Social awareness refers to the awareness and behaviors of individuals in a shared environment (Prinz, 1999). Prasolova-Førland (2004) further elaborates that social awareness entails an understanding of a community's social situation within a shared environment, which can encompass

physical, virtual, or hybrid spaces. Social awareness encompasses the ability to recognize and empathize with individuals from diverse backgrounds and cultures (Huynh, 2018). Social awareness entails a range of skills, including assessing differences, understanding perspectives, demonstrating care and compassion, and empathizing with others' emotions (Beamish & Bryer, 2015). It also involves individual adaptability, behavior modification, and situational responsiveness (Davidson, 2011). Understanding global issues and empathizing with people in different circumstances is a crucial aspect of social awareness (Bruce, 2010). Awareness of others plays a significant role in navigating multicultural contexts (Jones, Greenberg & Crowley, 2015). Responsible decision-making involves making rational judgments based on ethical and social norms, respecting others, assessing risks, and taking personal responsibility (Durlak, Domitrovich, Weissberg, & Gulotta, 2015). Decision-making competence encompasses accurate situational analysis, positive problem-solving, self-reflection, adherence to social and moral values (Kress & Elias, 2006; Beamish & Bryer, 2015). Female students tend to exhibit greater understanding of others compared to male students, and the depth of students' understanding corresponds to the level of responsibility they assume in decision-making (Huynh, 2018).

Based on the points discussed, it is evident that social awareness can be a significant factor influencing the development of social entrepreneurship intention in individuals. Social awareness serves as an alternative perspective to moral obligation, as proposed by Hockerts (2017), in understanding the motivations and drivers behind social entrepreneurial endeavours. By cultivating social awareness, individuals become more attuned to the needs and challenges of their communities and are more likely to be inspired to create social impact through entrepreneurship.

2.3. Cosmopolitanism

Baldry (1965) defines cosmopolitanism as a mindset centered around the unity of humanity and individuals' attitudes towards culture, focusing on the transformative nature of social interactions rather than specific forms. It encompasses the movement of people across cultural and social contexts. Cosmopolitan identity is particularly relevant in situations involving cultural transgression, capturing the notion that individuals with such an identity can navigate different cultural settings without feeling disoriented. However, historically, individuals with high cultural, social, and economic capital have monopolized this ability to be "cosmopolitan." Cosmopolitanism is often regarded as a perspective, emphasizing the willingness to engage with people from diverse cultures and the capacity to understand foreign cultures. Cosmopolitans serve as bridges to unique cultural experiences from various regions (Hannerz, 1990 and 1992).

According to Douzinas (2007), cosmopolitanism represents an identity characterized by an individual's departure from a specific spatiotemporal context towards a broader, more interconnected world. It is built on the principles of diversity, values, and equality. Cosmopolitan entrepreneurs exhibit a consistent attitude, behavior, and high adaptability as they travel and migrate across different regions, benefiting from favorable business environments. Despite variations in educational and cultural backgrounds, they share common characteristics in how they manage their businesses. A key aspect of cosmopolitanism is the acceptance and embrace of global environmentalism, human rights, aesthetics, consumption, and social diversity (Woodward, Skrbis, & Bean, 2008). It encompasses a set of values, attitudes, behaviors, and practices that foster societal openness to entrepreneurship (Kendall, Woodward, & Skrbis, 2009). Additionally, cosmopolitan individuals, due to their orientation and propensity to learn from others, are likely to assess threats, opportunities, and effective management strategies in a similar manner (Honig, Drori, & Carmichael, 2010). Moreover, cosmopolitan values promote social integration and tolerance (Honig et al., 2010).

Cosmopolitanism plays a crucial role in fostering openness, innovation, and attracting talent, connections, and financial resources from around the world. It has emerged as a significant driver of economic growth, complemented by government policies promoting free enterprise, international trade, entrepreneurship support, and advancements in education (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2019). The

cosmopolitan perspective has proven instrumental in stimulating economic progress and innovation by leveraging global networks and drawing upon diverse talent, ideas, and technologies. This outlook has particularly influenced entrepreneurship, which has been an active component of economic development enhanced by cosmopolitanism. Entrepreneurs, recognizing the widening wealth gap between different segments of society, have embraced a socially oriented mission, using their businesses as vehicles for addressing social inequalities. As a result, cosmopolitanism has indirectly fueled the rise of social entrepreneurship (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2021).

Based on the points discussed, it is evident that cosmopolitanism can indeed be a factor that influences the development of social entrepreneurship intention in individuals. An individual with a cosmopolitan orientation is more likely to have a higher predisposition towards social entrepreneurship, given their openness to diverse perspectives, global networks, and the ability to navigate different cultural contexts. Cosmopolitanism fosters an awareness of social inequalities and a commitment to addressing them, aligning with the motivations and values often associated with social entrepreneurship. Therefore, individuals with a cosmopolitan mindset may be more inclined to pursue social entrepreneurial ventures and contribute to positive social change.

3. Research Methodology

This section introduces the research framework and explains how the variables relate to one another on the framework. This section includes the discussions of the research framework, research design, target population, sampling technique, questionnaire, sample size, data collection and measurements and others.

3.1. Research Framework

Hockerts (2017) builds upon the framework developed by Mair and Noboa (2006) by incorporating new antecedents. Hockerts (2017) expanded the original model by including "prior experience with social organizations" as an additional predictor of social entrepreneurship intention. The original antecedents identified by Mair and Noboa (2006), namely "empathy, self-efficacy, and perceived social support," were adopted and retained in Hockerts' (2017) extended framework.

This study made adaptations to Hockerts' (2017) model by substituting "moral obligation" with "social awareness" as a proxy for social norms. Hockerts (2017) defines moral obligation as the positioning between the act of moral judgment and the formation of a moral intention. However, the variable measuring one's sense of responsibility for helping or supporting was found to be a suitable alternative for capturing social norms.

Next, "cosmopolitanism," was incorporated to examine its influence on social entrepreneurship. Douzinas (2007) suggests that cosmopolitan entrepreneurs demonstrate similar behaviors and personalities, showcasing adaptability as they navigate different environments to leverage favorable business conditions. Cosmopolitanism encompasses values such as human rights, attitudes towards social diversity, global environmentalism, and consumption (Woodward et al., 2008). Additionally, it includes values of social inclusion and tolerance (Jack et al., 2004; Honig et al., 2010). By including cosmopolitanism as a factor in the context of social entrepreneurship, this study expands the understanding of its role beyond its previous association with elite entrepreneurs.

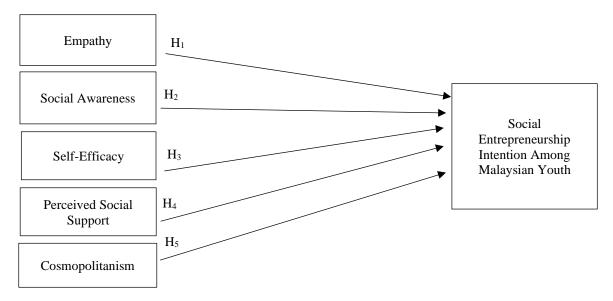


Fig. 2: Research framework

Thus, five hypotheses were created based on the research framework to investigate the potential factors influencing female students in Malaysian institutions of higher learning intention to become social entrepreneurs. The five hypotheses are shown below in Table 1:

H1 Empathy significantly relates to Social Entrepreneurship Intention
H2 Social Awareness significantly relates to Social Entrepreneurship Intention
H3 Self-efficacy significantly relates to Social Entrepreneurship Intention
H4 Perceived Social Support significantly relates to Social Entrepreneurship Intention
H5 Cosmopolitanism significantly relates to Social Entrepreneurship Intention

Table 1: Research Hypotheses

3.2. Research Design

The research design of this study, including the target population, sample technique, sample size, data collection, and the measurement for this study, will be covered in this part.

3.2.1. Target Population

Quantitative research approaches social phenomena from a mechanistic perspective, establishing goals and employing a detached position from research participants. It examines samples from the population and investigates intention by breaking down social reality into variables. In the context of social entrepreneurship, Malaysia has been recognized as one of the top 10 countries for women social entrepreneurs. Consequently, this study aimed to explore the relationship between social awareness, cosmopolitanism, and social entrepreneurship intention among female students in Malaysian tertiary education. The target population for this study comprises Malaysian female students enrolled in tertiary education within Malaysia, estimated to be approximately 641,149 students based on the characteristics of the unit of analysis described above (Higher Education Statistics 2021: Ministry of Higher Education). As the study's analytical unit, the individual must adhere to the following criteria;

- 1) Malaysian was who born and living in Malaysia.
- 2) Female students who are studying in Malaysian institutions of higher learning, including:
 - i. Public Universities

- ii. Private Higher Institutions
- iii. Polytechnics
- iv. Community Colleges
- v. Matriculation Colleges
- 3) Age between 18-40 years old

3.2.2. Sampling Technique

Convenience sampling, a form of non-probability sampling, was employed in this study to select participants from the target population who meet specific criteria based on factors such as accessibility, geographical location, availability, and willingness to participate. This approach allowed for the collection of information from individuals who were readily accessible to the researcher.

3.2.3. Sample Size

The power analysis for omnibus F tests of multiple square relationships between a dependent variable and multiple predictor variables, as outlined in "Linear multiple regression: fixed model, R2 deviation from zero" (Rindskopf, 1984), is utilized in this study with five predictors. The GPower application, version 3.1.9.2, is employed to calculate the recommended sample size for the a priori analysis. The sample size is determined based on user-specified values for the acceptable significance level (a), desired statistical power (1-b), and population effect size (Bredenkamp, 1969; Cohen, 1988). In the preliminary analysis, the effect size indicates that a sample size of n=138 is required to achieve a power of 0.95 for a test with a significance level of a=0.05. Thus, the determined and evaluated minimum sample size required for examining the relationship between the five independent variables and one dependent variable for this study is 138 (GPower application).

3.3. Questionnaire Design

To gather insightful answers for the research question, an individual questionnaire was utilized in this study. The questionnaire comprised two main categories. The first category, called "demographic" aimed to gather respondents' demographic profile and consisted of 21 questions. The second category, referred to as "antecedents," focused on exploring various factors influencing an individual's intention to become a social entrepreneur. This category was divided into six sections: Emp (12 items), SA (13 items), SE (14 items), PSS (5 items), CSM (6 items), and SEI (11 items). Table 2 provides the summary.

Table 2: Questionnaire Design

Construct	Construct Total Items Items Source of Ite		Source of Items
EMD	12	1–3	Adopted (Hockerts 2017)
EMP	12	4–12	Adopted (Mehrabian and Epstein 1972)
SA	13	12	Adapted (Transforming Education 2017)
SE	14	1–2	Adopted (Hockerts 2017)
SE		3–14	Adopted (Wilson et al. 2007)
PSS	5	1–2	Adopted (Hockerts 2017)
P33		3-	
CSM	6	6	Adopted (Saran and Kalliny 2012)
SEI	11	1–3	Adopted (Hockerts 2017)
SEI	11	4–11	Adopted (Ayob et al. 2013)

3.3.1. Measurement and Scaling

The utilization of a 5-Likert Scale in this study aimed to enhance the response rate and quality while minimizing respondents' frustration and impatience (Sachdev & Verma, 2004). The scale employed in this study consisted of a five-point itemized rating system, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Dawes (2012) suggests that with a five-point scale, respondents can easily comprehend and differentiate between the scale descriptors.

3.3.2. Data Collection Strategy

Google Forms was used to distribute the online survey to respondents. Respondents were encouraged to complete the survey due to its accessibility and ease of use. The added benefit of using Google Forms was the automatic digital storage of responses, which eliminated potential data entry errors that can occur when using printed survey forms. Researcher contacts, which included students, academics, and staff from the institutions' entrepreneurial development centres, were sent the link to the online survey. The contacts were asked to forward the survey to the targeted individuals in their networks. Age, nationality, and studentship were used as demographic questions to confirm inclusion criteria.

3.3.3. Data Analysis Strategy

This research used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to investigate the formulated hypothesis and the proposed framework. SPSS is a widely used software package for statistical analysis and is considered the preferred software for data analysis. SPSS has a wide range of statistical techniques that can be used to analyze different data types. In this study, SPSS was used to analyze frequencies, descriptive data, Cronbach's alpha, correlations, regressions, and cross-tabulations. In the following section, the results are presented and discussed.

First analysis is demographic in SPSS to examine the characteristics of the respondents. It helps researchers understand the distribution of variables across different demographic groups, such as age, race, hometown, education level, and others. The analysis provides insights into how these demographic factors may influence the research outcomes or variables of interest.

Second analysis is the descriptive to find the mean of social entrepreneurship intention among respondents from the top three higher learning institutions and also the mean of the six constructs namely EMP, SA, SE, PSS, CSM, and SEI. This analysis allowed for data summarization, comparison with other groups, identification of variability, and alignment with the research objectives. By calculating the mean, the researcher obtained a single value representing the average level of social entrepreneurship intention in this specific subgroup. This information provided valuable insights into the characteristics of social entrepreneurship intention among respondents from the top three higher learning institutions, contributing to the overall understanding of the phenomenon.

Third, the researcher conducted a reliability analysis using Cronbach's Alpha to assess the internal consistency and reliability of the antecedents in the study. This analysis was done to ensure the quality and validity of the measurement, identify any problematic items or constructs that needed refinement, enhance data interpretation by establishing the consistency of the measurements, and support theory development by evaluating the reliability of the proposed relationships. Overall, the reliability analysis using Cronbach's Alpha contributed to the validity and credibility of the study by ensuring the reliability and internal consistency of the measurement items.

Fourth, the researcher conducted a Pearson correlation analysis to explore the relationships between the constructs of EMP, SA, SE, PSS, CSM, and SEI. This analysis was performed to examine the degree and direction of associations between these variables, providing insights into how they are interrelated. By utilizing the Pearson correlation coefficient, the researcher aimed to determine whether there were significant correlations between these constructs, which would contribute to a deeper understanding of the factors influencing Social Entrepreneurship Intention. This analysis helps establish empirical evidence and support the theoretical framework by uncovering the relationships and potential predictors of individuals' intentions to engage in social entrepreneurship.

Fifth, the researcher conducted multiple statistical analyses, including regression analysis, ANOVA, F-test, and collinearity analysis to comprehensively investigate the relationships and potential predictors of the constructs EMP, SA, SE, PSS, CSM, and SEI. Regression analysis allowed for the examination of the predictive strength and direction of these variables on SEI. ANOVA and the F-test helped determine the significance of differences in SEI across various groups or categories, providing insights into potential variations based on different factors. Collinearity analysis was conducted to assess the presence of multicollinearity among the predictor variables, ensuring that the independent variables were not highly correlated with each other, thus avoiding issues of redundancy and distorted coefficient estimates. These analyses collectively contribute to a deeper understanding of the relationships, predictive power, significance, and validity of the variables, ultimately enhancing the overall robustness and reliability of the study's findings.

Lastly, the researcher conducted crosstab analysis between SA and CSM among current field of study and household monthly income, as well as between SA and CSM and between social SA, CSM, and SEI for several reasons. Firstly, examining the relationship between SA and CSM across different fields of study and income levels helps identify potential variations in these constructs based on demographic factors. This analysis provides insights into whether individuals from different fields of study or income levels exhibit different levels of SA and CSM highlighting potential factors that may influence these constructs. Secondly, exploring the relationship between SA and CSM sheds light on their interplay and potential overlap. Understanding how these constructs are related helps assess their distinctiveness and potential shared variance, which contributes to a more nuanced understanding of the factors influencing SA and CSM. Lastly, examining the associations between SA, CSM, and SEI allows for an exploration of the potential role of these constructs in shaping individuals' intentions to engage in social entrepreneurship. This analysis helps assess the extent to which SA and CSM contribute to social entrepreneurship intention, providing insights into the underlying mechanisms and potential pathways through which these constructs may influence entrepreneurial aspirations and activities. In summary, conducting crosstab analysis between SA and CSM across different fields of study and income levels, as well as between these constructs and SEI, allows for a comprehensive examination of the relationships, variations, and potential influences among these constructs, thereby contributing to a deeper understanding of their interrelationships and implications in the context of the study.

4. Findings and Discussion

The results of the completed survey are presented in this section. Specifically, the sample's demographic profile, the hypothesis testing results, and discussion findings.

4.1. Respondents' Profile

The demographic profile of the respondents was examined using descriptive analysis, and it is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Profile of Respondents

Variables	Frequency	%
Gender		
Female	273	100.0
Age		
≤19 years	18	6.6
20 – 25 years	239	87.5
26 – 30 years	12	4.4
31 – 35 years	42	15.4
Race		
Chinese	89	32.6
Indian	72	26.4
Malay	112	41.0

Hometown		
	19	7.0
Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur Federal Territory of Putrajaya	1	0.4
Johor	18	6.6
Kedah	22	8.1
	22 24	8.1
Kelantan		
Malacca	27	9.9
Negeri Sembilan	13	4.8
Pahang	20	7.3
Penang	7	2.6
Perak	20	7.3
Perlis	7	2.6
Sabah	5	1.8
Sarawak	4	1.5
Selangor	79	28.9
Terengganu	16	5.9
Program Level		
Certificate	2	0.7
Foundation	14	5.1
Diploma	16	5.9
Degree	218	79.9
Master	18	6.6
PhD	5	1.8
Field of Study		
Architecture	21	7.7
Business & Management	76	27.8
Communications	41	15.0
Creative Multimedia	27	9.9
Engineering & Technology	50	18.3
Information Technology	20	7.3
Science	17	6.2
Others	21	7.7
Year of Study	2.1	7.7
1st Year	57	20.9
2nd Year	118	43.2
3rd Year		
4th Year	67 25	24.5 9.2
5th Year and above	6	2.2
Higher Learning Institutions	2	1 1
Heriot-Watt University	3	1.1
Matriculation College	7	2.6
Multimedia University	74	27.1
Polytechnics	6	2.2
Sunway University	7	2.6
UiTM	90	33.0
UMK	32	11.7
UPM	34	12.5
USM	6	2.2
UTeM	4	1.5
UTHM	7	2.6
UTP	3	1.1
Household Monthly Income		
≤MYR 2500	105	38.5
MYR 2501 - MYR 5000	79	29.0

MYR 5001 - MYR7500	31	11.4
≥ MYR7501	58	21.2
Recipient of Bantuan Sara Hidup		
Yes	129	47.3
No	144	52.7

Table 3 shows that 100% of the respondents are female. 239 respondents, accounting for 87.5% of the total sample, were between 20 and 25 years old. 42 respondents, accounting for 15.4%, were between 31 and 35 years old, and 18 respondents, accounting for 6.6%, were between 19 years old and below. Finally, 12 respondents, accounting for 4.4%, were between 26 and 30. The majority of the 112 respondents (41.0%) were Malays, 89 respondents (32.6%) were Chinese, and 72 respondents (26.4%) were Indian. This study was able to collect data throughout Malaysia, i.e., all states and the Federal Territory except the Federal Territory of Labuan. The result shows that the majority of the 79 respondents (28.9%) were from Selangor, 27 respondents (9.9%) were from Malacca, and finally, 24 respondents (8.8%) were from Kelantan. In terms of the level of study, 218 respondents (79.9%) were in Bachelor's programs, 18 respondents (6.6%) were in Master's programs, and 16 respondents (5.9%) were in Diploma programs. The respondents were students of higher education institutions studying a variety of subjects. 76 respondents (27.8%) were studying business and management, 50 respondents (18.3%) were studying engineering and technology, and 41 respondents (15.0%) were studying communications. The majority of the 118 respondents (43.2%) were in their 2nd year of study, 67 respondents (24.5%) were in their 3rd year of study, and finally, 57 respondents (20.9%) were in their first year of study. In addition, 90 respondents (33.0%) were from UiTM, 74 respondents (27.1%) were from Multimedia College, and finally, 34 respondents (12.5%) were from UPM. In terms of economic background, the monthly household income of the majority of 105 respondents (38.5%) was RM2500 and below, 79 respondents (29.0%) were between RM2501-RM5000, and finally, 58 respondents (21.2%) were RM7501 and above. Finally, 144 respondents (52.7%) were not recipients of Bantuan Sara Hidup, while 129 respondents (47.3%) were recipients of Bantuan Sara Hidup.

Table 4 shows the results of the descriptive statistics of the constructs and the level of social entrepreneurial intention among the three institutions with the highest number of respondents. The results indicate that UITM students have the highest level of social entrepreneurship intention, followed by Multimedia University and UPM.

Table 4: Descriptive Analysis

Higher Learning Institutions	Frequency	SEI Mean		
UiTM	90	3.75		
Multimedia University	74	3.58		
UPM	34	3.11		
Constructs	Mean			
EMP	3.82			
SA	3.76			
SE	3.68			
PSS	3.56			
CSM 4.30				
SEI	3.30			

4.2. Reliability Analysis

A total of 61 items were used to measure the main constructs of the study, including Emp (12 items), SA (13 items), SE (14 items), PSS (5 items), CSM (6 items), and SEI (11 items). An Itemized Rating Scale with five scales was used to evaluate the items. The reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha shows how strongly the items are positively correlated. It is assumed that the higher the coefficient value, the more reliable the instrument is. As seen in Table 5, the range for all coefficients of the constructs was between 0.700 and 1.000, indicating that the survey instruments have a high degree of internal consistency and reliability.

Table 5: Reliability Analysis

Construct	Total Items	Mean	Std. Dev.	Cronbach's Alpha
EMP	12	3.82	5.881	0.792
SA	13	3.76	7.023	0.905
SE	14	3.68	7.075	0.864
PSS	5	3.56	3.117	0.840
CSM	6	4.30	3.452	0.895
SEI	11	3.30	9.240	0.968

4.3. Pearson Correlation Analysis

Table 6 shows that there is generally a significant interaction between the variables. The Pearson correlation between all the independent variables EMP, SA, SE, PSS, CSM and the dependent variable SEI was found to be low positive to moderately positive. This is a good indication of the adapted model for this study, where social awareness and cosmopolitanism were included in Hockert's model.

Table 6: Correlations

		EMP	SA	SE	PSS	CSM	SEI
EMP	Pearson Correlation	1	.521**	.440**	.389**	.475**	.190**
	N	273	273	273	273	273	273
SA	Pearson Correlation	.521**	1	.665**	.361**	.397**	.269**
	N	273	273	273	273	273	273
SE	Pearson Correlation	.440**	.665**	1	.539**	.410**	.449**
	N	273	273	273	273	273	273
PSS	Pearson Correlation	.389**	.361**	.539**	1	.280**	.386**
	N	273	273	273	273	273	273
CSM	Pearson Correlation	.475**	.397**	.410**	.280**	1	.573**
	N	273	273	273	273	273	273
SEI	Pearson Correlation	.190**	.269**	.449**	.386**	.573**	1
	N	273	273	273	273	273	273

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.4. Regression Analysis

The R-squared value (R²) is the determinant of the coefficient. It is an indicator of the fit of the model. The R-squared value indicates the proportion of the dependent variable's variance explained by the model's independent variables. The result in Table 7 shows that 24.5% of the variance for the number of SEI is explained by the number of EMP, SA, SE, PSS and CSM, which means that the model explains 24.5% of the variance of the intention to social entrepreneurship.

Table 7: Model Summary^b

Model	R	R-Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.495ª	0.245	0.231	0.73679

a. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, PSS, SA, EMP, SE

b. Dependent Variable: SEI

4.5. ANOVA and F-Test

The F-test plays an essential role in the analysis of variance (ANOVA). ANOVA employs the F-test to compare and evaluate the means of the groups, and the F-test is capable of comparing the means of more than 2 groups. The F-test or ANOVA can be used to investigate the significant variation of sample means. The dependent variable SEI was regressed on the prediction of the independent variables EMP, SA, SE, PSS, and CSM. The result in Table 8 shows that the independent variables significantly predict intention to social entrepreneurship, F=7.311, p<0.05, which means that the five factors in this study have a significant effect on the intention to social entrepreneurship.

Table 8: ANOVA^a

Mod	del	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	46.988	5	9.398	17.311	.000b
	Residual	144.942	267	0.543		
	Total	191.930	272			

a. Dependent Variable: SEI

In addition, the coefficients were further evaluated to determine the influence of each factor on the available criterion available (social entrepreneurship intention). H1 tests whether EMP has a significant influence on SEI. From Table 9, it can be seen that EMP has no significant influence as the p-value is 0.957, which is equivalent to > 0.05. So H1 is not supported. Further. H2 tests whether SA has a significant influence on SEI. The results show that SA has a significant effect as the p-value is 0.001, which is < 0.05. Thus, H2 is supported. H3 tests whether SE has a significant effect on SEI. The results show that SE has a significant effect as the p-value is 0.000, which is < 0.05. Thus, H3 is supported. In addition, H4 tests whether PSS has a significant effect on SEI. The results show that PSS has a significant effect as the p-value is 0.001, which is < 0.05. Thus, H4 is supported. Finally, H5 tests whether CSM has a significant effect on SEI. The results show that CSM has a significant effect as the p-value is 0.003, which is < 0.05. Thus, H5 is supported. Further explanation on Table 9 results will be as below:-

- As EMP increases by 1 unit, SEI is predicted to increase by 0.006
- As SA increases by 1 unit, SEI is predicted to increase by 3.420
- As SE increases by 1 unit, SEI is predicted to increase by 2.668
- As PSS increases by 1 unit, SEI is predicted to increase by 2.287
- As CSM increases by 1 unit, SEI is predicted to increase by 2.581

In SPSS, partial eta squared is a measure of effect size that is commonly used in analysis of variance (ANOVA) to quantify the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by a particular independent variable or factor, while controlling for the effects of other independent variables. Partial eta squared is an adjusted version of eta squared, which is the traditional effect size measure used in ANOV and takes into consideration the presence of other factors in the analysis and provides a more accurate estimate of the unique contribution of a specific factor.

The value of partial eta squared ranges from 0 to 1, where 0 indicates no effect and 1 represents a complete explanation of the variance in the dependent variable. It represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is attributable to the specific independent variable, after accounting for the effects of other independent variables. The rule of thumb of partial eta squared is 0.01 = small, 0.06 = medium, and 0.14 = large. Referring to Table 9, it shows that CSM has small effect, meanwhile EMP has medium effect and lastly, SA, SE, and PSS have large effect.

Table 9: Coefficients^a

		racio /. Cocimen				
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Hypothesis	

b. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, PSS, SA, EMP, SE

								Partial Eta Squared
		В	Std. Error	Beta				
1	(Constant)	0.733	0.431		1.699	0.090		
	EMP	0.006	0.116	0.004	0.054	0.957	Not Supported	0.093
	SA	3.420	0.118	1.027	2.357	0.001	Supported	0.243
	SE	2.668	0.133	1.402	5.032	0.000	Supported	0.366
	PSS	2.287	0.087	3.213	3.291	0.001	Supported	0.209
	CSM	2.581	0.091	2.124	3.984	0.003	Supported	0.027

a. Dependent Variable: SEI

The tolerance value is another measure of multicollinearity in regression analysis and is the reciprocal of the VIF. The tolerance value is the variation in an independent variable that is not explained by the other independent variables in the model. A tolerance value close to 1 indicates that little or no multicollinearity is present, while a tolerance value close to 0 indicates that high multicollinearity is present. In general, a tolerance value of less than 0.2 is considered problematic and indicates the presence of high multicollinearity. Similarly, the VIF is a measure of multicollinearity in a regression analysis. The VIF threshold is usually set at 10, meaning any independent variable with a VIF value greater than 10 is considered highly multicollinear and should be investigated further. Table 10 shows that the tolerance value for all constructs is above 0.2, which means there is no multicollinearity. In addition, the VIF value for all constructs is below 10, indicating no multicollinearity.

Table 10: Collinearity Statistics

Construct	Tolerance	VIF
EMP	0.614	1.629
SA	0.489	2.046
SE	0.443	2.256
PSS	0.677	1.477
CSM	0.721	1.387

4.6. Residuals Histogram

A histogram can assess the assumption of a normal distribution of the residuals. Figure 2 shows the histogram corresponding to the normal distribution; the residuals are normally distributed. There is no problem with the linearity of the normal distribution because the histogram has the typical bell shape with most of the lines in the centre. Most of the data is bell-shaped. This indicates how well this sample predicts a normal distribution in the population.

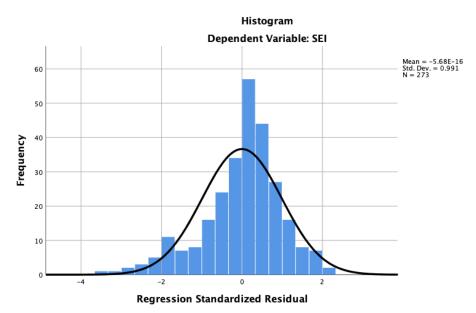


Fig. 3: Residuals Histogram

4.7. Crosstab Analysis

The crosstab is a statistical method that examines the relationship between two or more variables by comparing the frequency or percentage of cases in each category of one variable with the frequency or percentage of cases in each category of another variable. Table 11 shows the result of the SA crosstabulation with the current field of study and monthly household income. The field of study is divided into two categories, Non-Science & Technology Programs and Science & Technology Programs. Monthly household income is divided into RM2500 and below and RM2500 and above. RM2500 is taken as the threshold for the poverty income band (the actual poverty line for the nation is RM2208¹).

The result shows that 57.5% of the respondents are studying Non-Science & Technology programs, while 42.5% are studying Science & Technology programs. The result shows that the monthly household income of 61.5% of the respondents is RM2500 and above, while 38.5% have RM2500 and below.

Specifically, 55.4% of respondents enrolled in Non-Science & Technology programs have a high level of social awareness, while 44.6% of respondents have a low level of social awareness. 53.4% of respondents enrolled in Science & Technology programs have a low level of social awareness, while 46.6% have a high level of social awareness.

In other words, more of the Non-Science & Technology students have higher levels of social awareness and the pattern is flipped for those Science & Technology students. This could be due to the nature of the programs where those students taking social sciences, arts and humanities most likely will have courses that would discuss societal issues, thus giving them higher awareness. On the other hand, students taking engineering and technical courses would have lesser opportunities for such classes, thus more of them have lower social awareness.

Low High
Social Social Total
Awareness Awareness

Table 11: Social Awareness Crosstabulation

¹ https://www.malaymail.com/news/malaysia/2020/07/10/statistics-dept-malaysias-new-poverty-line-income-is-rm2208-over-400k-house/1883285

Current Field of	Non S&T	Count	70	87	157
Study	Programs	% within Current	44.6%	55.4%	100.0%
		Field of Study	44.6%	33.4%	100.0%
		% within SA	53.0%	61.7%	57.5%
		% of Total	25.6%	31.9%	57.5%
	S&T Programs	Count	62	54	116
		% within Current Field of Study	53.4%	46.6%	100.0%
		% within SA	47.0%	38.3%	42.5%
		% of Total	22.7%	19.8%	42.5%
Total		Count	132	141	273
		% within Current Field of Study	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%
		% within SA	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%
Household	MYR 2500 and	Count	79	89	168
Monthly Income	above	% within			
		Household	47.0%	53.0%	100.0%
		Monthly Income			
		% within SA	59.8%	63.1%	61.5%
		% of Total	28.9%	32.6%	61.5%
	MYR 2500 and	Count	53	52	105
	below	% within			
		Household	50.5%	49.5%	100.0%
		Monthly Income			
		% within SA	40.2%	36.9%	38.5%
		% of Total	19.4%	19.0%	38.5%
Total		Count	132	141	273
		% within			
		Household	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%
		Monthly Income			
		% within SA	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%

On the other hand, 53.0% of the respondents with a monthly household income of RM 2500 and above have a high level of social awareness, while 47.0% have a low level of social awareness. In addition, 50.5% of the respondents with a monthly household income of RM2500 and below have a low level of social awareness, while 49.5% have a high level of social awareness. It seems that more of those from households with better income levels have higher levels of social awareness in comparison to those from the poverty category. Possibly, when not troubled by financial issues, one may then have the luxury to be more aware of the needs of society.

Table 12 shows the result of the CSM cross-tabulation with the current field of study and monthly household income. The result indicates that 54.2% of the respondents with a monthly household income of RM2500 and above have a high level of cosmopolitanism, while 45.8% have a low level of cosmopolitanism. It continues with 51.4% of the respondents having a low level of cosmopolitanism. This pattern is similar to the earlier analysis of social awareness. It is suggested that the same reasoning may be applied here as well.

On the other hand, 51.0% of respondents who enrolled in non-Science & Technology programs have a high level of cosmopolitanism, while 49.0% have a low level of cosmopolitanism. Finally, 53.4% of respondents enrolled in Science & Technology programs have a high level of cosmopolitanism, while

46.6% have a high level of cosmopolitanism. More of the students from both types of programs have high cosmopolitanism. The patterns observed are the same for both types of programs, thus the program design itself may not have a particular influence on the students' cosmopolitanism. Likely, being a student in the institutions, experiences and engagements on campus contribute towards cosmopolitanism among the students.

Table 13 shows the result of the cross-tabulation of SA & CSM. The result shows that 58.0% of the respondents with low cosmopolitanism also have low social awareness, while 42.0% with low cosmopolitanism have high social awareness. Moreover, 60.6% of respondents with high cosmopolitanism have high social awareness, while 39.4% with high cosmopolitanism have low social awareness. It suggests that if one has low social awareness, likely one's cosmopolitanism is also low and vice versa.

The chi-square test was performed to evaluate the relationship between two categorical variables. The results show a statistically significant relationship between the two variables, $\chi^2(df=1, N=273)=9.418$, p=.002. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant relationship between SA and CSM.

Table 12: Cosmopolitanism Crosstabulation

			CS			
			Low Cosmopolitanism	High Cosmopolitanism	Total	
Household	MYR 2500	Count	77	91	168	
Monthly Income	and above	% within Household Monthly Income	45.8%	54.2%	100.0%	
		% within CSM	58.8%	64.1%	61.5%	
		% of Total	28.2%	33.3%	61.5%	
l	MYR 2500	Count	54	51	105	
ar	and below	% within Household Monthly Income	51.4%	48.6%	100.0%	
		% within CSM	41.2%	35.9%	38.5%	
		% of Total	19.8%	18.7%	38.5%	
Total		Count	131	142	273	
		% within Household Monthly Income	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%	
		% within CSM	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%	
Current Field of Study	Non S&T	Count	77	80	157	
	Programs	% within Current Field of Study	49.0%	51.0%	100.0%	
		% within CSM	58.8%	56.3%	57.5%	
		% of Total	28.2%	29.3%	57.5%	

	S&T	Count	54	62	116
	Programs	% within Current Field of Study	46.6%	53.4%	100.0%
		% within CSM	41.2%	43.7%	42.5%
		% of Total	19.8%	22.7%	42.5%
Total		Count	131	142	273
		% within Current Field of Study	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%
		% within CSM	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%

Table 13: SA & CSM Crosstabulation

			SA To		Total
			Low Social Awareness	High Social Awareness	
CSM	Low	Count	76	55	131
	Cosmopolitanism	% within CSM	58.0%	42.0%	100.0%
		% within SA	57.6%	39.0%	48.0%
		% of Total	27.8%	20.1%	48.0%
	High Cosmopolitanism	Count	56	86	142
		% within CSM	39.4%	60.6%	100.0%
		% within SA	42.4%	61.0%	52.0%
		% of Total	20.5%	31.5%	52.0%
Total		Count	132	141	273
		% within CSM	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%
		% within SA	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%
	C	hi-Square Tests		•	
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)		
Pearson Chi-Square	9.418 ^a	1	0.002		
Continuity Correction ^b	8.689	1	0.003		
Likelihood Ratio	9.470	1	0.002		
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.383	1	0.002		
N of Valid Cases	273				

Table 14 shows the result of the cross-tabulation of SA, CSM & SEI. It shows that 62.9% of the respondents with low social awareness have low SEI, while 37.1% have high SEI. Moreover, 56.7% of the respondents with high social awareness have high SEI, while 43.3% have low SEI. On the other hand, 56.5% of respondents with low cosmopolitanism have a low SEI, while 43.5% have a high SEI.

Finally, 50.7% of respondents with high cosmopolitanism have a high SEI, while 49.3% have a low SEI. It indicates that if one has low social awareness, likely one's SEI is also low and vice versa. Also, if one has low cosmopolitanism, likely one's SEI is also low and vice versa. This pattern is consistent with the findings for the hypothesis testing earlier.

Table 14: SA, CSM & SEI Crosstabulation

			SEI		
			Low SEI	High SEI	Total
SA	Low Social	Count	83	49	132
	Awareness	% within SA	62.9%	37.1%	100.0%
		% within SEI	57.6%	38.0%	48.4%
		% of Total	30.4%	17.9%	48.4%
	High Social	Count	61	80	141
	Awareness	% within SA	43.3%	56.7%	100.0%
		% within SEI	42.4%	62.0%	51.6%
		% of Total	22.3%	29.3%	51.6%
Total		Count	144	129	273
		% within SA	52.7%	47.3%	100.0%
		% within SEI	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	52.7%	47.3%	100.0%
CSM	Low	Count	74	57	131
	Cosmopolitanism	% within CSM	56.5%	43.5%	100.0%
		% within SEI	51.4%	44.2%	48.0%
		% of Total	27.1%	20.9%	48.0%
	High	Count	70	72	142
	Cosmopolitanism	% within CSM	49.3%	50.7%	100.0%
		% within SEI	48.6%	55.8%	52.0%
		% of Total	25.6%	26.4%	52.0%
Total		Count	144	129	273
		% within CSM	52.7%	47.3%	100.0%
		% within SEI	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	52.7%	47.3%	100.0%

5. Discussion

The findings of this study align with existing literature on the relationship between self-efficacy and perceived social support toward social entrepreneurship intention (Mair & Noboa, 2006; Hockerts, 2017). According to Abdul Aziz et al (2023), if the youth perceive their friends, family and others who they refer to, are supportive both in terms of material and psychological or emotional, the more likely they will be ready for social entrepreneurship. Meanwhile, the finding that empathy does not have a significant impact on the likelihood of Malaysian female youth becoming social entrepreneurs suggests that empathy may not be a strong predictor of social entrepreneurship in this context. This result aligns with Ernst (2011), who found no influence of empathy on respondents' attitudes towards starting a social enterprise. It is also consistent with Rashid et al. (2018), who found no significant relationship between empathy and the intention to start a social enterprise.

Several factors may contribute to this result within the context of Malaysian female youth. Cultural factors may play a role, as the emphasis on collective well-being in Malaysian culture might overshadow the influence of individual empathy towards others in the decision to pursue social entrepreneurship. Furthermore, personal values, attitudes, and beliefs are likely to be critical in shaping entrepreneurial intentions among Malaysian female youth. The presence or absence of local role models for social entrepreneurship could also impact their intentions. Limited exposure to successful social

entrepreneurs or a lack of awareness regarding the benefits of social entrepreneurship may contribute to the weak association between empathy and the desire to become a social entrepreneur among Malaysian female youth.

Next, the study reveals that social awareness significantly influences the intention of Malaysian female youth to become social entrepreneurs, which holds important implications for the Malaysian context. Social awareness, defined as the ability to recognize and empathize with individuals from diverse backgrounds and cultures while understanding and perceiving social issues and challenges in society (Huynh, 2018), plays a crucial role in driving social change. This is particularly significant in Malaysia, with its diverse and multi-ethnic society, where social awareness takes on added importance. Plus, females are often socialized to be more attuned to the needs and experiences of others, emphasizing empathy and nurturing qualities. This socialization process may enhance their ability to develop social awareness, which in turn influences their inclination towards social entrepreneurship.

In the Malaysian context, a deep understanding of the challenges faced by various communities can inspire Malaysian female youth to develop innovative solutions through social entrepreneurship. By addressing the unique needs of different societal groups, social entrepreneurs can create businesses that are both economically sustainable and have a profound social impact. Malaysian female youth, who are well-connected and immersed in social media, have unparalleled access to information about the issues affecting their communities and the world at large. This exposure can foster a strong sense of social awareness and empathy towards the struggles of others, motivating them to take action through social entrepreneurship. Females are often socialized to prioritize the well-being of their families, communities, and society at large. This collective orientation aligns with the core principles of social entrepreneurship, where the focus is on addressing social problems and creating a positive societal impact. Plus, the growing ecosystem of support for female entrepreneurs, including mentorship programs, networks, and funding initiatives, provides females with the necessary resources and opportunities to pursue social entrepreneurship. These resources can further amplify the impact of their social awareness and facilitate their entrepreneurial endeavours.

Furthermore, the growing emphasis on gender equality and women's empowerment in Malaysia creates an environment where female youth are encouraged to participate in entrepreneurship, including social entrepreneurship. As women's empowerment movements gain momentum globally, females are increasingly encouraged to take charge of their lives, pursue their passions, and make a positive impact in society. Social entrepreneurship provides an avenue for females to exercise their agency, contribute to social change, and challenge existing gender norms and stereotypes. Females, especially in patriarchal societies (common amongst Asian communities including Malaysia) may have firsthand experiences of gender-based discrimination, marginalization, or limited opportunities. These experiences can foster a stronger sense of social awareness and a desire to address social issues and promote equality through entrepreneurship.

As Malaysian female youth develop a deeper social awareness, they can leverage their unique perspectives and experiences to tackle social problems and contribute to the betterment of society. The visibility of successful female social entrepreneurs and their accomplishments will then serve as inspiration and motivation for other females to engage in social entrepreneurship. Having relatable role models reinforces the belief that females can effectively drive social change through entrepreneurship. This highlights the potential for Malaysian female youth to become catalysts for positive social change through social entrepreneurship.

The significance of cosmopolitanism in influencing the intention of Malaysian female youth to become social entrepreneurs highlights the importance of openness to other cultures and a cosmopolitan mindset in the pursuit of social entrepreneurship. Cosmopolitanism, as described by Baldry (1965), revolves around the idea of human unity and an individual's attitude towards culture, emphasizing the fluidity and adaptability of social interactions as people move between different cultural contexts. It

encompasses the notion that individuals with a cosmopolitan identity can navigate different cultural settings without feeling disoriented. In the context of social entrepreneurship, cosmopolitanism indirectly contributes to its development (Mouraviev & Kakabadse, 2021). Having a global mindset can inspire and shape the entrepreneurial aspirations of Malaysian female youth by fostering a broader understanding of social issues and potential solutions beyond their local context. Mouraviev and Kakabadse (2016) highlight how cosmopolitan orientation has emerged alongside economic growth, which has widened the gap between the affluent and the impoverished. Cosmopolitanism is not only valuable for entrepreneurs seeking global business opportunities but also for individuals in positions of influence. Malaysian female youth with a cosmopolitan orientation are more likely to recognize and appreciate the interconnected nature of social, economic, and environmental challenges on a global scale. This awareness can serve as a motivation for them to pursue social entrepreneurship as a means to address these challenges and create a positive impact locally and globally. Exposure to diverse cultures and perspectives can also enhance the problem-solving skills and creativity of Malaysian female youth, both of which are critical for social entrepreneurs. By embracing cosmopolitanism, they can draw inspiration from successful social enterprises and innovative solutions in other cultural contexts and adapt these ideas to the Malaysian context, ultimately developing unique and effective social enterprises. In summary, cosmopolitanism holds particular significance for females in the context of social entrepreneurship. It allows them to break cultural barriers, bridge global and local perspectives, enhance problem-solving skills, and contribute to their empowerment and leadership in the field. Embracing cosmopolitanism empowers females to become agents of change, leveraging their diverse experiences and global outlook to address social challenges effectively.

The results of the cross-tabulation analysis provide valuable insights into the relationship between social awareness, cosmopolitanism, and sociodemographic factors such as field of study and monthly household income among Malaysian female youth. The finding highlights the importance of incorporating social awareness and related topics into Science & Technology to produce well-educated individuals who can address social challenges innovatively. Secondly, the finding of this study highlights the importance of targeted interventions aimed at promoting social awareness and cosmopolitanism among Malaysian female youth, particularly those from low-income families. Targeted interventions such as exposure to resources, networks, and providing opportunities for cultural exposure or exchange. By addressing barriers and providing inclusive support, these interventions can empower and enable all Malaysian female youth to participate in social entrepreneurship and contribute to positive social change.

6. Conclusion

The findings of this study highlight the determinacy of social awareness and cosmopolitanism in influencing the social entrepreneurship intention of female students.

Based on the earlier findings, it is recommended that to promote social awareness and encourage Malaysian female youth to become social entrepreneurs, several initiatives can be implemented; implement community-based projects, establish mentoring programs, promote self-efficacy development, facilitate networking and knowledge sharing, encourage media representation (showcase the achievements, stories, and impact of successful women social entrepreneurs through various media channels), and implement supportive policies that promote social entrepreneurship among Malaysian female youth. Meanwhile, to enhance cosmopolitanism among Malaysian female youth and its benefits for social entrepreneurship, the following is suggested; create platforms to foster global connections and cultural exchange, promote multiple language learning and organize events addressing global social issues.

In conclusion, the study demonstrates that social awareness plays a crucial role in motivating female students to identify and address social problems through entrepreneurial efforts. It emphasizes the importance of fostering a sense of social responsibility and providing hands-on experiences in solving

social challenges. Additionally, cosmopolitanism emerges as a significant factor in shaping the entrepreneurial aspirations of female students, enabling them to develop a global mindset and expand their networks and collaborations on an international scale. By promoting social awareness and cosmopolitanism among female students, we can cultivate a new generation of social entrepreneurs who are equipped with the necessary skills, perspectives, and connections to drive positive social change in their communities and beyond.

The study has limitation such as including its focus on Malaysian female youth, which limits generalizability, and the reliance on self-reported measures that may be subject to biases. Future research could expand the sample, employ objective measures, and use longitudinal or experimental designs to enhance the validity and establish causality. Exploring cultural influences, conducting comparative studies, examining mediating or moderating factors, and evaluating long-term outcomes can provide a more comprehensive understanding. Addressing these limitations will contribute to promoting social entrepreneurship and empowering individuals, particularly females, to drive positive social change.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the MMU IRFund 2022 [Grant Code: MMUI/220019]. Appreciation also to all reviewers for their constructive feedback.

References

Ab Aziz, K., Mohd Zulkifle, A., & Sarhan, M. L. (2023). Social entrepreneurship for sustainable community development: Investigating the determinants for youths' readiness. *Journal of System and Management Sciences*, 13(1), 444–466.

Abeysekera, R. (2019). Social entrepreneurship: Concepts and research areas. *Sri Lankan Journal of Management Studies*, 1(2), 29-42.

Altarawneh & Ahmad Albloush. (2023). Factors Affecting the Development of Women Entrepreneurs: A Comprehensive Model for Arab Countries. *Journal of System and Management Sciences*, 13(3), 381-393.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behaviour. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179-211.

Ajzen, I. (2002). Perceived behavioral control, self-efficacy, locus of control, and the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32(4), 665–683.

Ayob, N., Yap, C. S., Amat Sapuan, D., & Abdul Rashid, M. Z. (2013). Social entrepreneurial intention among business undergraduates: An emerging economy perspective. *Gadjah Mada International Journal of Business*, 15(3), 249–267.

Azuar, A. (2022, November 15). *More female graduates, but less female workers*. The Malaysian Reserve. https://themalaysianreserve.com/2022/11/15/more-female-graduates-but-less-female-workers/.

Bach, J. & Stark, D. (2002). Innovative ambiguities: Ngos use of interactive technology in Eastern Europe. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, *37*(2), 3–23.

Baldry, H. C. (1965). The unity of mankind in greek thought. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191–215.

Bernama. (2022, August 25). Women's participation in labour force still low. Free Malaysia Today. https://www.freemalaysiatoday.com/category/nation/2022/08/25/womens-participation-in-labour-force-still-low-says-pm/

Bird, B. (1988). Implementing entrepreneurial ideas: The case for intention. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(3), 442–453.

Blackburn, R., & Ram, M. (2006). Fix or fixation? The contributions and limitations of entrepreneurship and small firms to combating social exclusion. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 18(1), 73-89.

Bredenkamp, J. (1969). The application of significance tests in theory-testing experiments. *Psychologische Beitrage*, 11(3), 275–285.

Catford, J. (1998). Social entrepreneurs are vital for health promotion but they need supportive environments too. *Health Promotion International*, 13(2), 465-496.

Cornelius, N., Todres, M., Janjuha-Jivraj, S., Woods, A., & Wallace, J. (2008). Corporate social responsibility and the social enterprise. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 81(2). 355-370.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.

Darby, L., & Jenkins, H. (2006). Applying sustainability indicators to the social enterprise business model: The development and application of an indicator set for Newport Wastesavers, Wales. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 33(6), 411-431.

Dawes, J. (2012). Do data characteristics change according to the number of scale points used? an experiment using 5-point, 7-point and 10-point scales. *International Journal of Market Research*, 50(1), 1-19.

Douzinas, C. (2007). *Human Rights and Empire: The Political Philosophy of Cosmopolitanism*. 1st ed. Routledge-Cavendish.

Ernst, K. (2011). Heart over mind—an empirical analysis of social entrepreneurial intention formation on the basis of the theory of planned behaviour. *Published Dissertation*, University Wuppertal.

Foster, F., & Grichnik, D. (2013). Social entrepreneurial intention formation of corporate volunteers. *Journal of Social Entrepreneurship*, 4(2), 153-181.

Hockerts, K. (2017). Determinants of social entrepreneurial intentions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 41(1), 105–130.

Honig, B., Drori, I. & Carmichael, B. (2010). *Transnational and Immigrant Entrepreneurship in a Globalized World*. University of Toronto Press.

Huynh, S. V. (2018) Social awareness and responsible decision making of students in grade 4 and 5 in Vietnam. *Journal of Education and Human Development*, 7(4), 7-15.

Jack, S. L., Dodd, S. D. & Anderson, A. R. (2004). Social structures and entrepreneurial networks: The strength of strong ties. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, *5*(2).

Krueger, N.F. (1993). The impact of prior entrepreneurial exposure on perceptions of new venture feasibility and desirability. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(1), 5–21.

Krueger, N F. & Brazeal, D. V. (1994). Entrepreneurial potential and potential entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18(3), 91–104.

Krueger, N.F., Reilly, M.D., & Carsrud, A.L. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(5-6), 411-432.

Liñán, F., & Chen, Y. (2009). Development and cross—cultural application of a specific instrument to measure entrepreneurial intentions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33(3), 593-617.

Mair J., & Noboa E. (2006) Social Entrepreneurship: How intentions to create a social venture are formed. In: J. Mair, J. Robinson, & K. Hockerts K. (eds) *Social Entrepreneurship*. Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Mehrabian, A., & Epstein, N. (1972). A measure of emotional empathy. *Journal of Personality*, 40(4), 525–543.

Mouraviev, N. & Kakabadse, N. (2016). Conceptualising cosmopolitanism and entrepreneurship through the lens of the three-dimensional theory of power. *Society and Business Review*, 11(3), 242-256.

Mouraviev, N. & Kakabadse, N.K. (2021). The role of social entrepreneurs' cosmopolitan orientation in bridging the gap between prosperity and social deprivation. *Society and Business Review*, 17(2), 196-216.

Nicholls, A., & Cho, A. H. (2006). Social entrepreneurship: The structuration of a field. In A. Nicholls (Ed.), *Social Entrepreneurship: New Models of Sustainable Social Change*. Oxford University Press, Oxford. 99-118.

Okpara, J. O., & Halkias, D. (2011). Social entrepreneurship: An overview of its theoretical evolution and proposed research model. *International Journal Social Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 1(1), 4-20.

Perrini, F., & Vurro, C. (2006). Leveraging social change through entrepreneurship. In F. Perrini (Ed.), *The New Social Entrepreneurship. What Awaits Social Entrepreneurial Ventures?*

Rindskopf, D. (1984). Using phantom and imaginary latent variables to parameterize constraints in linear structural models. *Psychometrika*, 49(1), 37–47.

Rosca, E., Agarwal, N., & Brem, A. (2020). Women entrepreneurs as agents of change: A comparative analysis of social entrepreneurship processes in emerging markets. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 157, 1-12.

Sachdev, S. B., & Verma, H. V. (2004). Relative importance of service quality dimensions: A multisectoral study. *Journal of Service Research*, 4.

Saran, A., & Kalliny, M. (2012). Cosmopolitanism: Concept and measurement. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 25(5), 282-291.

Shaker, Z., Hans, N R., Nachiket, B., Donald, O. N., & James, C. H. (2008). Globalization of social entrepreneurship opportunities. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal* 2, 117-131.

Shapero, A., & Sokol, L., (1982). *The Social Dimensions of Entrepreneurship*. Encyclopedia of entrepreneurship. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 72-90.

Shleifer, A. (1998). State versus private ownership. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 12(4), 133-150.

Syed Salleh, S. N., & Mansor, N. (2022). Women and labour force participation in Malaysia. *Malaysian Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 7(7), 1–9.

Thompson, R. K., Mustafa, A. F., McKinnon, J. J., Maenz, D., & Rossnagel, B. (2000). Genotypic differences in chemical composition and ruminal gradeability of oat hulls. Canadian. *Journal of Animal. Science*, 80(2), 377-379.

Transforming Education. (2017). Social awareness. Available online: https://www.slideshare.net/TransformingEducation/social-awareness-presentation.

Tukamushaba, E., Orobia, L., & George, B. (2011). Development of a conceptual model to understand international social entrepreneurship and its application in the Ugandan context. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 9(4), 282-294.

Wallace, S. L. (1999). Social entrepreneurship: The role of social purpose enterprises in facilitating community economic development. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, *4*, 153-174.

Wilson, F., Kickul, J., & Marlino, D. (2007). Gender, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial career intentions: Implications for entrepreneurship education. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(3), 387–406.

Woodward, I., Skrbis, Z. & Bean, C. (2008). Attitudes toward globalization and cosmopolitanism: Cultural diversity, personal consumption and the national economy. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 59(2), 207-226.