

**SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS AND ENTREPRENUERIAL INTENTIONS OF
UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA**

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this research is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution or university other than the University of Nairobi for academic credit.

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ABSTRACT

A person's intention to act entrepreneurially is a strong predictor of entrepreneurial action such as going into self-employment. In the quest to explain causation for entrepreneurial intentions, the present study examined the relationship between socio-cultural factors and intentions to become entrepreneurs in the context of public undergraduate university students in Kenya. Specifically, intentions to become an entrepreneur were predicted using three of Hofstede's grid for culture namely; individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. Other variables included gender; entrepreneurial disposition; entrepreneurial perceptions, ethnicity and exposure to entrepreneurship education. The broad objective was to examine the effect of culture and gender on students' entrepreneurial intentions. Review of the extant literature was done and a conceptual framework developed along with the research hypotheses. A positivism paradigm using descriptive cross-sectional research design was used. The population comprised all public undergraduate university students who were in their fourth year of study between January and March 2013. Proportionate stratified random sampling was used. The sample size was 2192 respondents selected from the seven public universities. Primary data was collected using structured questionnaires measured on likert type interval scales. The study yielded a 70.8 percent response rate. Descriptive statistics comprising means and standard deviations were used to analyse the data. Hypotheses were tested using Pearson product moment correlations, ANOVA and regression analysis. The findings indicated that students do not consider gender when evaluating alternative career options. Confirming the researcher's expectations and previous study results, significance of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intentions was supported. In congruence with previous studies, the study found support for a positive effect of entrepreneurial perceptions on students entrepreneurial intentions. In addition, the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions was supported by the research findings. On the basis of the results of this thesis, it was concluded that culture has a direct and indirect effect on entrepreneurial intentions and that there are no differences in any entrepreneurial related variables between either gender or ethnicity. Based on the study findings, it also became apparent that entrepreneurial intentions were predominantly dependent on perceptions of desirability and feasibility by the acting individual as well as dispositional traits that arms an individual in readiness to act entrepreneurially; and that entrepreneurship can be fostered through the current learning process adopted in our public universities curriculum as this relationship was empirically supported.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
DP	:	Desirability Perceptions
EI	:	Entrepreneurial Intentions
EE	:	Exposure to Entrepreneurship Education
ED	:	Entrepreneurial Disposition
EP	:	Entrepreneurial Perceptions
EC	:	Entrepreneurial Culture
ECI	:	Uncertainty Avoidance
EC2	:	Masculinity Vs Femininity
EC3	:	Individualism Vs Collectivism
GSE	:	General Self Efficacy
GEM	:	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
JAB	:	Joint Admissions Board
JKUAT	:	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
KU	:	Kenyatta University
KYEP	:	Kenya Youth Employment Project
KNBS	:	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
SCT	:	Social Cognitive Theory
TEA	:	Total Entrepreneurial Activity
TPB	:	Theory of Planned Behaviour
UoN	:	University of Nairobi
US	:	United States
UK	:	United Kingdom

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Oversupply of graduate manpower, unemployment growth in the country, and lack of positive feedback to the efforts made in the past to find a solution for the unemployment problem of graduates for the Kenyan youth have created an important ground for paying more attention to entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship is regarded as a crucial driver for economic well-being with most policy makers recognizing the critical role it plays towards national development. Entrepreneurs create jobs, drive and shape innovation, introduce new competition and contribute to overall economic growth.

According to data from the Kenya Youth Empowerment Project (KYEP), youth unemployment/inactivity in Kenya is twice the national average at 38% in 2011. This includes youth who are neither in school nor working. Given the persistent unemployment problem among the Kenyan youth, it is important for us to understand factors that influence entrepreneurship intentions and attitudes in Kenya. University graduates present a big proportion of youth with untapped job-creating potential. Given that entrepreneurship offers many opportunities for revitalisation and development of both local and national economies, one of the objectives of this study is to determine the effect of socio-cultural factors on university students' entrepreneurial intentions in the cultural context of Kenya's ethnic groups. The study also seeks to determine if participation in entrepreneurship education subject plays any significant role in enhancing such intentions.

Much research has tried to explain why some persons but not others choose to become entrepreneurs or why there exist differences between males and females entry rate into entrepreneurship activities. Various perspectives have emerged in the entrepreneurship literature in attempt to provide answers to this research question. This study draws heavily on the psychological and sociological framework of existing theory and research to assist in underpinning the investigation into what informs the decision to become (or not) an entrepreneur. Thus, The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), takes centre stage.

TPB is grounded on social psychology and explains that human behaviour is planned and is preceded by intention toward that behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). TPB provides an intentions model that has been used repeatedly for its predictive power and applicability on intention studies. Support exists for use of TPB in examining the antecedents to students entrepreneurial intentions, (Krueger et al., 2000; krueger, 2007; Kolvereid, 1996; Kolvereid & Isaken, 2006; Fayolle and Gailly, 2005; Fayolle and Degeorge, 2006). The studies applied TPB to explain mental process of making the decision to become an entrepreneur. They examined the TPB's predictive ability of intentions to start a business and confirmed that attitude and perceived behavioural control were significantly related to entrepreneurial intention.

Starting a new venture is an individual's personal decision. Most research in entrepreneurship concentrates on analyzing the firm-creation process once the decision to create has already been taken, thereby completely overlooking the internal processes that lead people to that decision. Often, the decision to start a new venture is seen to be so obvious to warrant serious attention. From this point of view, it is important to move beyond the question of which particular individuals will create new firms, and look at reasons why differences in regional start-up rates exist. The study suggests that examining the factors that influence peoples' inclinations or intentions towards entrepreneurship would best be tackled from a social-cultural perspective wherein attitudes, social norms, beliefs values and practices are nurtured in a particular direction that subsequently impacts on perceptions of career choices.

In this study, culture is examined at the ethnic-group level within the Kenyan context. Kenya is multi-ethnic and therefore multi-cultural in context. Ethnic groups within the country can be considered as subcultures. The subcultures preserve the main characteristics of the national culture from which they originate but also develop their own unique norms and beliefs (Usunier, 2000). Each ethnic group constitutes a unique community because of common culture (Lee et al., 2002). Given the potential relevance of culture, a basis is required for assessing its impact. Thus, the study of culture by ethnicity within Kenya's domestic context is feasible and appropriate since each ethnic group will have its own unique set of cultural values (Chadwick et al., 2004).

At face value, differences in entrepreneurial activity across Kenya's cultural groups are certainly not a new concept. Some cultural groups such as the Kikuyu and recently the Somali have been described as being more entrepreneurial than others. A wide range of factors have also been advanced as playing a significant role in influencing intentions to become entrepreneurs with mixed results. Given the socio-economic benefits generally attributed to entrepreneurship (Carree & Thurik, 2006), there is an urgent need to create a critical mass that is willing to go into self-employment beyond mere elimination of barriers that obstruct business development and growth, with the main goal being to encourage more people to become entrepreneurs. This awareness has stimulated academic, educational and governmental institutions to study the factors influencing entrepreneurial intentions in recent times.

Past studies have considered the individual's decision to become an entrepreneur to be dependent on personality traits. Thus, a person with "the proper personality profile" would be more likely to become an entrepreneur. Shaver & Scott (1991) refers to this as the "personological" approach. Studies focussing on the significance of personality profile in predicting start-up decisions have yielded mixed results. The inconsistencies in the results have mainly been blamed on methodological and theoretical aspects (Gartner, 1988; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shaver & Scott, 1991). A response to the limited success of the personality approach has been to study entrepreneurship as a career choice. Thus, various studies have proposed a shift in focus from the characteristics of the entrepreneur to the entrepreneurial process (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shaver & Scott, 1991), whereby entrepreneurs are identified by their participation in the process and not by a unique set of characteristics.

The resulting models of entrepreneurship as a process have thus divided entrepreneurship into three distinct stages: the pre-launch phase, the start-up phase, and growth phase (Baron 2002). The focus of this study is on the pre-launch phase. Ajzen (1987, 1991) contends that intentions precede behaviour (such as business launch) and are good predictors of behaviour. They serve as a conduit that enables us to better understand the act itself. Arguably, much of entrepreneurship is intentional. Therefore, understanding the consequences of intentions such as entrepreneurial actions requires that we understand the antecedents of intention (Ajzen, 1991). Use of well thought-out and research-tested intention models such as the Theory of Planned Behavior is recommended for use in

similar studies and therefore TPB as used in this study provides a good means of examining the precursors to business start-up. Research in Africa has barely investigated the effect of culture on intentions to found a new venture. This is a critical gap in knowledge given the competition of nations, regions and societies and the impact of entrepreneurship on economic growth and development. To address this gap, the study sought to explore the effects of intra-national cultures on entrepreneurial intentions among Kenya's university undergraduate students. Thus, the cross-cultural study analyzed the impact of cultural values based on Hofstede's cultural dimensions on students entrepreneurial intentions. According to Hofstede (2001), the word culture can be applied to any human collectivity or category such as an organisation, a profession, an age group, an entire gender, or a family. This particular perspective is important because it shows clearly that the construct of culture is applicable to an ethnic context.

Further, focus on university students in examining entrepreneurial intentions rather than focusing on entrepreneurs or comparing entrepreneurs with non-entrepreneurs present various advantages. First, the university students are at a stage in their life when the process of making career-related decisions is imminent. In addition, the pre-business phase eliminates the danger of confusing determinants of entrepreneurial behavior with characteristics that develop as a result of starting a business. Thus, the problems of hindsight bias and success bias can be largely avoided. Krueger et al. (2000) recommend studying entrepreneurial phenomena before they occur. Therefore use of Kenya's undergraduate university students is justified for this kind of study. Similar studies using university students include Krueger et al., (2000), Audet (2000) and Vecianne et al.,(2005).

1.1.1 Culture and Entrepreneurship

Attempts to define culture have proved challenging due to its shifting and amorphous character (Garrison, 1996). Hayton et al., (2000) describe culture as a set of shared values, beliefs and expected behaviours. Cascio (2002) looks at culture as the learned and shared ways of thinking and acting among a group of people or society. Hofstede (2001) defines culture as the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another. Hofstede's (2001) definition is adopted for the purpose of this study. The definition is appropriate for several reasons. Firstly, it implies that culture encompasses all the norms and beliefs of a society, that is, the total

way of life in a society. Thus, the definition allows the possibility of a culture to have impact on an individual's behaviour. Secondly, the definition is flexible in allowing different levels of culture. This is evident by the notion of 'group or category of people' within the definition, which means that culture is not necessarily restricted to a country basis. This is important, given that the focus of this study is not on national culture. Freytag & Thurik (2007) asserts that the relative stability of differences in entrepreneurial activity across countries suggests that factors other than economic ones are at play. The idea that culture could be associated with entrepreneurship and thus be a driver of economic growth has a long tradition. Building on Weber's work, McClelland (1961;1976) observes culture as the main driver behind the occurrence of capitalism and industrialization. Literature also emphasises culture as containing motivational content in entrepreneurs' behaviour.

Consistent with earlier views, studies have established a relationship between certain aspects of culture and economic growth (Hofstede 1991; Lynn 1991). In his theory of entrepreneurship, Weber (1904) argued that at the society level, differences in entrepreneurial activity can be explained by cultural and religious factors, especially a society's acceptance of the protestant work ethic. The assertion in the literature that there is a greater predisposition or propensity towards entrepreneurship in some societies than in others, also points to the implicit role of culture.

A variety of studies lend support to the argument that cultural values influence entrepreneurial behaviour (McGrath, MacMillan & Scheinberg, 1992). Review of a series of Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) reports, confirms that cultural and social norms are emphasised as the major strength of entrepreneurial orientation as well as the differentiating factor for high levels of entrepreneurial activity in different countries (Minni & Bygrave, 2003). The way people think about such matters as achievement, wealth, risk and so on, may influence how they approach entrepreneurship. A study by McGrath (1992b) reports, that entrepreneurs in 13 investigated countries differentiate from career professionals regarding to some culture dimensions.

Socialization factors such as parental influence also determine the need for achievement, which in turn generates an entrepreneurial propensity within a society. McClelland (1961), predicted that societies with cultures that emphasize achievement would exhibit greater levels of entrepreneurship than societies that do not. Shane (1992) linked

individualism to the level of inventiveness in a society. Thus the potential for and frequency of entrepreneurship has been shown to be associated to a greater or lesser extent with the occurrence of certain culture.

Literature further emphasizes culture as a possible explanation for the varying rates of entrepreneurs and their success across countries (Busenitz et al., 2000). Earlier studies also established a link between culture and entrepreneurship (Schumpeter, 1947; Weber, 1948; McClelland, 1961). However results of empirical research have been mixed. Some studies suggest entrepreneurs share a common set of values regardless of culture (McGrath et al., 1992), while other studies support the notion that culture will affect entrepreneurship (Busenitz & Lau, 1996; Shane, 1994). None of these studies look at cultural issues from an ethnic grouping perspective. Studies with a focus on intentions for new venture formations that arise from the attributes of these cultural variations are also lacking.

Moreover, a vast majority of these studies (Bruton et al., 2008; Fitzsimmons et al., 2005) have assumed a more homogeneous cultural character to the nations studied. While this may be true in Western and other European countries, it is clearly not true for African nations whose cultural character is best described as heterogeneous owing to the multi-ethnic nature of their composition. Thus, the generalization of the research findings from U.S. and Western-based studies to the rest of the world, especially Africa, is questionable. Understanding the relationship between Kenya's subcultures and entrepreneurship provides empirical evidence which is critical for policy decisions such as standardised versus localised entrepreneurship promotion programmes necessary to realising desirable economic growth.

Hofstede's (1980-2005) seminal contributions on cultural and organizational sociology have generated a wealth of applied studies world-wide. The wide application of Hofstede's cultural dimensions in entrepreneurship research is perhaps confirmation of the important role played by cultural values in influencing human behaviour and entrepreneurial intentions. For this study, the inclination for students' entrepreneurial intention is thus hypothesized that cultural determinants (gender and cultural values) may have a significant impact on students' entrepreneurial intentions. In the context of the current study, the impact of social-cultural factors is in particular investigated against the cultural diversity of public university students.

Thus, the study employs the cultural dimensions popularized by Hofstede (1991): power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, self esteem, and time orientation. Alternative dimensions have been suggested by other researchers (Gary, 2004), but Hofstede's dimensions are by far the most widely accepted and have been applied in many cross-cultural studies (Lee and Bruvold, 2003). Although there are critics to Hofstede's dimensions, they remain conceptually valid for explaining cultural differences. The dimensions are believed to be capable of explaining intra-country variations (Au, 1999), including individual values and attitudes which have strong cultural foundations.

According to Hofstede (2001, 2002) uncertainty avoidance, a cultural dimension regarded to rely on norms, rules and procedures and avoiding ambiguous situations, has been found to be valued lower among entrepreneurs (McGrath & MacMillan, 1992). In contrast, individualism, masculinity and power distance were valued consistently higher among entrepreneurs. These results suggest that culture dimensions may contribute to our understanding of values relating to successful entrepreneurship and probably discover connections between personality and entrepreneurship-related values. Therefore, taking ethnicity as a proxy for culture in this study, three of Hofstede's (1991) cultural dimensions, namely; individual-collectivism, uncertainty-avoidance and masculinity-femininity will be used in examining the effect of cultural dimensions on entrepreneurial intentions of students in Kenyan context.

1.1.2 Concept of Gender

Gender is a multi-dimensional concept which is best viewed as a social construction which lays the basis in account of form and function through which gender can be understood within different environments and cultures. Gender is widely accepted as an important socio-economic factor related to venture success (Ahl, 2006; Hellmann, 2007) which makes gender an important category for analysing entrepreneurial intentions. There are several competing theories attempting to explain why sex differences occur. The biological and psychological perspectives emphasize inherent differences, which range from genetic selection to biological tendencies that favour the nurturing qualities of women and the more aggressive and instrumental temperament of men.

For this study, gender is conceptualised from the sex difference perspective which states that maleness and femaleness are biologically determined attributes which have social implications (Hess and Ferree, 1987). The two perspectives are reviewed in Chapter 2 Literature Review of this study.

In their study, Matthews & Moser (1996) show the influence of gender on interest in business ownership. Studies have also noted gender differences in terms of levels of entrepreneurial self- efficacy (Chowdhury & Endres, 2005) and interest in starting a business (Gatewood et al., 2002). One striking feature in the literature is the entrepreneurial activity variations between males and females. Of interest in this study is whether entrepreneurial intentions vary between gender within Kenya's public universities' population. An earlier study indicated significant differences in the manifestation of entrepreneurial traits between males and females (Mungai and Ogot 2011). However, entrepreneurial intentions were not considered, which is the focus of this study.

Traditionally, cultural ideas on gender often mean that men are seen and see themselves as more instrumental and committed to business activities and careers than women (Alvesson, 2002). Thus, men were and still are privileged in terms of social position, career, income and authority. Most cultures, particularly in Africa are of masculine nature, with masculine notions, stereotypes, values, beliefs and assumptions. The argument that cultures should be gender-neutral has been advanced severally. One of the main concepts emphasized in line with this argument is “creating equal opportunities,” which involves the elimination of structural and cultural barriers and biases that inhibits women's entrepreneurial intentions evidenced in their low participation in business activities (Podony & Baron 1997; Burt, 1992; Ibarra, 1992 Morrison et al., 1987).

Sabin (1954) observed that self-concept also significantly contributes to gender participation in entrepreneurship activities. He defined self-concept as those ideas the individual has of himself or herself that he or she learned in relationship with others. Entrepreneurship scholars have also begun to recognize the potential power of a self-concept based approach for predicting entrepreneurial action and outcomes (Cardon et al., 2009; Krueger, 2007; Shepherd & Haynie, 2009).

They observe that self-concept can guide and motivate behavior, often to the extent that a self-conceptualised role becomes an actual one. Self-concept is a product of the social roles that an individual plays Sabin (1954). Thus, the self-concept which females hold is determined by the social roles that they play.

Advancing Sabin's view, Fenn (1976) holds that the socialization process for women stresses dependency, directedness, nurturance, sacrifice and caring which contributes to feelings of ambivalence about self worth. Female roles are often believed to contribute to a poor image of their self worth. They are constantly reminded that a woman's role is passive and non-assertive. To be accepted by society as 'normal', she has to subjugate herself. Gecas (1982) notes that the more one sees oneself as congruent with role meanings and standards, the more one will attempt to construct an identity based on that role. Thus, if a woman possesses intellectual ability, she has to underutilize that ability in order not to be considered a deviant. Studies observe that wanting to become a certain kind of person—motivate thoughts and actions to fulfill that desire (Cross & Markus, 1994; Markus & Nurius, 1987; Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2006; Vandell & Hoyle, 2008).

Cultural norms present gender differences with regard to participation in different economic activities. Earlier studies observed that female role in relation to the male was differently evaluated by the society and the female status regarded as inferior and subordinate to the male status. Character traits such as high self-concept, managerial competence, high commitment to work, favorable perception of work stress, aggressiveness, emotional stability, vigor and self-reliance necessary for entrepreneurial success (Akeredolu-Ale, 1975; Carland et al., 1984; Meredith et al., 1982; Olakanpo, 1968; Omololu, 1990; Onah, 1990; Schumpeter, 1954) were assigned by the society to males. The situation has not changed much particularly in our African society which is presumed in this study to have significant influence on entrepreneurial intentions between male and female students.

On the same breath, culturally prescribed sex roles often dictate the different ways men and women are supposed to act and the different tasks they are expected to undertake. Early socialisation practices also emphasise the primary role of women as mothers and wives and influence girls' total expectations for future participation in the labour force

and the choice of career paths. Earlier studies indicate that women are more vulnerable because tradition usually gives them less decision-making power over assets than men, while at the same time their opportunities to engage in remunerated activities, and therefore to acquire their own assets, are more limited (Blackden and Bhanu, 1998).

Considering the various cultural and structural challenges and obstacles facing women, someone may quickly conclude that women are usually discouraged from venturing into enterprise development. A study by Chitsike (2000) in Zimbabwe among the Shona, found that some women view making large amounts of money as a dirty pursuit, full of all kinds of evil (“she wants to make money like a prostitute”, p. 74). Women are traditionally brought up to associate making money with immorality and any entrepreneurial venture pioneered by a woman is frowned upon. Consistent empirical results emerging in the literature on female entrepreneurship is that gender matters.

Results from GEM 2007 indicate that women had a lower average score on the total entrepreneurial activity (TEA) index as compared to men, world over. In addition, women exhibit a consistently lower likelihood of becoming an entrepreneur than their male counterparts (Van Gelderen, 1999; Diochon et al., 2002; Reynolds et al., 2004; Wagner, 2005). With African nations being dominantly patriarchal, the extent to which women are able to freely participate in entrepreneurship activities will largely be determined by the existing cultural atmosphere. In this regard, Kiriti et al., (2003a) observe that African culture continues to be a barrier to development because it perpetuates culturally sanctioned biases against women and provides excuses for men which have resulted in lower intentions for participation of women in business activities.

Existing gender research has focused attention on “gender equality” at the work place. Evidently, there is scant literature on entrepreneurial intentions between gender conducted on societies with a pattern of shared values, beliefs and traits which are ideally associated with culture. Further, much of the evidence on gender-related entrepreneurial activity comes from studies based in the United States and European countries; placing the generalization of these findings in an African setting in question. This is considered an important research gap in the current study if, as the Kenyan nation, we have to address the gender disparities in entrepreneurial activities and its resultant limitations.

To fill this gap, the study suggests a cultural dimension to gender differences within the student population, and undertakes to empirically test the impact of both culture and gender on entrepreneurial intentions in an African context, Kenya.

Ahl (2006) also noted the one-sided empirical focus on men, the use of male-gendered measuring instruments and the lack of theoretical grounding in the review of entrepreneurship literature. De Bruin et al., (2007) suggest that existing theoretical concepts be expanded to incorporate explanations for the distinctiveness of women's entrepreneurship. Building on TPB, this study aims to contribute to an increased understanding of gender differences in entrepreneurial activity. The specific aim is to explore gender differences in entrepreneurial intentions across varying cultures as presented by university students. In this study therefore, two aspects of gender were investigated. First, gender roles were investigated as captured in Hofstede's dimensions of masculinity and femininity, and second, the biological concept of gender as either male or female was investigated.

1.1.3 Entrepreneurial Intentions

The fundamental activity of entrepreneurship is new venture creation, and the foremost step in any entrepreneurship venture creation process is the intention to do so. Studies provide evidence that much of 'entrepreneurial' activity is intentionally planned behaviour. Even in cases where a unique catalyzing event like being downsized may spur the individual to the entrepreneurial act, there are often indications of a long time interest and desire to become self-employed. As new business ventures emerge over time, pre-organizational phenomena such as deciding to initiate an entrepreneurial career increasingly become an area of research focus (Bird 1988; Katz & Gartner 1988). Intentions can therefore be seen as being typical of emerging ventures.

Entrepreneurial intention has been defined as the intention to start a new business (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994; Zhao et al., 2005), the commitment to performing behaviour that is necessary to physically start the business venture (Krueger, 1993), the intention to own a business (Crant, 1996), or the intention to be self-employed (Douglas and Shepherd, 2002; Kolvereid, 1996). Gupta & Bhawe (2007) observes that entrepreneurial intention is a state of mind that directs and guides the actions of the entrepreneur towards the development and implementation of a business concept. This study uses the definition of entrepreneurial intention as an individual's intention to be self-employed.

Entrepreneurial intentions are probably the most studied antecedent of venture creation (Dickson, Solomon, & Weaver 2008, p. 249). Ajzen (1991) asserts that action presupposes the conscious intention of carrying out such action. Besides the importance highlighted by Ajzen of intention as a concept in understanding behavior, Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud (2000) observe that intentions are the best predictor of planned behavior particularly when the behavior in question is rare, hard to observe, or involves unpredictable time lags (p. 411) as is the case with entrepreneurship. Past research showed that intentions are one of the best predictors of entrepreneurial behavior (Kolvereid 1996). This is in congruence with Bagozzi et al. (1989) observation that intentions are the single best predictor of planned behaviour. Thus, Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud (2000) advocates promotion of entrepreneurial intentions by promoting public perceptions of feasibility and desirability.

Any planned behaviour is best predicted by observing intentions toward that behaviour. Therefore, to understand why individuals pursue self-employment, it is critical to understand the nature and the precursors of intentions of putting up business venture for self-employment (Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud, 2000). Throughout the historical development of the entrepreneurship concept, several recurrent themes are manifested, and have become the foundation for the multi-dimensional conceptualizations that emerge from the literature. Entrepreneurial activity is today seen as a consequence of positive entrepreneurial intentions. These intentions to go into business are shaped by perceptions about entrepreneurship which are influenced by composite factors within our social and cultural context.

A review of the extant literature reveals that there are several models explaining the nature, antecedents, and effects of entrepreneurial intention, Gelderen et al (2006). Often, research regarding entrepreneurial intentions is based on psychosocial models of intention, such as the TPB, the entrepreneurial model developed by Shapero & Sokol (1982) and Krueger's model (1993). The current study has its grounding on the psychosocial theories and borrows heavily from the above models and others that have attempted to explain the relationship between an individual's personal characteristics and subsequent intentions (eg. Ajzen, 1987; Shapero, 1982; Bird, 1988; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). Thus, starting a business is a conscious and intended act (Bird, 1988).

From this perspective, entrepreneurial intentions serve as the key to understanding the entrepreneurial process as they guide subsequent action and motivation to create a new venture (Katz & Gartner, 1988; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). TPB is the model of choice in this study.

Studying intentions rather than venturing decisions of actual founders (Eisenhauer, 1995) or differences between founders and others (Stewart & Roth, 2001) has two key advantages. First, psychological research suggests that intentions are the best predictors for behavior, such as entrepreneurial activity. Second, alternative options would be rare, difficult to observe, or involve unpredictable time lags (Bird & Jelinek, 1988; Ajzen, 1991; Souitaris et al., 2007). The proposed model for this study examines intentions by seeking to identify factors that may directly or indirectly affect entrepreneurial intentions by influencing attitudes of an entrepreneurial personality and perceptions such as desirability and feasibility which are discussed in the sections that follow.

1.1.4 Entrepreneurial Perceptions

The intention to go into business is preceded by a perceived possibility for success which makes entrepreneurship both desirable and feasible in the eyes of a potential entrepreneur. Davidsson et al. (2006) argue that entrepreneurial behavior is fundamentally influenced by perceived ability, need, and opportunity. Therefore in predicting entrepreneurial intentions, the key question should be how cognition influences motivation and the entrepreneur's perception as well as how it validates entrepreneurial options compared with conventional employment alternatives (Campbell, 1992; Katz, 1992; Eisenhauer, 1995).

This study looks at entrepreneurial perceptions from two dimensions: perceived desirability defined as the attractiveness of starting a business as perceived by the person; and perceived feasibility defined as the level or degree of personal competence to start a business as felt by the person. In essence, perceived desirability reflects one's affect toward entrepreneurship (Shapiro 1982). Such perception affects the entrepreneurial event through individual value systems and is dependent on the social system the individual is part of (family, peer groups, ethnic groups, educational and professional contexts).

Similarly, perceived feasibility is derived from the belief in one's own competence (self-efficacy) and from the belief that the situation will permit one to exercise that capability (Bandura & Wood 1989). It simply means a belief in oneself that an ideal opportunity is achievable (Shapero 1981, 1982).

Arguably, every individual has the potential to become an entrepreneur. Some of them will venture into entrepreneurship while others, for various reasons will not. It is therefore important to understand the influence of individual perception of abilities as well as the perception of societal attitudes towards entrepreneurship that together impact individuals' vocational choice. Research to date points to a positive relationship between self-efficacy and the choice of entrepreneurial activity (Chen, Greene & Crick, 1998). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy differentiates entrepreneurs from managers (Chen, Greene & Crick, 1998), as well as individuals who have created their own ventures from those who have not decided to do so (Markman, et al., 2002; Markman, et al., 2005). In both cases, it is higher in entrepreneurs. Further, research conducted on medical equipment inventors has shown that general self-efficacy is considerably higher in those who have started firms than in those who have not (Markman, Baron & Balkin, 2005). Self-efficacy, general as well as entrepreneurial, is an important predictor of entrepreneurial intention in unemployed individuals. It is also higher in those who intend to create their own ventures (Laguna, 2006a).

1.1.5 Entrepreneurial Disposition

The personality approach to entrepreneurship attempts to explain relationships between entrepreneurial performance and personality traits. Results have been inconsistent mainly attributed to methodological and definitional problems. However, there is evidence that personality traits influence vocational choice and that people try to fit their jobs to certain preferred job and work environments.

Researchers offer a wide range of definitions of entrepreneurial personality that may predict broad categories of behaviour. Among them is the traits school (Brauckmann et al., 2008) which argues that behaviour is not solely based on learned reactions but on stable traits of the acting individual. These traits form dispositions to act in a certain way and can be understood as propensities to act (Rauch & Frese, 2007). Together they make up personalities (Barkhuus & Csank, 1999). Hermann (1991) describes personality as 'a

stable behavioural correlate which endures over time' P.29). Thus, the traits which make up a personality influence action and hence, affect entrepreneurial behavior (Fallgatter, 2002). This study therefore understands entrepreneurial personality as a combination of stable traits common to entrepreneurs, and uncommon to the rest of the population.

Starting a new business is a challenging long-term process that must be preceded by intention and subsequent decision to do so. Often, entrepreneurial intentions are formed way before the implementation and in the face of uncertainties. Therefore, the personal characteristics of the potential founder are critical at this stage. Past studies have concentrated their attention on the role of the founder's personal traits during the process of business development (Baron & Markman, 2007) once the intention and implementation decisions have long been made. Shapero (1982) conceptualized the personal characteristics that push one to act in the face of uncertainty and adversity as "propensity to act" also referred to as the personal disposition to act on one's decisions. Personal disposition in essence reflects volitional aspects of intentions ("I will do it"). Conceptually, propensity to act on an opportunity depends on perceptions which find their grounding in the social cultural environment. This study examines the role of personal characteristics in predicting entrepreneurial intentions from the perspective of the Theory of Planned Behavior.

Schneider (1987) observes that people are more attracted to activities that match their personalities and find such jobs more satisfying than other occupational categories. Need for achievement, autonomy and risk-taking are vital characteristics for entrepreneurial intentions (Shane, 2003). Ajzen (1991) views attitude towards behaviour as the degree to which an individual has favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour. Thus, for entrepreneurial intentions to be translated into self-employment, it depends on the entrepreneur's personality and abilities (Majumdar, 2008). Crisp & Turner (2007) found that attitude and behavioural intentions are positively related; and attitudes towards behaviour leads to intention which eventually leads to actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The section that follows looks at the concept of entrepreneurship education and whether participation in the course has any determining impact on entrepreneurial intentions.

1.1.6 Entrepreneurship Education

One crucial element for fostering entrepreneurship is motivating individuals to become entrepreneurs and to equip them with the right skills to turn opportunities into successful ventures (Bécharde & Grégoire 2005; Pittaway & Cope 2007; Solomon et al., 2002). Therefore, encouraging entrepreneurship has not only become global wisdom in government decisions, but the demand for entrepreneurship education has also gained a lot of popularity among college and university students.

The central premise behind the popularity is that entrepreneurship is a learned phenomenon. This view finds convergence with the suggestion that entrepreneurs are not born, but created by their experience as they grow and learn, being influenced by teachers, parents, mentors, and role models during their growth (Dickson et al., 2008; Klandt 2004; Kolvereid 1996). Undoubtedly, entrepreneurship education is essential in shaping the mindsets of young people as well as providing skills and knowledge central to developing an entrepreneurial culture. However, despite huge investment towards entrepreneurship education and training by institutions, there is very little evidence to demonstrate its benefits.

A number of studies have attempted to measure the effect of entrepreneurship education on intentions, attitudes, and perceptions (Detienne & Chandler, 2004; Galloway et al., 2005; Galloway & Brown, 2002; Hindle & Cutting, 2002; and Peterman & Kennedy, 2003). Most of these impact studies on entrepreneurship education support the hypothesis that entrepreneurship education has a positive impact on entrepreneurial behavior and intentions (e.g., Hansemark 1998; Liao & Gartner 2008; Wilson et al., 2007). Critics to this approach argue that there are serious limitations of such studies in evaluating attitudes toward entrepreneurship and the economic environment Galloway et al.(2005), while Leitch & Harrison (1999) argue for a more fine-grained examination of exactly what is having an impact on students, why and how. But Peterman & Kennedy (2003) claim that some of the highlighted benefits of entrepreneurship education may be due to lack of rigorous research in the area of research focus.

Perhaps analyzing the role of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurship intentions is best addressed at the higher institutions of learning such as the universities. In a direct manner, universities serve as a society's breeding ground for new technology, research

and information or knowledge networks which are integral elements for new innovative ventures (Bull & Winter, 1991; Pennings, 1982). In a more subtle way, educational institutions can be a source or barrier to entrepreneurship because they set the rules as to how information and knowledge will be transferred (Aldrich & Wiedermayer, 1993). These rules form opinions that are likely to influence career related decisions upon graduation.

In Kenya, this increasing trend on entrepreneurship programs is mainly triggered by government policies and programmes geared towards the promotion of entrepreneurship. Such programs are designed to promote preference for self-employment as a viable career option (Low & MacMillan, 1988; Souitaris et al., 2007). Recognition of the increasing importance of entrepreneurship in economic development has seen the emergence of numerous entrepreneurship education programs at tertiary institutions throughout the world. Higher education institutions such as universities and colleges have developed and included entrepreneurship subjects and courses to be consistent with the Government's mandate that just about all degree programmes should enable students to gain skills not only for successful corporate work but also for self-employment.

Relevant literature on this line of research suggest that individuals who have gone through entrepreneurship courses are more adept in discovering and exploiting entrepreneurial opportunities. Formal education is also seen to assist in the accumulation of explicit knowledge that may be useful to entrepreneurs (Martin et al., 2013). It is expected that by undergoing formal entrepreneurial education training, or having specialised courses intergrated with entrepreneurship course, individuals will acquire knowledge and skills necessary to take on the challenges of setting up one's own business (De Clercq & Arenius, 2006). The extant literature however offers divergent views on the impact these programmes have on the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals (Matlay, 2006; Harris et al., 2008).

The study aims to examine the impact of entrepreneurship education on university students' entrepreneurial intentions by proposing that students who have been exposed to an entrepreneurship education course during their specialization course are more likely to choose an entrepreneurial career.

The study assumes a more general theoretical content in the teaching of entrepreneurship and therefore does not go beyond the scope of exposure to entrepreneurship education among the students.

1.1.7 Higher Education Sector in Kenya

Since independence in 1963, the Kenya Government has addressed challenges facing the education sector, in general and the higher education sector specifically through Commissions, Committees and Taskforces (Ominde Report, 1964; Sessional Paper No: 10 of 1965 and Mackay Report, 1981) that sought to reform the education system inherited from the colonial government to make it more responsive to the needs of independent Kenya. More recent reports have seen the transformation of higher education and training in Kenya, (Kinyanjui Report, 2006; Some 2012), and the national strategy for university education.

In 2012, there were 7 public universities and 19 public university colleges in Kenya, with the total enrollment having increased from 3,443 students in 1970 to 159,752 students (59,665 females and 100,087 males) in 2009/2010 (JAB 2009/2010). Traditionally, Kenyan universities have educated graduates for employment in the public sector and the established firms. Thus, the role of the Kenyan universities was less focused on developing future entrepreneurs. With the rapid change of economic and social conditions in Kenya, it is becoming increasingly evident that entrepreneurship is the desired bridge in reducing the gap between the current and the desired levels of economic growth.

In tandem with the rising numbers of university graduands pouring into the job market every year, and in cognizance of the critical role of entrepreneurship in creating job opportunities for the graduates, entrepreneurship programs have become a function of the universities as they seek to include entrepreneurship courses in university education curriculum spanning across several fields of specialization. Given that these courses are developed to teach and encourage entrepreneurial behaviour, understanding their impact on the students' intentions to choose self-employment as a career are critical. But the complex question of 'how to learn' and 'how to teach' entrepreneurship (Fayolle & Klandt, 2006) is a continuing quest in research that was not addressed in the study.

1.1.8 Undergraduate Students in Kenyan Universities

Employability of university graduates and their ability to start new businesses to employ other Kenyans while contributing to the Country's economic well being are central to the mission of the university education system. Support exist for use of university students as appropriate subjects in research on entrepreneurial intent and behaviour (Khera & Benson, 1970; Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud, 2000). Thus, they are well positioned for the purpose of this study.

In particular, the use of government-sponsored students admitted through the public universities Joint Admissions Board (JAB) in the study is considered important for various reasons. First, they comprise a culturally diverse group selected from all over the country with due consideration of affirmative action in regard to gender composition. Second, they constitute a dynamic age group (early to mid-twenties) in which the study of attitudes towards entrepreneurship is desirable. Students samples have been successfully used in previous research by among others, Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud (2000). Further, career related decisions are imminent at this stage (Harvey & Evans, 1995). In addition they are unlikely to have any or substantial prior business experience as all of them are admitted directly after secondary school. These aspects render students as a relatively homogenous group which allows for the examination of entrepreneurial process prior to actual self-employment behaviour.

1.2 Research Problem

Culture is emphasised in the literature as a differentiating factor for entrepreneurial activities across countries (Minniti & Bygrave, 2003). Hofstede's seminal contributions on culture is applied in this study to investigate the inclination for university students' entrepreneurial intention by hypothesizing that cultural determinants (cultural values) may have a significant impact on students' entrepreneurial intentions. Gender related constraints are also considered from a cultural perspective because such constraints tend to shape women's entrepreneurial behaviour (Rutashboya & Nchimbi, 1999). Thus, in the context of the current study, the two factors are operationalised as social-cultural factors and their impact on entrepreneurial intentions investigated against the cultural diversity of public university students, where ethnicity serves as a cultural unit.

The social-cultural factors mentioned above serve as a seedbed for socialising members of the particular groups. Such socialisation range from cultural norms about appropriate behavior Triandis (1980) to perceptions on entrepreneurship versus paid jobs upon university graduation (Mayer et al., 2007), all of which may either hinder or foster an entrepreneurial personality and therefore entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, individuals will base their evaluations of desirability and feasibility of an entrepreneurial career on perceptions conveyed by their social and cultural context. Similarly, propensity to act in an entrepreneurial manner (entrepreneurial disposition) conceptually depend on perceptions which find their grounding in the social-cultural environment. The study therefore examines the role of students' social-cultural context in predicting entrepreneurial intentions from the perspective of the Theory of Planned Behavior.

Culture, gender, personality disposition, entrepreneurial perceptions, are all separately yet closely linked to entrepreneurial intention. However, empirical studies in support of this link are still lacking. Hayton et al., (2002), observe that empirical investigations into entrepreneurial intentions formation have given limited attention to socio-cultural variables. Zahra & George (2002) observe that the influence of cultural and social factors on venture start-ups remains under studied. Literature addressing the impact of culture on entrepreneurship and economic development suggest that decisions made independently of specific cultural context are less likely to succeed and endure, than those that consider culture.

Previous research yielded inconsistent and inconclusive findings on the antecedents of entrepreneurial interest, motivations, and behaviour (Segal et al., 2005; Zhao, Seibert, & Hills, 2005; Gelderen et al.,2006). In addition, the role of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial behaviour remains an exciting area for research (Fayolle et al., 2006; Greene & Rice, 2007; Harris et al., 2008). Researchers in the field suggest that current entrepreneurship research should be concerned with how entrepreneurship education influences the decision to become entrepreneurs (Shane & Venkatraman, 2001, p.16).

Accordingly, examining the impact of entrepreneurship education on the student respondents in terms of their entrepreneurial intentions and inclusion of socio-cultural variables in intention models is a research endeavour consistent with the prescribed research directions of the field.

A majority of the studies on entrepreneurship have focused their attention on the Western and Asian countries assuming a homogeneous cultural character in national culture in respect of the nations studied. In Africa, local cultures in different regions vary due to dominant ethnic identification and Kenya is no different resulting in a multi-faceted cultural character due to multi-ethnic composition. Thus, findings based on national cultures from the Western world may not necessarily be applicable to the African context where sub-cultures subsume the national culture. The focus of this study is to subject the TPB in a Kenyan context to determine the influence of the these (ethnic) cultures on public universities' students entrepreneurial intentions using Hofstede's (1991) measure of cultural values.

The fundamental difference of this theory with respect to the previously mentioned models is in the role played by the socio-cultural context, i.e. the emphasis of culture and gender on the person to make the entrepreneurial decision. The student population used in the study provides a convenient sample of respondents from culturally diverse backgrounds. Wilson et al., (2004) note that little is known about differences in entrepreneurial intentions and attitudes among students belonging to different cultures. In a related study, Harvey & Evans (1995) observe that career related decisions are imminent for students at completion or near completion stage of a university undergraduate course. Further, it is unlikely that these category of students have any or substantial prior business experience. These aspects render the use of students appropriate for this type of study.

In spite of the strong empirical support for TPB theory in explaining entrepreneurial career choices (Krueger et al., 2000; Peterman & Kennedy, 2003; Souitaris et al., 2007), the researchers concede that TPB does not include several person or situation variables that were empirically linked to entrepreneurial intentions, such as personality traits (Douglas & Shepherd, 2002; Lee & Wong, 2004), gender (Matthews & Moser, 1996) and ethnicity (Linan & Chen, 2006), among others.

Further, studies suggesting a link between cultural values and the decision to become an entrepreneur have not established a direct relationship between the social- cultural factors and entrepreneurial intentions. Even more scarce is research on the influence of an individual's sub-culture on entrepreneurial decision-making by Hofstede's measure of cultural values.

Finally, while entrepreneurial intention has become a popular research topic, only a limited number of studies has focused on the entrepreneurial intention of students (Wong, Chen & Chua, 2005; Luthje & Franke, 2003). This study attempts to fill the aforementioned gaps by addressing the research question: How does the socio-cultural context influence entrepreneurial intentions of public universities' undergraduate students in Kenya? This research adopts an intention-based approach in order to understand the socio- cultural factors influencing the students entrepreneurial intentions.

The Theory of Planned Behavior provides the framework through which the cognitive process is explained to provide an understanding on how students' social-cultural orientation may impact their entrepreneurial intentions. Entrepreneurial intentions are therefore the outcome variable from the cognitive process associated with both perceptual evaluation of feasibility and desirability of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial disposition, while the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education on intentions is also investigated.

1.3 Research Objectives

The broad objective of the study is to examine the effect of socio-cultural factors on entrepreneurial intentions of Kenya's public university students.

The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- i. To establish the effect of culture on entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial disposition, and entrepreneurial perceptions
- ii. To determine the effect of entrepreneurial disposition, and entrepreneurial perceptions on entrepreneurial intentions
- iii. To determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial disposition, entrepreneurial perceptions, and inclination to take an entrepreneurship education course

- iv. To determine existence of differences between gender with regard to entrepreneurially related variables
- v. To determine the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions, and on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions
- vi. To determine the joint effect of predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions.

1.4 Value of the Study

This study makes significant contributions on various fronts. The Kenya Government development blue print is captured in its 25 years development plan Vision 2030. For Vision 2030 to achieve its intended targets both in growth and decrease in inequality, it must create sufficient jobs in the informal sector, generate a more rapid increase in incomes of those in low paying sectors of the economy and create a large number of new entrepreneurs (SID 2010). If the Kenya Government is therefore to realise its Vision 2030 and enjoy the benefits of increased entrepreneurial activity, it must seek to understand the key variables that may constrain or harness the growth of entrepreneurship. This becomes increasingly urgent if we have to compensate for employment problems created by corporate restructuring and downsizing. Thus, the study will make the following contributions.

First, it has provided evidence about the determinants of entrepreneurial intentions among potential entrepreneurs in the context of a developing country. Among these determinants is entrepreneurship education and its potential effect on entrepreneurship intentions. Focusing on students' learning as manifested by the knowledge they gain from the entrepreneurship programmes allows knowing how to effectively teach the course in a manner that will maximise likelihood of individuals to start a business (Fiet, 2000). Likewise, the study's attempt at seeking greater insights on the factors that shape an individual's decision to start a business could lead to better designs for entrepreneurship promotion initiatives and also inform policy for local economic and development programmes (Matlay, 2005).

In addition, the study provides evidence about the presence or absence of direct and indirect cultural and gender effects on entrepreneurial intentions in Kenya. This will create insights into why some cultural groups may appear to lag behind their counterparts in entrepreneurship with the aim of providing interventions for those lagging behind beyond mere elimination of barriers and obstructs to the growth of entrepreneurship. Further, although several studies have attempted cross-national replication, their analysis have not specifically explored the impact of culture at ethnic group level. Thus, by incorporating culture at this level, the study addresses one of the limitations of earlier studies and provides empirical evidence for the existence of these differences thereby contributes further to theory development by providing validation of the Hofstede's dimensions for measuring culture in an ethnic context.

Finally, in tandem with prior studies that investigated entrepreneurial intentions (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; Krueger et al., 2000), this study provides support for use of Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour (1991) as the basis for an entrepreneurial intentions model to test the antecedents to self-employment intention within Kenya's social-cultural context. Therefore, the study confirms the efficacy of the intention models in predicting entrepreneurial behaviour thereby validating the literature in this area of research. Further, by linking socio-cultural factors, mentioned in the literature to the intention model, the study provides empirical support to psych-social approach to entrepreneurship adopted by prior studies and extends the approach's explanations by supporting the emerging social cognitive theory that links entrepreneurial process to the theory of planned behavior.

Examining entrepreneurial motivation across cultural groups is pivotal to understanding entrepreneurial intentions, since little evidence exists on intentions and its antecedents from non-Western cultures (Vecchio, 2003). The researcher could not find any cultural study of entrepreneurial intentions and its antecedents across different ethnic groups in Kenya. Thus, the study makes an original and important contribution to the literature and extends existing knowledge given the diverse range of cultural groups in Kenya. It also opens avenues for further research that may seek to validate the study further.

1.5 Structure of Thesis

The thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the context within which the research is undertaken, presents the research problem, and sets out the aim and objectives of the study. The scope and the main contributions of the research to knowledge are also presented.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature focusing on cross-cultural and social psychology theories while paying special attention to factors that are considered as antecedents to entrepreneurship intentions. The chapter also seeks to highlight deficits that still exist in cultural entrepreneurship research particularly within African countries, and the lack of emphasis and research on the role of exogenous factors like culture and gender within intention models in the quest for improving entrepreneurship intention models that may fit the culturally-diverse reality of multicultural populations such as in Africa.

In particular, this chapter seeks to draw attention to the paucity of empirical research on social-cultural context and its impact on entrepreneurial behaviour. In order to conduct an empirical investigation on the set of relationships implied in the research study, a conceptual framework that brings together all the essential factors in a logical manner is formulated. It is this a conceptual model which is intended to aid the identification of appropriate hypotheses, data collection and hypotheses testing.

Chapter 3, provides an outline of the research methodology adopted for undertaking this research. A quantitative research methodology is adopted and arguments justifying the choice of this approach presented. The Chapter also presents details of; research design, target population, sample of the study, sampling techniques, research instrument and the data collection process.

Chapter 4 presents the data analysis, with discussions outlining the characteristics of the study sample to set the context within which the research was conducted. Thus an overview of the general profile of sample is provided and inferences drawn. The extent to which the findings reported in a research study can be trusted relies on the process of validation undertaken to confirm (or disconfirm) the findings of the research. Thus a description of the validation process that was undertaken in respect of this research, and

the conclusions drawn from the findings are presented in this chapter. Finally, the Chapter explores the outcomes of the potential relationships that were predicted in chapter two of this study. Models of the proposed relationships are developed to determine whether or not any significant associations exist which also provide the basis of either accepting or rejecting the proposed hypothesis.

Chapter 5 comprises a summary of the entire research and the ensuing discussions on the results of the tests of hypothesis extracted in Chapter 4. It outlines the main findings of the research as well as the specific findings while at the same time drawing comparisons and contrasts from past studies.

Finally chapter 6 provides a critical reflection of the entire research, drawing conclusions, highlighting the limitations of the research and aspects where there is potential for improvement, is provided. The Chapter concludes with some recommendations for policy makers, and some recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Entrepreneurship theory has been developed over time by addressing questions through inductive approaches in other established disciplines such as economics, psychology, sociology and management studies. Contribution of theoretical inputs from these disciplines has led to the establishment of entrepreneurship as a distinct scholarly domain. Thus while entrepreneurship is still not considered a mature domain, key areas of research continue to increase through an enhanced, discipline-specific, theoretical approach of its own kind (Cornelius et al., 2006).

This chapter gives an in depth analysis of the theories touching on the relationships inferred in the study. Therefore, the theoretical framework for the current study is based on the broader psycho-social theories of entrepreneurship, wherein the Theory of Planned Behaviour and Traits Theory and Social Cognition Theory are also grounded. The process of entrepreneurship is analyzed using three kinds of variables involved in any start-up, namely: the person(s) on whom the decision to go into entrepreneurship lies; the environment as defined by the social-cultural nexus; and the characteristics of the opportunity to be exploited.

2.2 Theoretical Perspectives of the study

Much research has tried to explain why some persons but not others choose to become entrepreneurs. There are various perspectives in the entrepreneurship literature with a large body of this literature focusing on the psychological and functionalist perspectives. The psychological perspective plays a part in understanding entrepreneurs' motivations while the functionalist perspective is interested in the utility of entrepreneurship performance. The sociological perspective concentrates on meanings and interpretations in interaction. This study draws heavily on the psychological and sociological framework of existing theory and research to assist in underpinning the investigation into what informs the decision to become (or not) an entrepreneur. Thus, the Theory of Planned Behavior takes centre stage in this chapter wherein the concept of entrepreneurial intention is recently emerged.

At the centre of the psychological and sociological theories are the Traits Model, Social Cognitive Theory and Theory of Planned Behavior. The proponents of the Traits Models argued that some personal, sociological and demographic factors (Reynolds et al., 1994; Storey, 1994) influenced the decision to become an entrepreneur (Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991; Herron & Robinson, 1993; Sexton & Bowman, 1985). They claimed that personality traits of the entrepreneur were a significant element of an overall model of entrepreneurship. However, the trait models were criticized by some researchers who argued that entrepreneurship was a process to create a new company and that it should be understood by studying the individual activities, processes and outcomes rather than personal characteristics (Gartner, 1988; Van de Ven, 1984).

Consequently, the research focus shifted to cognition theories. From this perspective, it was argued that entrepreneurship is planned (Krueger et al., 2000) and therefore advocated for an investigation on how the entrepreneurial decision is adopted. Hence intention-based models (Ajzen, 1987, 1991; Bird, 1988; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Shapero & Sokol, 1982) emerged and were adopted to explain entrepreneurial behaviors. The researchers in this stream of research believe that while exploiting a business opportunity, people need to concentrate on the cognitive processes that influence their perception of self-capability, control and intentions. The intention-based models have been said to explain the entrepreneurship process better than do the traditional trait models. The following section describes these models and examines their problems and appropriateness for this particular focus of research.

2.3 Traits Approach to Entrepreneurship Orientation

The traits model assumes that personality traits are the basis for individual differences. Personality traits are defined as “characteristics of individuals that exert pervasive influence on a broad range of trait-relevant responses” (Ajzen, 2005, p2). The trait approach to entrepreneurship has been pursued by many researchers in an attempt to separate entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs and to identify a list of character traits specific to the entrepreneur. For instance McClelland (1971) and Rauch & Frese (2000) suggest that need for achievement should be higher in people who start a business. Similar result appears for locus of control (Rotter 1966), Innovativeness, competitive aggressiveness, and autonomy (Utsch et al. 1999), protestant work ethic beliefs (Bonnett & Furnham 1991) and risk taking (Begley & Boyd 1987), among others.

In the trait model, personality traits are seen as the determining factors of behavior that make a person perform in a relatively consistent way across various circumstances. (Bird, 1988; Grant, 1996) observed that traits are significantly associated with entrepreneurial motivation and intentions. The traits models rely on the assumption that entrepreneurs possess certain traits that distinguish them from others. These psychological traits, also called entrepreneurial characteristics, include achievement motivation, locus of control, risk-taking propensity, tolerance of ambiguity, self-confidence, innovation, energy level, need for autonomy and independence, etc. There is no agreement however on the number of traits, specific to the entrepreneur, or their validity. In this thesis, only three of the most frequently confirmed personality traits, namely, need for achievement, risk-taking propensity and autonomy are adopted and reviewed. Rauch & Frese (2007) used the same traits in their meta-analysis of the effect of personality on entrepreneurship

The traits theorists offer a micro-perspective of what can be considered as enduring factors, which lead to entrepreneurship, such as the persona of the entrepreneur, cultural affiliation and personal motivation. This perspective foccuses on the psychological, social, cultural, and ethnic characteristics of individuals involved in entrepreneurship (Thornton, 1999). These approaches emphasize the entrepreneur's dispositional profile characterised by the traits mentioned above among other attributes. But Chell (2000) suggests that it is not clear whether some of the studied attributes precede entrepreneurial behaviour or whether entrepreneurs acquire them in the process. Furthermore, entrepreneurs may possess some, but not necessarily all of the traits highlighted in the literature, bringing us to the conclusion that not one stereotypical personality model fits. Table 2.1 presents seven of the most popular entrepreneurial traits studied in the entrepreneurship literature . This is followed by a summary of their contribution.

Table 2.1: Summary of the Studies of the Most Popular Entrepreneurial Traits

Psychological trait	Authors
Need for achievement	Begley & Boyd, 1987; Henry et al., 2003; McClelland, 1961
Need for power	Hatch & Zweig, 2000; McClelland, 1961
Need for affiliation	McClelland, 1961; Wainer & Rubin, 1969.
Internal locus of control	Begley & Boyd, 1987; Bird, 1988; Brockhaus, 1975; Chen et al., 1998; Cromie, 2000; Cromie & Johns, 1982; Sexton & Bowman, 1985; O’Gorman & Cunningham, 1997; Rotter, 1966
Desire for autonomy	Davidsson, 1995; Kets de Vries, 1996; Kirby, 2003 ; Lawrence & Hamilton, 1997; van Gelderen & Jansen, 2006.
Tolerance of ambiguity Uncertainty	Busenitz, 1996; Douglas & Shepherd, 2000; Gaglio & Katz, 2001; Hornaday & Bunker, 1970; Kirzner, 1979; Knight, 1921; MacDonald, 1970; McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Mitton, 1989; Schumpeter, 1934; Sexton & Bowman, 1985
Risk-taking propensity	Begley & Boyd, 1987; Brice, 2002; Brockhaus, 1980; Drucker, 1985; Kets de Vries, 1996 ; Palich & Bagby, 1995; Shaver and Scott, 1992; Simon et al., 2000 ; Stewart & Roth, 2001.

Source; Adopted from McStay 2011

2.3.1 Risk Taking Propensity

An individual's risk-taking propensity can be defined as their inclination to accept risk comfortably (Brice, 2002). Stewart & Roth (2001) looked at the risk propensity differences between entrepreneurs and managers in a meta-analysis of twelve studies of entrepreneurial risk-taking propensity. Five of the studies showed no significant differences, with the remaining seven supporting the notion that entrepreneurs are moderate risk-takers.

Across the twelve studies, five different risk-propensity measures were used, and one of the reasons attributed to the lack of consensus in the research results is methodological issues (Shaver & Scott, 1991). Simon et al. (2000) suggest that factors affecting an individuals' perceived risk assessments include cognitive biases such as, overconfidence and the illusion of control.

2.3.2 Desire for Autonomy

Entrepreneurs have been found to have a higher need for independence and autonomy which arises from fear of external control from others (Kirby, 2003). They dislike rules and tend to work out how to get around them, and as a consequence have even been considered deviants who desire to be independent of everyone and in total control (Kets de Vries, 1977). They value individualism and freedom more than the general public or managers even if those values imply some inequalities in society (Fagenson, 1993; McGrath, MacMillan, & Scheinberg, 1992).

The need for autonomy has been stated by entrepreneurs as one of the most frequent explanations for new venture creation and has been supported in studies by several authors (Davidsson, 1995; Lawrence & Hamilton, 1997; van Gelderen & Jansen, 2006). Thus, desire for autonomy is a central feature of entrepreneurship although its causal order is difficult to explain. That is, do individuals with high desire for autonomy start a venture because they want autonomy or do they want autonomy because they do not want others to take control of what they have once created?

2.3.3 Need for Achievement

The need for achievement was developed by McClelland (1961) in furtherance to Max Weber's work (1904,1970) on society and economic development. Need for achievement in relation to entrepreneurs refers to their need to achieve as a motivational factor. Past evidence suggests that entrepreneurs see profits as a measure of success and not just as a goal. It is the prospect of achievement (not money) that drives them.

In his study, McClelland found that entrepreneurs rated high on need achievement and were very competitive when their results were measured. Individuals demonstrating a high need for achievement are focussed, committed, and have a real desire to do well in all they do in life. McClelland (1965) presents a strong argument in support of the view that achievement motivation can be taught (Henry et al., 2003). This is important and relevant for entrepreneurship educators to understand in the development of entrepreneurship pedagogy. Notwithstanding the significant contribution made by McClelland to the psychological traits in entrepreneurship research, as with other entrepreneurial characteristics, consistent causal associations are yet to be proven (Brockhaus, 1982).

In summary, the trait approach to entrepreneurship has made an important contribution even though generally speaking, weak direct relationships have been found between the traits of entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in the past research (Brockhaus, 1982; Begley & Boyd, 1987; Low & MacMillan, 1988). Researchers accept that a reliable personality profile of the typical entrepreneur does not exist (Chell, 2000) and that it is not clear whether some of the studied attributes precede entrepreneurial behaviour or whether entrepreneurs acquire them in the process.

Only three of the commonly cited stable personality characteristics have the focus in this research. Gartner (1988) work signalled the beginning of the shift away from the personality traits research in the field. Baum et al., (2001) developed a multi-dimensional model of venture growth and concluded that traits were important predictors of venture growth, however not in isolation, but through mediating factors such as motivation and strategy. Thus, the psychological approach in entrepreneurship research has moved away from the investigation of personality traits alone, to the exploration of behaviour, motivation and cognition (Shaver & Scott, 1991).

Research relevant to the individual entrepreneur is more complex and includes situational and perceptual variables and is the favoured approach in this study. Relevant sections relating to various approaches to the current research focus are briefly discussed in later sections of this Chapter.

2.3.4. Criticism of Trait Models

The Trait models have been criticized mainly following the assumption that the entrepreneur is defined via possession of a certain set of traits. The critics however argue that entrepreneurship should focus on the interaction of entrepreneurs with the environment (Drucker 1985; Gartner, 1988; Mccarthy, 2000; Van de Ven et al., 1984). Drucker (1985) suggests that entrepreneurship is a behavior and should be understood through behavior patterns instead of personality traits. Schultz (1975) argues that dealing with disequilibrium is the principal function of entrepreneurs. Thus, anyone who possesses control ability and resources to perform the entrepreneurial action can be viewed as entrepreneur.

Gartner (1988, 1989) suggests a behavioral approach that considers how a new company is set up, instead of who sets it up. That is, entrepreneurs are those who create a new business, not who they are. In this sense, entrepreneurship should focus on the entrepreneurial activities, entrepreneurship processes and results, not personality traits that are invisible (Chell, 1985; 2001).

Based on these arguments, Gartner (1988, 1989) contends that a behavioral approach which deals with what entrepreneurs do is more suitable to explain the entrepreneurship behavior compared with the trait model that emphasizes who the entrepreneurs are. He advocates for a focus of entrepreneurship that seeks to understand how behaviors, attitudes, skills and intentions altogether influence the entrepreneurial success. Based on Gartner's (1988, 1989) work, researchers have tried to explain the entrepreneurial behavior from the perspective of cognition, arguing that cognition process plays an important role in the entrepreneurial process.

Cognitive perception is considered appropriate to explain entrepreneurial behavior. Theories related to cognitive concepts have received increasing attention in entrepreneurial research. For example, the entrepreneurial event model (Shapero & Sokol,

1982), Bird's (1988) entrepreneurial intention model and Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior have gained increasing support in explaining entrepreneurial behavior. The intention models emphasize the entrepreneurial process with a focus on entrepreneurial intention which is a more reliable predictor of entrepreneurial behavior (Bird, 1988; Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). The next section will discuss the evolution of entrepreneurial intention models and make a comparison among them.

2.4 Cognitive Research In Entrepreneurship

The Social Cognition Theory (SCT) represents an approach to the study of human cognition and information processing that assumes the motivations, emotions, and other attributes of the individual impact cognition and subsequently how the individual interprets the social world (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Showers & Cantor, 1985; Tetlock, 1990). Psychological research demonstrates that individual motivations influence the development and selection of cognitive strategies (Earley, Connolly, & Lee, 1989; Kahneman, 1973; Staw & Boettger, 1990) such that certain motivational states activate specific cognitive interpretations (e.g., opportunities for creating new business ventures) based on characteristics of the context (Schacter, 1996). Proponents of social cognition assert the need to understand the goals, emotions, and motivations of the individual actor within the context of the situation as fundamental to understanding cognitive processing and outcomes

SCT suggests that some individuals may be more sensitive than others to certain elements or characteristics of situational or contextual mental picture as a function of their own emotions, motivations, and other attributes. As such, how an individual makes sense of a given situation is, to a large extent, a function of the emotions and motivations of the perceiver. Thus, the SCT is positioned to inform our understanding of how individual differences may impact how individuals interpret, and subsequently respond to, counterfactual thoughts—specifically as a function of the dispositional attributes of the particular individual.

The cognitive approach has been described as having emerged as a response to the “failure of past ‘entrepreneurial personality’ based research to clearly distinguish the unique contributions to the entrepreneurial process of entrepreneurs as people” (Mitchell

et al.2002, p. 93). This description is interesting in that it recognizes not only the earlier research focus on the person but also the role of the entrepreneurial process.

This newer focus on the person also provides in a more dynamic way an approach that recognizes the potential for learning how to think entrepreneurially. Starting from Neisser's (1967) definition of cognition as the processes that allows sensory inputs to be transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, retrieved, and used. The researchers's focus is on the entrepreneurial cognition approach. Hence, the attention is drawn to the "knowledge structures that people use to make assessments, judgments, or decisions involving opportunity evaluation, venture creation, and growth" (Mitchell et al. 2002, p. 97).

Drawing from extant literature on the foundations of cognitive research in the social sciences (Gibbs, 2006), and in social psychology (Smith, 2000), three key features emerge that, taken together, systematically characterize cognition research: mentalism, i.e. a focus on studying the mental representations of the self, of others, of events and contexts, and of other mental states and constructs; a process orientation, i.e. a concern for studying the development, transformation, and use of these mental representations and constructs; and the operation of cognitive dynamics across different levels of analysis.

SCT attempts to "understand and explain how the thoughts, feelings and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others" (Allport, 1985, p.3). It studies the individual within a social or cultural context and focuses on how people perceive and interpret information they generate themselves (intrapersonal) and from others (interpersonal). SCT, originally referred to as Social Learning Theory, identifies human behavior as an interaction of personal factors, behavior, and the environment (Bandura 1986).

The theory provides a framework for understanding, and predicting a variety of types of human behavior. The interaction between the individual and a specific behavior necessitates the influence of one's thoughts and one's actions. SCT has established that self-efficacy plays an important role in career-related decision making. General self-efficacy is an individual's faith in his or her capacity to perform successfully across a variety of diverse situations (Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

Research into attitudes has found that one's perceptions of ability to perform specific tasks increases the likelihood of attitude converting into intent and consequent behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In the absence of self-efficacy, individuals make self-limiting decisions despite having the necessary skills to pursue a path of action (Bandura, 1986).

Borrowing from SCT and inferring to TPB, Boyd & Vozikis' (1994) entrepreneurial intentions theoretical model included self-efficacy as a critical antecedent to entrepreneurial intentions and behavior. Chen et al. (1998) and Zhao et al. (2005) found a positive relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and intentions to start a business. In their studies entrepreneurial self-efficacy was defined as confidence in one's ability to successfully perform entrepreneurial roles and tasks. In Chen et al.'s (1998) study, individuals with high entrepreneurial self-efficacy are more likely to be entrepreneurs than those with low entrepreneurial self-efficacy. This study uses perceived feasibility construct synonymously with self-efficacy which is combined with general efficacy and operationalised as entrepreneurial perceptions. Each of these constructs are discussed later in the chapter.

2.4.1 Intentions and Behaviour

Recognizing that starting a business is an intentional act holds substantial implications for entrepreneurship research. Several theoretical approaches have been developed to explain why some people eventually become entrepreneurs. Among these, a relatively new stream of research has emerged, based on entrepreneurial intentions. Specifically, the intention to start a business is thought to be the best and unbiased predictor of actual venture creation, where such intentions are formed by perceptions of the desirability and feasibility of going into business. Studies adopting this research perspective have verified the link between perceptions and intentions with convincing results.

Past studies observe that intentional behaviours cannot be fully modelled by the stimulus-response models, the studies therefore recommend use of testable, theory-driven process models of entrepreneurial cognitions that focus on intentions and their perceptual bases (Bird 1988; Katz & Gartner 1988; Shaver & Scott 1992). In their intention models, Ajzen (1991) and Bird (1988) suggest the link between individuals and their behaviors as key to explaining the entrepreneurship phenomenon. Ajzen (1991); Ajzen & Fishbein, (1980), claim that intentions are effective to predict the subsequent behavior, while Kolvereid

(1996b) found that intentions are a significant predictor of career choice. In the entrepreneurial process, entrepreneurial intention will transform business concepts or ideas into a course of entrepreneurial actions. It has been shown that entrepreneurial behavior is the product of entrepreneurial intention (Bird, 1988; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994).

When behaviour is rare or difficult to observe (Ajzen, 1991), intentions offer critical insights into underlying processes such as opportunity recognition. Past empirical results indicate weak prediction of intention by attitudes alone or by exogenous factors that are either situational or individual therefore yielding low or small explanatory power. Ajzen (1991) observes that exogenous influences usually affect intentions and behaviour only indirectly, through attitude changes (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, intentions models offer an opportunity to increase our ability to explain and predict entrepreneurial activity. The sections that follow provide brief reviews on various theoretical approaches that have emerged with regard to intentions and behaviour.

2.5 Theory-Driven Models of Intentions

Social psychology offer models of behavioural intentions with considerable proven predictive value for many behaviors. The models offer sound theoretical frameworks that map out the nature of processes underlying intentional behaviour. Meta-analyses (Kim & Hunter 1993) empirically show that intentions successfully predict behaviour, and attitudes successfully predict intentions. For instance, attitudes explain over 50% of the variance in intentions across a wide range of studies relating to a wide variety of types of behaviors and the intentions to engage in the particular behaviors.

Ajzen (1987) observes that intentions explain 30% or more of the variance in behaviour which compares favourably to the 10% explained by trait measures or attitudes (Ajzen 1987). Thus, intention remains a significant, unbiased predictor of career choice (Lent et al. 1994). Past studies have based entrepreneurship models on personality traits, demographics, or attitudinal approaches (Krueger & Carsrud 1993; Carsrud et al. 1993).

There are six major models that have been developed in the entrepreneurship intention research field, namely; the Entrepreneurial Event Model (Shapero & Sokol, 1982), the Entrepreneurial Intention Model (Bird, 1988), the revised Entrepreneurial Intention

Model with self-efficacy (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994), the Theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991), the Economic-Psychological Model (Davidsson, 1995), and the Structural Model of Entrepreneurial Intention (Luthje & Franke, 2003). These intention models provide more complete understanding of entrepreneurship compared with the trait models, as they exhibit how the cognition of entrepreneurs are put into an entrepreneurial behavior via intention. Three of the major intention models are considered in the next section.

2.5.1 The Entrepreneurial Event Model

The Entrepreneurial Event Model (EEM) developed in 1982 by Shapero & Sokol, assumes that entrepreneurial intention is influenced by three main factors: perceived desirability, perceived feasibility, and propensity to act upon opportunities. According to Shapero & Sokol (1982), the decision to change direction significantly in life, for example by launching a business, is precipitated by an event or a break in the established routine.

The person's choice will then depend on three elements, namely his or her perception of the desirability of the proposed behaviour (a combination of the first two variables in Ajzen's model); his or her propensity to act (i.e. to act in accordance with his or her intentions); and his or her perception of the behaviour's feasibility, which is similar to the third variable in Ajzen's model.

Shapero's (1982) model is implicitly an intention model, specific to the domain of entrepreneurship. According to the model, one's perception of desirability and feasibility determines his or her response to an external event. These perceptions, in turn are derived from cultural and social factors. In this sense, external factors influence intention indirectly through desirability and feasibility. Further, the entrepreneurial event model assumes that inertia guides human behaviour until something interrupts or "displaces" that inertia. Some displacement event precipitates/triggers the emergence of an entrepreneurial behavior. Often, the displacement is negative, such as job loss or divorce, but it can also be positive, such as getting an inheritance or winning the lottery. Such an event causes the decision maker to seek the best opportunity available from a set of alternatives (Katz 1992).

In such case, the choice of behaviour depends on the relative “credibility” of alternative behaviours (in this situation to this decision maker) plus some “propensity to act” (without which significant action may not be taken). “Credibility” requires behaviour be seen as both desirable and feasible. Entrepreneurial events thus require the potential to start a business (credibility and propensity to act) to exist before the displacement and a propensity to act afterwards (Shapero 1982). As with TPB, exogenous influences do not directly affect intentions or behaviour. They operate through person-situation perceptions of desirability and feasibility.

Krueger (1993) perceived feasibility, perceived desirability, and the propensity to act explain over half the variance in intentions toward entrepreneurship while feasibility perceptions explained the most variance. Shapero (1982) offers evidence of how perceptions are critical in this process. Significant life events (job loss, migration, etc.) can precipitate heightened increases in entrepreneurial activity. Notable in such observation is that the founders have not changed but their perceptions of the “new” circumstances have which means their entrepreneurial potential clearly existed, but the potential required the displacement in order to surface.

2.5.1.1 Perceived Desirability and Perceived Feasibility

Shapero (1982) defined perceived desirability as the personal attractiveness of starting a business, including both intrapersonal and extra personal impacts, that is, the extent to which a person feels attractive to create own business. Perceived feasibility is the degree to which one feels personally capable of starting a business. In exploring the relationship between perceived desirability, Perceived feasibility and entrepreneurial intentions, it is important to explore which factors influence each of these variables.

Desirability can be influenced by the normative environment (social norms) and cultural factors. When individuals perceive that people from their close environment agree or approve to perform the behaviour, a more favourable attitude towards the behaviour will develop. The social pressures can therefore act like a trigger or a barrier to the development of entrepreneurial career because they establish which occupations are acceptable and respected.

Feasibility on the other hand essentially reflects self-efficacy, that is, a person's perceived ability to execute some target behavior (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994). It can be influenced by obstacles, personal capacities/skills, confidence in their ability to perform entrepreneurial tasks, perceived availability of resources needed to create a business and the regulatory environment (Gasse & Tremblay, 2011). Empirically, Shapero proposed a testable eight-item inventory of questions aimed at different aspects of perceived desirability and feasibility. Empirical measures of self-efficacy (antecedents of perceived feasibility) assess beliefs that one can personally execute a given behaviour.

2.5.1.2 Propensity to Act

Shapero (1982) conceptualized "propensity to act" as the personal disposition to act on one's decisions, thus reflecting volitional aspects of intentions ("I will do it"). It is hard to envision well-formed intentions without some propensity to act. Shapero and Sokol (1982) argued that propensity to act is relevant; otherwise, an individual may not take action. Conceptually, this factor is considered as a stable personality characteristic that links strongly to locus of control, (i.e. depends on control perceptions). Empirically, we must identify a measure closely linked to initiating and persisting at goal-directed behaviour under uncertainty and adversity. Shapero suggested internal locus of control, although managers often score equally as internal as entrepreneurs do.

Another well-established conceptualization of this phenomenon is "learned optimism." This highly valid, reliable measure consistently predicts commitment to goal-directed behaviour in many settings (Seligman, 1990).

The EEM has been tested by many empirical studies on entrepreneurial practice (Audet, 2002; 2004; Krueger, 1993; Krueger et al., 2000; Segal et al., 2005; Vecianne et al., 2005; Walstad & Kourilsky, 1998) and evaluation of entrepreneurship education program (Peterman & Kennedy, 2003). Peterman & Kennedy (2003) studied the effect an entrepreneurship program among Australian youth and found that the students had higher perceived desirability and feasibility to create a new business after finishing the program.

Krueger (1993) also tested the EEM and the results showed that feasibility and desirability perceptions and propensity to act significantly predicted entrepreneurial intentions. In a similar study, Krueger et al. (2000), tested the EEM and TPB with a sample of university business students. Their results validated both models and provide a

valuable insight into entrepreneurial process. In a similar way, Audet (2002) adopted a longitudinal design to investigate the entrepreneurial intention of undergraduate business students with both TPB and EEM. They found that some factors had positive effect on entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions. These factors included money, freedom and opportunity recognition.

More recently, Vecianne et al. (2005) also used TPB and EEM to investigate the entrepreneurial intention of university students. Their results revealed that the effect of background factors on entrepreneurial intention varied across different countries. Segal et al. (2005) also studied undergraduate business students based on EEM. Their results showed that changes in desirability to start up significantly increased entrepreneurial intention.

2.5.2 Entrepreneurial Intention Model

Bird (1988) borrowing from cognitive theory, developed the Entrepreneurial Intention Model (EIM), that approached intention as “a state of mind directing a person’s attention toward a specific object or path in order to achieve a goal” (p.442). According to EIM, entrepreneurial intention is predicted by personal and contextual factors. Personal factors include prior entrepreneurial experiences, personalities, and abilities. The contextual factors comprise social, political, and economic variables such as displacement, changes in markets, and government deregulation. The background factors derive both rational and intuitive thinking which then determine entrepreneurial intention. These thought processes involve preparation of business plans, opportunity evaluation and other goal-directed activities required for setting up a new company. The entrepreneurial intentions in the EIM model reflect a state of mind that guides entrepreneurs to implement business ideas.

The EIM model was later extended by Boyd & Vozikis (1994) by including the self-efficacy belief construct. Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy construct captures individual capability to take an action and affects goal achievement. Boyd & Vozikis argued that self-efficacy is important in predicting entrepreneurial intentions and behavior. The additional effect of self-efficacy provides more information on how intention forms in the cognitive process.

In the revised model, entrepreneurial intentions are determined by rational-analytical thinking that derives one's attitude toward a goal-directed behavior and intuitive holistic thinking that derives self-efficacy. In this model, self-efficacy is a product of the cognitive thought processes and moderates the relationship between the entrepreneurial intentions and actions.

The EIM has been widely used to explain entrepreneurial intention theoretically. Surprisingly, no empirical study testing the EIM has been found. This probably relates to methodological issues. For example, it may be difficult to develop measures for the constructs of "rational analytic thinking" and "intuitive holistic thinking". Consequently, there is also a lack of empirical tests on the whole revised EIM model (covering all constructs). Researchers tended to employ part of the revised EIM model ("self-efficacy") in the field of entrepreneurship practice.

The revised EIM model has been applied by Zhao et al. (2005) who proposed that self-efficacy plays a critical mediating model linking background factors, perceptions of formal learning in entrepreneurship courses, previous entrepreneurial experience, risk propensity, & gender) and entrepreneurial intention. The study used structural equation modeling (SEM) with a sample of 265 master of business administration students across 5 universities to test the model. Their results showed that the effects of perceived learning from entrepreneurship related courses, previous entrepreneurial experience, and risk propensity on entrepreneurial intentions were fully mediated by entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Although gender was not mediated by self-efficacy, it showed a direct effect on intention. Further, Chen et al. (1998) argued that self-efficacy is useful to distinguish entrepreneurship students and entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurship students and non-entrepreneurs. The study also found that self-efficacy positively influences entrepreneurial intention.

More recently, Wilson et al. (2007) investigated the impact of gender on entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intentions. Both adolescents and MBA students were involved. The study found that gender significantly affected self-efficacy and self-efficacy significantly predicted intention to start up. The mediating role of self-efficacy between background factors and entrepreneurial intention was further tested by the studies on entrepreneurial decisions (De Noble, 1999; Li, 2008).

2.5.3 Theory of Planned Behavior

The TPB was derived from the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), which states that behavioural intentions are formed by one's attitude toward that behaviour and one's subjective norms. In turn, both attitudes and subjective norms are influenced by evaluations, beliefs, and motivation formed through one's unique individual environments. TPB assumes that most human behaviour results from an individual's intent to perform that behaviour and their ability to make conscious choices and decisions in doing so.

According to Ajzen (1991), TPB is suitable to explain any behavior which requires planning, such as entrepreneurship. Thus, it would be possible to predict whether or not an individual will eventually launch a business by studying his or her intention to do so. In the TPB, three variables precede the formation of intention, which itself predicts behaviour. The TPB observes that intention is determined by 3 attitudinal antecedents: the individual's attitude toward the behaviour, do I want to do it?; subjective norm, do other people want me to do it?, and perceived behavioural control, do I perceive I am able to do it and have the resources to do it?.

TPB has been hailed for its predictive power and applicability in intention studies (Krueger & Casrud 1993; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994). Whilst the intentions-behaviour link is not tested in this research, it is important that support exists for this relationship to defend the need for further research into the antecedents to intentions such as culture, gender, entrepreneurial perceptions and dispositions. Intentions are signals of an individual's commitment to carry out a specific behaviour and it has been proven that intentions precede behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). A study by Kim & Hunter (1993) using a path analysis methodology confirmed that the association between attitudes and behaviour can be fully explained by attitude-intention and intention-behaviour relationships (Krueger, 2000).

Based on the understanding of the belief, attitude and intention relationship, individuals' beliefs and attitudes regarding self-employment would inform their intention to become self-employed. In entrepreneurship research, TPB is increasingly becoming popular in studies of entrepreneurial intention (Audet, 2002; Autio et al., 2001; Fayolle et al., 2006; Gelderen et al., 2008; Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger et al., 2000;

Souitaris et al., 2007; Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999; Veciana et al., 2005). For example, Kolvereid (1996b) adopted the TPB to predict the employment choice of 128 Norwegian undergraduate business students. Their results showed that attitude toward entrepreneurship, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control significantly influence entrepreneurial intention, and demographic factors impact intention indirectly through its three antecedents. Similar results were obtained by Tkachev and Kolvereid (1999) who surveyed 512 Russian university students and examined their entrepreneurial intentions.

Their study found that the three antecedents (attitude toward entrepreneurship, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control) significantly influence the students' entrepreneurial intentions. Further, applying the TPB, Autio et al. (2001) analyzed the factors influencing entrepreneurial intention among university students from Finland, Sweden, USA and the UK. Their results revealed that TPB was robust across the samples from multiple countries and perceived behavioral control was the most important determinant of entrepreneurial intention.

More recently, Fayolle et al. (2006a) used the TPB to evaluate the effect of an entrepreneurship programme. They found that through the entrepreneurship program, students had significantly improved their entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions. In the same line, Souitaris et al. (2007) measured the effect of an entrepreneurship course in terms of entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions of science and engineering students. The results showed that the programs raised the attitudes and intentions of the students. Also inspiration was found to be the most influential benefit of entrepreneurial education.

Gird & Bagraim (2008) tested TPB among final-year commerce students at two universities in the Western Cape. The study found that TPB significantly explained the entrepreneurial intentions of the students and previous entrepreneurial experience significantly influence intention through its three antecedents. In addition, Gelderen et al. (2008) investigated the entrepreneurial intentions of business students. They found that the two most important variables to explain entrepreneurial intentions were entrepreneurial alertness and the importance attached to financial security. The three attitudinal antecedents of intention by Ajzen are considered in the sections that follow.

2.5.3.1 Attitude toward Performing Behaviour

The construct of attitude toward performing behaviour is often conceptualized to tap perceptions of the personal desirability of performing the behaviour. As a check on construct validity, this attitude depends on the person's assessment of the expected outcomes of the behavior. This factor captures the beliefs about the possible outcomes of the behavior (i.e., behavioral beliefs).

For example, a person who believes that it is beneficial to perform a given behavior will have a positive attitude toward that behavior, otherwise, will hold a negative attitude. In the current study, attitudes toward entrepreneurial behaviour are operationalized as entrepreneurial disposition based on perceptual evaluation of self with regard to entrepreneurial career choice. Shapero (1982) work on entrepreneurial intentions provides proof that such outcomes are indeed testable.

2.5.3.2 Subjective Social Norms

The second construct; subjective norms, refers to the social pressures perceived by individuals to perform or not to perform the behavior. It relates to the beliefs that other people encourage or discourage to carry out a behavior. The use of subjective norms in TPB is based on perceptions of what important people in respondents' lives think about performing a particular behaviour. Such norms include the individual's family expectations about the desirability of taking a particular career path, e.g. becoming a lawyer, doctor, or entrepreneur. These normative beliefs are weighted by the strength of the motivation to comply with them. Thus, An individual is likely to perform a behavior if significant others who the person is motivated to comply, approve of going for it. Conversely, the person will suffer a subjective norm that forces them to avoid performing the behavior.

To check construct validity, these subjective social norms should depend on the expected support of significant others. Interestingly, social norms are less predictive of intentions for subjects with a high internal locus of control (Ajzen 1987) or a strong orientation toward taking action (Bagozzi et al. 1992) which are used as a measure of entrepreneurial disposition in the study. Empirically, this study operationalizes the most important influences as emerging from social-cultural context, conceptualised as cultural values and gender. The researcher could not find any studies addressing social norms in this context.

2.5.3.3 Perceived Behavioural Control and Perceived Self-Efficacy

A subject's perception of his or her control over the behaviour is the third predictive component in Ajzen's intention model. It refers to a person's perception of easiness or difficulty in performing a behavior. It also relates to the beliefs about the availability of support system and resources or barriers to performing an entrepreneurial behavior (control beliefs). Perceived behavioural control overlaps Bandura's (1986) view of perceived self-efficacy and refers to the perceived ability to execute target behaviour (Ajzen 1987).

As an attribution of personal control in a given situation, self-efficacy connects conceptually and empirically to attribution theory, already successfully applied to new venture initiation (Meyer et al. 1993). Bandura (1986) notes that the mechanisms for influencing efficacy judgments include 'enactive mastery' (hands-on experience), vicarious learning, and physiological/emotional arousal.

2.5.3.4 Self-Efficacy and Entrepreneurial Behaviour

Self-efficacy has been linked theoretically and empirically with entrepreneurial phenomena. Feasibility perceptions consistently predict goal-directed behaviour where control is problematic (Ajzen 1991). Most important, feasibility perceptions drive career-related choices, including self-employment as an entrepreneur. For example, gender and ethnic differences in career preferences seem to be fully mediated by differences in self-efficacy (Hackett et al. 1993). Correlations between self-efficacy and career intent range from 0.3 to 0.6 (Bandura 1986; Lent et al. 1994). This correlation is better than most predictors used in entrepreneurship research, such as locus of control (Brockhaus & Horwitz 1986). Entrepreneurial intentions have been shown to depend on perceived self-efficacy (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Chen, Greene & Crick, 1998; de Noble, Jung & Erlich, 1999; Markman, Balkin & Baron, 2002). Self-efficacy is measured by the strength of an individual's belief that he can accomplish a specific task or series of related tasks. It is related to self-confidence and individual capabilities, which are dependent on prior experience, vicarious learning, social encouragement, and physiological issues (Bandura, 1982). Therefore, the stronger a person's self-efficacy in relation to a specific task or series of tasks, such as those involved in starting a new venture, the greater the probability that the individual will subsequently engage in that specified behaviour (Chen, Greene & Crick, 1998).

Self-efficacy is linked to initiating and persisting at behaviour under uncertainty, to setting higher goals, and reducing threat-rigidity and learned helplessness (Bandura, 1986). This is important because opportunity recognition depends on situational perceptions of controllability (Dutton 1993) and self-efficacy (Krueger & Dickson, 1994). Much as self-efficacy predicts opportunity recognition, self-efficacy perceptions are also pivotal to self-employment intentions (Scherer et al. 1989). Self-reported competencies are predictive of entrepreneurial performance (Chandler & Jansen, 1992). Entrepreneurship researchers largely ignore the concept of self-efficacy despite its importance and proven robustness at predicting both general and specific behaviours. For instance, role models affect entrepreneurial intentions only if they affect self-efficacy. In addition, self-efficacy has been associated with opportunity recognition and risk-taking (Krueger & Dickson, 1994) as well as career choice (Bandura, 1986).

The intention-based theoretical models discussed above are widely used because of their simplicity. Both main constructs (perception of desirability and perception of feasibility) are in fact the product of the combined effects of several other variables studied in connection with the venture creation phenomenon. For example, the attraction of the idea of starting a business is probably dependent on the entrepreneurial models an individual has in his or her immediate environment, the prestige and respect ascribed to entrepreneurship as a career choice by the people around the individual, the individual's need for achievement and independence, the opportunities available in the environment, and so on.

2.5.4 The Intention Model Adopted for this Study

For purposes of the current study, the Intention model adopted emphasizes the individual's cognitive process (Shapero & Sokol, 1982, Krueger & Carsrud, 1993, Kolvereid, 1996, Tchakev & Kolvereid, 1999) and Ajzen (1991). Included in the model as antecedents to entrepreneurial intention for the purpose of this study are socio-cultural factors which are operationalised along Hofstede's (1991) cultural dimensions and gender.

Previous studies applying TPB revealed that the three antecedents of intentions are very much influenced by exogenous factors such as the cognitive capacity of an individual, and pressures from the wider social, cultural and institutional environment (Linan, et al.,

2005). Some of these exogenous factors identified in the literature is the influence of cultural values and culturally prescribed roles between gender. In several separate studies, literature emphasizes the strength of each of these constructs in explaining entrepreneurial behavior.

The two variables, deemed important in shaping a person's entrepreneurial personality may also spell the difference in developing perceptions and beliefs that are favorable or unfavorable to entrepreneurial endeavors. Hence, the study shall examine cultural and gender effects and how these two influences the antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions. Though the antecedents effectively remain the same, they have been operationalized differently but in synonymous terms. For example, entrepreneurial disposition is used in place of entrepreneurial attitudes and self efficacy evaluations; whereas entrepreneurial perceptions is used a composite construct representing both perceptions of desirability and feasibility. Entrepreneurship education is also introduced and its impact on the antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions examined by observing the interaction effect once the variable is introduced on the various relationships.

The construct of an entrepreneurial profile is also included and operationalised into three specific traits; risk, autonomy and need for achievement. These social-cultural factors are presumed to influence both perceptions and entrepreneurial disposition of an individual to shape their entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, TPB provides a useful framework for the current study that helps understand how the study variables should combine to influence behaviour. Discussion of these variables follows.

2.6 The Construct of Culture

Any research involving culture requires that the researcher defines what culture is, given the myriad of definitions and conceptualizations (Straub et al. 2002) for culture spanning across several fields. One notable common definition for culture is that it is a shared set of values, norms and beliefs, which means that culture deals with values and beliefs to which everyone in a group conforms.

According to Schein (1992), culture is a pattern of shared assumptions which a group of individuals learn as they try to solve their problems. These problems could be caused by external and internal environmental forces, which have worked well enough to be valid.

These problems can work well if there is an understanding and balance between external and internal environmental influences. Being able to recognize the problems they are confronted with enables individuals to change the way they perceive, think and relate to these problems. In defining culture, Hofstede (1980), Lundberg (1985) and Schein (1985), make a distinction between ‘artifacts and norms’ and the more fundamental shared ‘values and basic assumptions’ in societies. Thus, Hofstede (1991) regards culture, as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group category of people from another” (p.5). Hofstede’s definition is adopted for this study.

Hofstede's suggestion is that people share a collective national character that represents cultural mental programming. According to (Myers & Tan, 2002) mental programming shapes values, beliefs, assumptions, expectations and perceptions and behavior. According to Hofstede (1980) culture could be seen as equivalent to the collective mental programming of a group, tribe, minority or a specific nation. In their definition Schwartz & Davis (1981), also note that culture is rooted in deeply held beliefs and values.

2.6.1 Values and Beliefs

Values and beliefs are generally acquired early in life through an individual’s childhood socialization and education. Literature emphasizes that values are learned responses and are non-rational. They determine our subjective definition of rationality. Urban (2004) observes that nearly all other mental programmes (such as attitudes and beliefs) carry a value component and notes that while value taps what is important, belief taps what is true.

Hofstede (1980 cited in Urban (2004) treats value as part of culture. He observes that values are attributes of individuals and cultures and that individual values are to a certain extent culturally derived. He however notes that individual values are not altogether determined by culture or directly equivalent to attitudes. Thus, while culture presupposes collectivity, values may vary within nations and may display considerable overlaps between nations (Hofstede, 1998).

According to Davidsson (1995), culture may influence entrepreneurship both through social legitimation (at the aggregate level) and through promoting on individuals certain positive attitudes related to firm creation. As Hofstede (1980) pointed out, the reason why this happens is that culture shapes people's cognitive schemas, programming behavioural patterns which are consistent with the cultural context. Cultural values are therefore said to affect the perception of an individual through cognitive schema, interpretation, and sense making. Thus, the dimensions of culture play an important role in shaping an individual schema and sense making which subsequently act as powerful filters that shape interpretation and perception which in turn leads to differences in behaviors and outcomes (Chrisman et al., 2002). According to Davidson (1995), the concept of beliefs corresponds to perceived behavioral control which is said to have motivational implications. Thus, if the individual is convinced of having neither the required resources nor the opportunity to engage in entrepreneurship, the intentions towards starting a business will not be favorable even if the general attitudes towards this behavior is positive.

Markus & Kitayama (1998) observes that culture is a key determinant of what it means to be a person. According to Weber (1930), culture is the explanatory variable that predisposes some people towards entrepreneurial activity while other people tend to refrain from new venture creation. Weber's approach argues that entrepreneurial behavior is culturally influenced by values and beliefs. In this study, culture is seen as a frame of reference within which meanings of action and events relating to entrepreneurial behaviour can be interpreted within ethnic groupings in Kenya.

Psychological research shows links between values, beliefs and behavior. Hence, it is plausible that differences in culture, in which individual values and beliefs are imbedded, influence a wide range of behaviors including the decision to become self-employed rather than to work for others (Mueller & Thomas, 2001). Using this logic, several studies explore the relationship between various aspects of culture and entrepreneurial behavior across cultures (Busenitz et al., 2000; Davidsson, 1995; Huisman, 1985; Lee and Petersen, 2000; McGrath and MacMillan, 1992; Mueller and Thomas, 2001; Tiessen, 1997; Noorderhaven et al., 2004).

In this study, an entrepreneurial intentions model is explored using cultural values and gender as the cultural context which impacts perceptions, beliefs and attitudes towards entrepreneurship, and therefore entrepreneurial intentions. Hofstede (1980) uses values to represent dimensions of cultural variation that can be appraised and measured, thus providing a basis for comparison. For each central issue faced by societies, he defines a cultural value dimension that reflects different possibilities for how members of a society can cope with a problem. Each value dimension represents a range of possible stances between two opposing limits, illustrated by five basic issues: individualism; masculinity; power distance; uncertainty avoidance; and long-term orientation. Of these, only three value dimensions are of particular importance for the analysis in the present study.

2.6.2 National Culture

The multi-faceted character of culture and the debate about the impact of cultural similarities and dissimilarities has received attention in the literature (Adler, 1991; Adler & Jelinek, 1986). Empirical evidence on the relationship between national culture and entrepreneurial behaviour is mixed. Overall, literature seems to indicate that entrepreneurial behaviour across nations is dependent on more than cultural values and beliefs, and that other structural factors must also be taken into account. Etzioni (1987) suggests that culture influences the supportiveness of the environment and hence make it more legitimate for a new business.

Davidsson & Wiklund (1997) suggest that supportive cultures influence the psychological characteristics of individuals within a given population resulting in a higher proportion of potential entrepreneurs. Light (1984) observes differences in entrepreneurial behaviour between national cultures, with some cultures having a higher propensity to start new ventures. Hayton et al. (2002) suggest that national culture does have a role to play in entrepreneurship since it influences the motives, values and beliefs of individuals.

This study analyses the influence of culture on individual's entrepreneurial intentions. Much of the literature on cross-cultural differences in entrepreneurial behaviour has focussed on the work of Hofstede (1980) and the cultural dimensions of individual-collectivism, uncertainty-avoidance, power distance, masculinity-femininity and later long-term orientation, Hofstede (2005). Morrison (2000) argues that these dimensions provide a useful guide to categorize a culture's important aspects.

Studies exist that have applied and evaluated Hofstede's dimensions according to their influence on innovative activities across organizations (Jones and Davis, 2000). Few if any have used cross-cultural dimensions in the area of entrepreneurship. Such studies are important from the perspective of nations, regions or communities competing for new ventures because a study of dissimilar cultural dimensions can give insights into which aspects describe why individuals tend or do not tend to be entrepreneurs. Subsequently, such a study can explain what cultural dimensions influence and predicts entrepreneurial intentions and actions.

2.6.3 Cultural Influences on Entrepreneurship Intention

There are two approaches of research analysing the impact of culture on entrepreneurship. The first approach, considers culture by its traits and explores the relationship between culture and the characteristics of entrepreneurs. According to Scheinberg & MacMillan (1988), Shane et al., (1991,1992), the motivations and the objectives of creators of companies vary systematically according to the cultural specificities; these variations are evident despite the characteristics that are common to all entrepreneurs – compared with non entrepreneurs. When examining the 'cognitive scripts' of the entrepreneurs in seven different countries, Mitchell et al., (2000) explained that these were strongly correlated with the cultural values and appeared to explain the differences in cognitive styles in various cultural environments. In agreement with this line of thought, Busenitz & Lau (1996) considered that the cultural values and the individual characteristics determine, in a given social context, the cognition which is at the origin of the entrepreneurial intention.

The second approach is concerned with the links between national culture and entrepreneurial vitality measured by the rate of company creations and innovations. Several studies indicated that the level and the rate of company creations differ from one country to another (Shane, 1992 & 1993) or from one region to another Davidsson & Wiklund, (1997). These researchers explain that the entrepreneurial vitality is correlated with certain cultural characteristics measured in the grid of Hofstede (1980). For instance, Lee and Peterson (2000) concluded that a culture conducive to entrepreneurship exhibits a low power distance, a weak level of uncertainty avoidance, a masculine orientation and follows individualism. This observation conforms with earlier research by McGrath et al. (1992, as cited in Hayton et al., 2002).

Morrison (2000) additionally states that entrepreneurial cultures show low long-term orientation. The focus of this study's attention is on the first approach. Research on the relationship between values and cognition provides an important window into understanding how values affect the development of new ventures (Louis, 1980). In their review of the cross-cultural management literature, Adler, Doktor, & Redding (1986) noted that national culture mediated through cognitive maps is an important prediction of behavior. Furthermore, they argued that the relationship between cognition and culture is an important cornerstone in cross-cultural research. There is a growing consensus that ethnic cultural values, cognition, and the social environment are important factors for understanding differences in individual behavior (Schneider, 1989; Shaw, 1990). This logic is extended in this study to the context of new venture creation by suggesting that the founding of new ventures and other related decisions is a function of cognition.

Furthermore, most decisions to start a new venture are affected by how founders perceive and interpret the environment (Bird, 1988; 1992). This is consistent with the concept of integrating founders as individuals within the environment in which they operate (Bouchikhi, 1993). In addition, ethnic culture (and the underlying cultural values) influences the structure and process of a person's cognition, making it an antecedent of entrepreneurial cognition (Abramson et al., 1993; Redding, 1980). Entrepreneurial cognition has reference to the thought structure and process and that leads to entrepreneurial intention and ultimately the decision to start a new venture. Bird (1988) argued for entrepreneurial intention as a predictor of entrepreneurial activity, especially in venture creation. This intention is a function of the interaction of a person's "thinking" with the individual's past history, current personality, and social and economic environment (Bird, 1988).

Investigation of cultural differences and their impact on innovation and venture formation have been conducted (Shane, 1994; Oviatt & McDougall, 1994). Cognitive factors have also recently been found to be important predictors of entrepreneurial differences (Busenitz & Barney, 1994; Manimala, 1992). However, cognitive factors have yet to be integrated into a cross-cultural framework for understanding why some cultures produce individuals with a higher propensity for entrepreneurial activity. If understanding how entrepreneurs think and why they make the decisions they do is important, as earlier research suggests, then understanding cognition is critical if we are to understand

entrepreneurship across cultures. Entrepreneurs' cognitive schemas derived from culture can help entrepreneurs in several aspects (Busenitz & Lau, 1996): reducing the uncertainty of taking a decision, identifying cause/effect relationships to advance the development of ideas and opportunities, facilitating forecasts and predictions about outcomes and, what is most important in this study, increasing the intention to start-up. Starting from Krueger & Casrud (1993) and Shapero & Sokol (1982), Mitchell's et al., (2002) propose that cultural values exert a direct influence on arrangement, ability and willingness cognitions and, only then, on the decision to start-up. A highlight on Hofstede's cultural values follows next.

2.6.4 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

The major assertion of Hofstede's framework is that there are shared values, beliefs and norms that are culture specific and these factors can predict a wide range of human behavior and practices. In cognitive terms, Hofstede noted national culture is viewed as a set of shared meanings transmitted by a set of mental programs that control responses in a given context. The basic thesis of a cognitive approach to culture is that processing frameworks acquired in one culture persist and influence behavior even though contextual circumstances change (Hofstede, 2000).

Bandura (2001) argues that global cultural classifications mask intra-cultural diversity, as well as much communality among people of different cultural backgrounds. Hofstede (2001) cultural indices: Individualism-Collectivism (IDV), Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) and Masculinity-Femininity (MAS), are based on the Value Scale Measurement (VSM) index which do not represent absolute positions of the different cultural dimensions but only measure differences which are only meaningful when compared to each other. Absolute scores are meaningless (Hofstede, 2001, p. 66). Hofstede's (2001) latest Value Survey Module (VSM 94) instrument is considered the best-validated and most efficient instrument for arriving at an empirical replication of his five dimensions of culture. The instrument was designed for comparing mean scores of two or more countries/regions/ethnic groups. Therefore, it is not a personality test for comparing individuals within countries. It is with this in mind that different ethnic groups are compared.

Hofstede's dimensions are widely accepted amongst academics and businesses in particular as useful tools for analysis of differences in the culture of groups, individuals within groups, and national cultures. Triandis (2002) reports extensive use of these dimensions on studies relating to group and individual cultural differences. Three of these dimensions namely; Individualism vs. collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity vs. femininity are selected for use in the current study and are discussed in the sections that follow.

The Individualism versus Collectivism dimension refers to how people define themselves and their relationships with others. In an individualist culture, the interest of the individual prevails over the interests of the group. Ties between individuals are loose. People look after themselves and their immediate families. Masakazu (1994) defines modern individualism as “a view of humanity that justifies inner beliefs and unilateral self-assertion, as well as competition based on these” (p. 127). In a collectivist culture, the interest of the group prevails over the interest of the individual. People are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups that continue throughout a lifetime to protect in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1997). One difference is reflected in who is taken into account when you set goals. In individualist cultures, goals are set with minimal consideration given to groups other than perhaps your immediate family. In collectivist cultures, other groups are taken into account in a major way when goals are set. Individualist cultures are therefore loosely integrated while collectivist cultures are tightly integrated.

Individualism focuses on the degree a society reinforces individual or collective achievement and interpersonal relationships. “People in individualistic cultures often give priority to their personal goals, even when they conflict with the goals of important in-groups” (van Oudenhoven, 2001) such as clans and families. Such individuals tend to form a larger number of looser relationships whereas people in societies with a low individualism ranking are more collectivist in nature with close ties between individuals and emphasis on in-group harmony (Smith et al., 1998). “These cultures reinforce extended families and collectives where everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group” (Hofstede, 2006a).

The second dimension across which cultures vary is masculinity versus femininity. Hofstede (1980) found that women's social role varied less from culture to culture than men's. He labeled as masculine cultures those that strive for maximal distinction between what women and men are expected to do. Cultures that place high values on masculine traits stress assertiveness, competition, and material success. Those labeled as feminine cultures are those that permit more overlapping social roles for the sexes. Cultures that place high value on feminine traits stress quality of life, interpersonal relationships, and concern for the weak. It is important to understand that these traits apply to both women and men; that is, both women and men learn to be ambitious and competitive in masculine cultures, and both women and men learn to be modest in feminine cultures.

Masculinity focuses on the degree the society reinforces, or does not reinforce, the traditional masculine work role model of male achievement, performance, assertiveness, control, and power. It measures "the extent to which highly assertive values predominate (e.g., acquiring money and goods at the expense of others) versus showing sensitivity and concern for others' welfare" (van Oudenhoven, 2001). In cultures with a high masculinity ranking, males dominate a significant portion of the society and power structure, as opposed to low masculinity ranking cultures where females are treated equally to males in all aspects of the society (Hofstede, 2006a) and there is a more 'tender' society in which people focus on relationships, modesty, and quality of life.

Uncertainty avoidance, refers to the extent to which people in a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. Hofstede explains that this feeling is expressed through nervous stress and in a need for predictability or a need for written and unwritten rules (Hofstede, 1997). In these cultures, such situations are avoided by maintaining strict codes of behavior and a belief in absolute truths. Cultures strong in uncertainty avoidance are active, aggressive, emotional, compulsive, security seeking, and intolerant; cultures weak in uncertainty avoidance are contemplative, less aggressive, unemotional, relaxed, accepting of personal risks, and relatively tolerant.

Uncertainty avoidance focuses on the level of tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity within the society, i.e. "the strictness of rules used to deal with uncertain and ambiguous situations" (van Oudenhoven, 2001). High uncertainty avoidance implies a need for structure and absolute truths, a feeling that "what is different is dangerous" (Hofstede,

1999). High uncertainty avoidance societies institute laws, rules, regulations, and controls to reduce the amount of uncertainty. Low uncertainty avoidance societies more readily accept unstructured situations and take more and greater risks. (Hofstede, 2006a).

Table 2.2 presents a summary of five of Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions namely: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity and long-term orientation. However for the purpose of this study only three of the dimensions are used

Table 2.2 Summary Table Showing Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Dimensions	Low characteristics	High characteristics
<p>Power Distance (PDI) The extent to which the less powerful members of society expect and accept power is distributed unequally</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low dependence needs • Inequality minimized • Hierarchy for convenience • Superiors accessible • All should have equal rights • Change by devolution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High dependence • Inequality accepted • Hierarchy needed • Superiors often inaccessible • Power holders have privileges • Change by revolution
<p>Individualism (IDV) Individualism: people look after themselves and their immediate family only. Collectivism: people belong to the in-groups (families, clans or organizations) who look after them in exchange for loyalty</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "we" consciousness • Relationships have priority over tasks • Fulfill obligations to family, in-group, society • Penalty implies loss of "face" and shame 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "I" consciousness • Private opinions • Fulfill obligations to self • Penalty implies loss to self-respect and guilt
Masculinity/Femininity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality of life, serving 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Performance

<p>(MAS) Masculinity: the dominant values are achievement and success Femininity: the dominant values in society are catering for others and quality of life</p>	<p>others</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Striving for consensus • Work in order to live • Small and slow are beautiful • Sympathy for the unfortunate • Intuition 	<p>ambition, a need to excel</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency to polarize • Live in order to work • Big and fast are beautiful • Admiration for the successful achiever • Decisiveness
<p>Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) The extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity and try to avoid such situations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relaxed, less stress • Hard work is not a virtue per se • Emotions not shown • Conflict and competition seen as fair play • Acceptance of decent • Flexibility • Less need for rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anxiety, greater stress • Inner urge to work hard • Showing for emotions accepted • Conflict is threatening • Need for agreement • Need to avoid failure • Need for laws and rules
<p>Long-Term Orientation (LTO) The extent to which a society shows a pragmatic future-oriented perspective rather than a</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Absolute truth • Conventional/traditional • Concern for stability • Quick results expected 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many truths • Pragmatic • Acceptance of change perseverance

conventional historical or short-term point of view		
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Adapted from Culture GPS: Professional Edition-5D Model (ITIM, 2011)

2.7 Gender and Entrepreneurial Intentions

Gender role is often a cultural orientation or attribute conditioned by the traditional social system in which men are expected to behave as men (Masculine) and women are expected to think and behave as women (Feminine). Consistent empirical results emerging in the literature on female entrepreneurship is that gender matters. In particular, women exhibit a consistently lower likelihood of becoming an entrepreneur than their male counterparts (Van Gelderen, 1999; Diochon et al., 2002; Reynolds et al., 2004; Wagner, 2005). With African nations being dominantly patriarchal, the extent to which women are able to freely participate in entrepreneurship activities will largely be determined by the existing cultural atmosphere.

Considering the various cultural and structural challenges and obstacles facing women, someone may quickly conclude that women are usually discouraged from venturing into enterprise development. First, early socialisation practices emphasise the primary role of women as mothers and wives and influence girls' total expectations for future participation in the labour force and the choice of career paths. Second, an African culture is mainly seen as a barrier to development because it perpetuates culturally sanctioned biases against women and provides excuses for men (Kiriti et al., 2003b). This has resulted in lower entrepreneurial intentions and subsequent participation of women in business activities.

Several authors concur that there is inadequate research on women’s motives for business founding. Themes within studies that have “gender as variable” include money (Alsos et al., 2006; Orser et al., 2006), management issues such as attitudes towards growth (Wiklund et al., 2003), expectancy of entrepreneurial performance (Gatewood et al., 2002), networks (Greve and Salaff, 2003), the issue of homemakers (Singh & Lucas, 2005), participation of women in the labor force (Noorderhaven et al., 2004); childcare (Williams, 2004), amongst others. Much less attention has been paid to the gender within cultural settings that clearly define specific roles that ought to be played by each gender and, in particular, the extent to which the involvement of women in entrepreneurial

activities which influences their entrepreneurial intentions is either acceptable or unacceptable.

A study conducted in South Africa showed that female and male entrepreneurs differ significantly on some biographic and business variables. Studies comparing males and females in terms of their motivation to start their own business are also scarce, Cromie (1987). This view is supported by Fischer, Reuber & Dyke (1993) who contend that if the existence of male/female differences is to be posited, the empirical evidence comparing women and men should be drawn from the same population Fischer, Reuber & Dyke (1993). Carter & Cannon (1992) have also criticized research that used males and assumed that women did not pursue this type of career or if they did, their motivations for starting a business could be replicated from the findings of male entrepreneurs. Current evidence suggests that the motives of females for entrepreneurship may be different from those of males.

The belief that women cannot run large scale businesses leads some to pretend that men are involved in order to conform to cultural expectations. Cultural pressures to maintain sexual piety as well as a sound moral reputation are brought to bear on women. These pressures impinge significantly on the economic factors that women face (Lessinger, 1990). Such pressures constrain women's mobility, limit whom they talk to, and conduct business with, and structure their relationship to the market. Especially in Africa, there is need to overcome cultural barriers that specifically face women who would otherwise want to engage in venture creation (ILO 1997). Further, Africa continues to strongly uphold patriarchal values that impact on women's ability to build businesses in many contexts. Cultural/ethnic values can play a critical role in determining who gets into entrepreneurship and what functional role each plays in this activity. Holquist & Sundin (1987) suggest that women and men operate in two separate worlds with quite different value systems. Evidence also shows that distinct ethnic groups assume their own behavioral expectations, with some communities emphasizing purely domestic chores for women (passivity in entrepreneurial activities), and others financial independence for both genders. Still for others, the path to entrepreneurship is reflective of women's frustrations encountered at the domestic front.

Gender differences and cultural settings have been inferred as some of the exogenous variables capable of influencing entrepreneurial intentions. Exogenous variables influence attitudes and may also moderate the relationship between intentions and behavior. Intentions and their underlying attitudes are perception-based, which means they are learned. Accordingly, intentions will vary across gender and across cultures. Krueger et al., (2000) observe that forces acting upon a potential behavior do so indirectly by influencing intentions through certain key attitudes. For this study, entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial disposition are some of the perception-based attitudes deemed to influence entrepreneurial intentions as informed by the social- cultural context conceptualized in this study. The two attitudes are discussed next.

2.8 Entrepreneurial Perceptions

Studies have argued that social values and beliefs regarding entrepreneurship will affect the motivational antecedents of intention (Davidsson & Honing 2003; Linan & Santos 2007). In this sense, when a person's closer or broader environment is highly supportive of entrepreneurial activity, it is possible that he/she will feel more inclined towards this career option. Similarly, personal skills may have an effect on entrepreneurial intention (Chen et al., 1998). This observation highlights a somehow obvious connection between skills and perceived behavioural control. Thus, those individuals feeling they have a higher level of certain entrepreneurial skill will more probably feel they can create a firm. Besides, it might be argued that a high self-perception regarding entrepreneurial skills would also be associated with more favourable attitudes towards entrepreneurship.

Previous studies applying TPB revealed that the antecedents of intentions are very much influenced by exogenous factors such as the cognitive capacity of an individual, and pressures from the wider social, cultural and institutional environment (Linan et al., 2009). Thus, the cultural environment which is the focus of this study is deemed important as it may spell the difference in developing perceptions and beliefs that are favorable or unfavorable to entrepreneurial endeavours. The study adopts Hofstede's cultural framework to elucidate the cultural environment that may hinder or aid one's decision to go into self-employment in a Kenyan context.

Perceived desirability and perceived feasibility of self-employment have been shown in previous studies to be unidimensional concepts (Krueger et al., 2000; Souitaris et al., 2007). Perceived social norms, however, constitute a multi-dimensional concept as extant literature show various typology of social norms. Hence, the study shall examine the entrepreneurial perceptions and how these perceptions influence entrepreneurial intentions. Entrepreneurial perceptions construct, is therefore used as a composite variable comprising the two factors; a) desirability perceptions, and b) feasibility perceptions. The feasibility perceptions construct was conceptualised as entrepreneurial self-efficacy by Chen et al. (1998) which refers to the strength of a person's belief that he/she is capable of successfully performing the various roles and tasks of the entrepreneur. Those with high feasibility perceptions seem to assess the environment as opportunistic rather than fraught with risks; they believe in their ability to influence the achievement of their goals, and they perceive a low probability of failure.

Research by Chen, Gully & Eden (2001) focused on the more trait-like generality of self-efficacy, which is termed general self-efficacy (GSE) and operationalised in this study as desirability perceptions. General self-efficacy is defined as one's belief in one's overall competence to affect requisite performance across a wide variety of achievement situations. Moreover, when people are likely to encounter situations that are not fully known, predictability is better for common situations than for uncommon ones (Bandura, 1997). Conceivably the general self-efficacy construct has applicability to entrepreneurship and has been employed to link inventors with new venture formation (Markman et al., 2002). For this study, both general self-efficacy and entrepreneurial self-efficacy are jointly analysed as Entrepreneurial Perceptions in examining the effect of perceptions in determining intentions to become an entrepreneur.

2.8.1 Ethnicity and Entrepreneurship

Ethnicity infers to differences between categories of people (Peterson, 1980). It thus implies that the members have some awareness of group membership and a common origin and culture (Yinger, 1985). In terms of indigenous communities, ethnicity refers to a sense of kinship, group solidarity, common culture and the way in which communities identify themselves with ethnic groups (Hutchinson and Smith, 1996).

Studies in ethnicity and small businesses highlight the importance of racial stratification in determining success in entrepreneurship. Empirical research undertaken in 1992

attempting to explain the racial problems within American society (Min 1996; Waldinger 1996; Yoon 1997) revealed that ethnic participation in employment and entrepreneurial activity is indeed a social process (Light and Rosenstein 1995; Min 1996; Neckerman, Carter and Lee 1999; Park 1997; Waldinger 1996). While recognizing that ethnic participation in business activities has been misinterpreted within the realities of racism and prejudice in entrepreneurship studies (Butler 1991; Ogbor 2000), there is limited research in entrepreneurship literature pertaining to ethnic participation in entrepreneurship within the African context.

How does the culture of an ethnic grouping relate to entrepreneurial intentions? This question is motivated by the observations of economists (Schumpeter, 1934), sociologists (Weber, 1930), and psychologists (McClelland, 1961) that countries and regions differ in levels of entrepreneurial activity. Entrepreneurial activities are considered an important source of technological innovation (Schumpeter, 1934) and economic growth (Birley, 1987). Therefore, understanding the influence of ethnic culture on entrepreneurship is of considerable theoretical and practical value. The non-ethnic –specific literature that the study draws on stresses the attributes of individuals. Within this literature, a familiar motif in research on entrepreneurship has been the differentiation of individuals who choose to pursue self-employment from those taking other career paths.

The study concentrates on the psychological characteristics and personality traits of entrepreneurs to account for entrepreneurial activity. The researcher contends that there would be a strong linkage between various aspects of culture and entrepreneurial intentions within a community which in turn would increase total entrepreneurial activity.

2.9 Exposure to Entrepreneurship Education and Entrepreneurial Intentions

Focusing on new venture creation, many researchers observe that there is a positive relationship between entrepreneurship education and start-up actions (Chrisman, & Vesper, 2001; Henry, 2004; McMullan & Kuratko 2003; 2005). Many studies have shown that entrepreneurship education affects the career choice of students and facilitates them to start up (Fleming, 1994). Clark et al. (1984) reported that university students who had completed an entrepreneurship course demonstrated higher level of intention to create a new firm. They observed that 80% of the entrepreneurship students had entrepreneurial intention after studying the course and over 70% of them later on created their own companies.

In a similarly study, McMullan et al. (1985) reported a higher start-up rate of MBA students who had completed three or more courses related to entrepreneurship. In a more recent study, Charney & Libecap (2000) investigated the impact of entrepreneurship education on venture creation. Their study involved 511 graduates comprising 105 entrepreneurship graduates and 406 non-entrepreneurship graduates. Their findings confirmed that entrepreneurship graduates had significantly higher start-up rate (27%) than their counter parts (9%). Others showing positive effects of entrepreneurship education include (Peterman & Kennedy,2003; Souitaris et al., 2007;Kolvereid & Moen, 1997; Tkachev & Kolvereid, 1999, and Fayolle, 2002). All these findings provide evidence that entrepreneurship education has a positive impact on the graduates' propensity to create their own businesses (i.e. entrepreneurial intention).

Observable reactions that may be attributed to these findings is the increased interest in entrepreneurship and in the number of institutions offering entrepreneurship education. The number of institutions offering courses related to entrepreneurship has grown significantly globally (Katz, 2003). More young people are beginning to consider entrepreneurship as career options than ever before. Minniti et al., (2006) attributed the increased interest to the acknowledgment by external stakeholders of the importance of the creation of new businesses and innovation for wealth creation and global economic growth.

Drucker (1985) asserts that entrepreneurship is a behavioural pattern, not a personality trait; and that individuals can learn how to behave entrepreneurially. Existing literature in this area suggests that certain elements of entrepreneurship are teachable (Gibb, 1998; Kanter, 1989; Sexton & Upton, 1987). The effectiveness of entrepreneurship education in entrepreneurship activities is however disputed in equal measure. While some studies have failed to show causal links between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions (Ruhle et al., 2010), others show that participation does not spark additional interest in students. In a similar study, Galloway et. al., (2005) explicitly states the serious limitations of quantitative studies in evaluating attitudes toward entrepreneurship and the economic environment. He argues that while a study of that sort may suggest a positive impact from entrepreneurship education, it does not allow for a more fine-grained examination of exactly what is having an impact on students, why and how.

Studies about entrepreneurship education focus on enterprise education and consider course content, pedagogy, entrepreneurial learning, and assessment (Greene & Rice, 2007). Assessment of any educational program involves typical evaluation of acquired knowledge and the measurement of participants' understanding of the program content. Thus the need to evaluate the effectiveness of entrepreneurship programs has been made evident by several researchers (Block and Strumpf, 1992; Porter and McKibben, 1988). Gorman et al. (1997) called for more empirical studies utilizing sound methodologies to test the impact of such programs. In addition they recommended entrepreneurship education as a tool for increasing self-efficacy and as a preparation for self employment calling for more studies to assess the impact of entrepreneurship programs.

Evaluating the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education is complicated. It is probably not appropriate to confine to the start-up measure that may exclude the measurement of entrepreneurial knowledge, skills, attitudes and intentions as the evaluation of the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education may surpass such start-up measure and emphasize on the delayed effects (Block & Stumpf, 1992). But Krueger (1993); Krueger et al.,(2000); Luthje & Franke, (200) consider that entrepreneurship is a planned behavior which is best predicted via intention and given it is the first step in the venture creation process (Shook et al., 2003). Studies (Fayolle et al., 2006; Noel, 2001; Peterman & Kennedy, 2003) have suggested that the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education is measured in terms of the predictors of entrepreneurship action, such as entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions (Ajzen, 1991; 2005; Bird , 1988).

Fayolle et al (2006) developed a model to measure the effectiveness of an entrepreneurship education program in terms of entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions basing it on the theory of planned behavior. The model considered the characteristics of an entrepreneurship education program, such as institutional setting, audience, type of programs, objectives, contents, teaching and training methods and approaches. The study reported that after completing the entrepreneurship program the participants had significantly higher level of entrepreneurial intention concluding that the program was effective for increasing the intention of students to start up.

Ajzen (1991, 2005) observes that entrepreneurship education which is an external factor, is likely to influence entrepreneurial intention through its three antecedents (attitude toward entrepreneurship, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control). Other studies focused on the relation between entrepreneurship education and self-efficacy. Ehrlich et al. (2000) contend that entrepreneurship education significantly increases one's self-efficacy and facilitates the emergence of entrepreneurial activities.

Noel (2001) studied different groups of students: graduates in entrepreneurship, graduates in management, and graduates in other disciplines. All the students completed an entrepreneurship education program. The study found that entrepreneurship graduates had higher level of propensity to act as an entrepreneur, entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial "self-efficacy" than those of the other two groups. Self-efficacy is indeed very similar to the term of perceived behavioral control, which is an attitudinal factor of entrepreneurial intention (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Krueger et al., 2000). Thus, the effectiveness of entrepreneurship education in the studies of Ehrlich et al. (2000) and Noel (2001) is related to the attitudinal antecedents of entrepreneurial intention.

Consistent with more recent studies, Ajzen, (1991) observed that key attitudes and intentions toward behaviour are driven by perception and as such can be influenced. That said, entrepreneurship education is a tool that is available to increase individual's key attitudes, perceptions and intentions towards self-employment (Kolvereid, 1996a). However, there is a lack of empirical studies testing the relationship between participation in entrepreneurship education and self-employment intentions using an appropriate sample of students who are likely to be soon making career related decisions (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994; Souitaris et al., 2007).

2.10 Previous Studies and Knowledge Gaps

Review of the literature reveals conceptual overlaps as well as potential knowledge gaps that need to be addressed. One of the most obvious and significant gaps identified in the table is the issue of context, unit of analysis and variables considered. Context has been recognised to be a significant gap in the literature (GEM, 2010) and it could be expected that context will play a significant role in harnessing entrepreneurial intentions. The current study will specifically address these gaps. Table 2.1 provides a summary of previous studies and knowledge gaps related to the study.

Table 2.3: Summary of Previous Studies and Knowledge Gaps

Study	Focus	Major findings	Knowledge gaps	Focus of this Study
Shane, Kolvereid & Westhead (1991)	Are there significant differences across culture and/or gender in reasons given for business start-up?	The emphasis on each of these reasons varies systematically across countries. Reasons for starting a business: achievement; independence from others, learning and development, and roles.	Failed to explore if the reasons for gender differences in business start-ups across cultures are replicated within cultures.	Assesses the effect of cultures on gender to determine if intra-cultures have similar effect between gender
McGrath et al. (1992b)	Is there a set of values that are held by entrepreneurs versus nonentrepreneurs across cultures?	Across cultures, entrepreneurs score high in power-distance, individualism, and masculinity and low in uncertainty avoidance.	This research type of research has the potential challenge of including hindsight bias and success bias	The nunit of analysis are undergraduated students admitted through JAB who are unlikely to possess any meaningful prior business experience. Hence hindsight bias and success bias will be avoided.
Baum et al.(1993)	Does national culture moderate the association between individual needs and chosen work role (entrepreneur versus manager)?	Israeli entrepreneurs report higher need for achievement and affiliation and lower need for dominance than do Israeli managers. U.S. entrepreneurs do not differ significantly	Analysed culture as moderating variable as a moderating variable to observe the findings	Culture and cultural factors analysed as independent variables for both direct and indirect effects on entrepreneurial intentions intentions

		from U.S. managers.		.
Scheinberg & MacMillan (1988)	Are the motives of entrepreneurs to start a business similar or different across cultures?	The importance of these motives varies systematically across cultures. Indicators were: need for approval, communitarianism, need for personal development, need for independence, and need for escape.	Assumed existence of a dominant” national” culture which is not the case in of a multi-ethnic nation such as kenya.	Study looks at the effect of intra-cultures within a nation.
Chen et al (1998)	Intention to start a business	Included entrepreneurial self-efficacy in their intention models and found a significant relationship between self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention	The current study takes a step behind to explore factors influencing self-efficacy	Self efficacy factors are analysed for direct and mediating effects.
Mitchell, et al., (2000)	Does the presence of cognitive scripts associated with venture creation decisions vary significantly across cultures?	Individualism and power-distance are associated with entrepreneurial cognitive scripts and the venture creation decisions.	Uses business firm owners as units of analysis which may present the hindsight bias and success bias.	Intentions are assessed on undergraduateUniversity students with no prior business experience Thus biases will be avoided
Mueller & Thomas	Do entrepreneurial	Cultures high in individualism and low	Scores were compared	Pre-business phase of the entrepreneurial

(2000)	traits vary systematically across cultures?	in uncertainty avoidance rate highest on a measure of entrepreneurial orientation	between entrepreneurs not pre-business phase.	process
Mungai and Ogot (2011)	Are there differences in the manner in which entrepreneurship is perceived between gender across ethnic groups in Kenya?	Cultural influences play a larger role in determining women's perceptions and propensities towards entrepreneurship.	Studied only four ethnic communities, all drawn from Nairobi.	Samples drawn from regionally diverse centres to capture the negated effects
Mungai and Ogot (2012)	Entrepreneurial perceptions and traits as displayed by different ethnic communities in Kenya?	There are significant differences in propensity towards entrepreneurship perceptions across the communities studied (Kikuyu, Luo, Kamba and Kalenjin).	Samples were small and all drawn from Nairobi thereby negating some of the ethnic enclave effects.	Samples will be drawn from regionally diverse centres to capture the negated effects.

2.11 Conceptual Framework

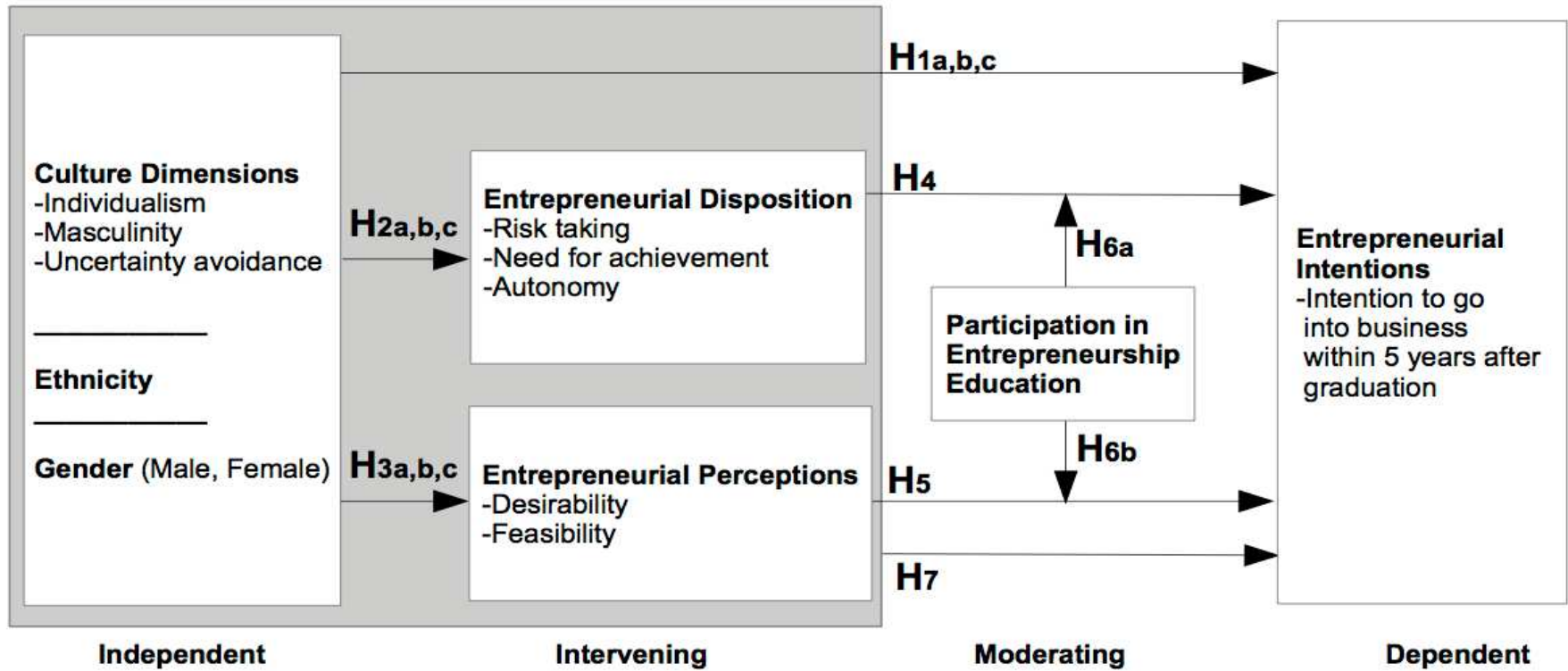
The study model is guided by empirical analyses from previous models such as those of Bird (1993) and Shapero & Sokol (1982), that have attempted to integrate empirical research findings about the determinants of entrepreneurial intentions and behavior. Later models for example Krueger & Brazael (1994), Boyd & Vozikis (1994) and Krueger & Carsrud (1993) have also been used for comparison. Further, empirical research on the characteristics of entrepreneurs/business founders (Brockhaus, 1982; Brockhaus & Horwitz, 1986; Stanworth et al, 1989) provides the basis in examining the impact of the entrepreneurial disposition on intentions to found a business. Other models such as Davidsson (1995c); McClelland (1961) and Lynn (1991) provide aggregate level results concerning cultural influences on new firm formation rates and rates of economic growth.

For this study, the model is guided by psychological theories, for example social learning theory (Bandura, 1986) and the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). However factors such culture besides subjective norms and gender differences are included in the study model in order to ground it within the context for which it is conducted. Figure 2.1 presents the conceptual framework adopted for the current study. The model makes a first assumption that intentions to become an entrepreneur are determined by social-cultural factors, such as cultural values and gender. In addition, the relationship between social-cultural factors and intentions to become an entrepreneur is mediated by an individual's personality and entrepreneurial perceptions. This relationship finds empirical support in Rauch & Frese (2000) and Frese et al., (2000). The effect of personality disposition and entrepreneurial perceptions is further moderated by the exposure to entrepreneurship education (see also Rauch & Frese, 1998; Risseuw & Masurel, 1993).

The second assumption is based on the understanding that Kenya has several culturally distinct ethnic groups with a characteristic cultural identity attributable to each. Thus the emphasis given to various cultural values, though common to all may translate to differences in life choices, including decisions to be (or not to be) entrepreneurs. This qualifies individual level of analysis, in terms of ethnicity and cultural values, in the study of entrepreneurial intentions among Kenya's public university undergraduate students.

In sum, the model provides the conceptualized interrelationships among students' culture and gender (independent variables) that are expected to have influence on entrepreneurial intentions (dependent variable). Entrepreneurial perceptions (perceived feasibility and perceived desirability) and entrepreneurial disposition (risk, autonomy and need for achievement) as intervening variables are a function of the independent variables and help in conceptualizing and explaining the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. Entrepreneurship education is the moderating variable on which the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions; entrepreneurial dispositions and entrepreneurial intentions are contingent.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework



2.12 Research Hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to provide further understanding of the factors that lead an individual to consider self-employment as a career option. Firstly, this study provides a theoretical explanation, grounded in Psycho-Social Theories, The Theory of Planned Behaviour and Social Cognitives Theory. Secondly, the study identifies and theorises entrepreneurial perceptions as antecedents to entrepreneurial intentions. And thirdly, the study empirically evaluates an entrepreneurial intentions model to determine the impact of the social-cultural factors on the students' intentions to go into entrepreneurship. Thus, the specific variables proposed in the study may play an important role in motivating an individual to pursue entrepreneurship as a career alternative. The study will seek to address this research problem by empirically testing of the hypothesis in the section that follows in the context of public university students.

- H1a:** There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial intention
- H1b:** There are significant differences in entrepreneurial intentions between different ethnic groups
- H1c:** There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intentions
- H2a:** There is significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial disposition
- H2b:** There are significant differences in entrepreneurial disposition between different ethnic groups
- H2c:** There is significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial disposition.
- H3a:** There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions
- H3b:** There are significant differences in entrepreneurial perceptions between different ethnic groups
- H3c:** There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial perceptions
- H4:** There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intention.
- H5:** There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions.
- H6a:** Entrepreneurship education has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions
- H6b:** Entrepreneurship education as a positive moderating effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions.
- H7:** There is a significant combined effect by the study variables on entrepreneurial intentions

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion on the methodology used in the research to be able to answer the research questions. The chapter attempts to justify the philosophical paradigm adopted for the study, research design, target population, sampling and data collection procedures. It also explains the operationalisation of the study variables as well as methods of analyzing the data.

3.2 Research Philosophy

The philosophical paradigms of positivism and phenomenology that guides social science research are briefly reviewed in this section to provide guidance on the most appropriate paradigm for the study. The positivist paradigm is a research orientation which assumes that a useful research is based on theory, hypotheses and quantitative data. Positivism research has been dominant in the social, psychological and behavioural sciences as well as management research (Ridenour & Newman 2008; Veal 2005). The quantitative approach involves data collection and the analysis of numerical data Veal (2005). Thus, the researcher is an objective analyst who makes interpretations about the collected data in a value-free Manner (Bryman, 2001).

Phenomenology research in social science derives from anthropology and sociology (Ridenour & Newman 2008). The basic assumption underlying phenomenology research is to uncover meanings and understanding of the issues being studied (Veal, 2005). Phenomenological paradigm avoids prior assumptions about theory, hypothesis or quantification. It does not develop conceptual frameworks or formulate hypothesis in advance. Researchers following this approach argue that these issues create bias by directing the researcher to focus on particular areas at the expense of the total picture. Thus, qualitative techniques are used when exploratory theory building, rather than theory testing, is undertaken (Ridenour & Newman 2008).

According to Collies & Hussey (2003) there are two main philosophies: positivism (quantitative) and phenomenological (qualitative). A quantitative paradigm is concerned with phenomena that can be observed, measured and validated (Collies & Hussey, 2003).

Because this research's objectives are to establish causal relationships between culture, gender, perceptions, dispositions, entrepreneurship, ethnicity, education and intentions to become entrepreneurs, quantitative analysis is most appropriate to establish the relationship. This research aims to provide and examine a theoretical explanation grounded by cross-cultural, traits and social cognition theory for the impact of cognitive style at an individual level in regard to antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions. This research also uses established instruments to measure the attributes of phenomena and statistical procedures are employed in data analysis. Therefore, this research adopts a quantitative or positivism paradigm. According to Collies & Hussey (2009) under positivism, theories offer the basis to explain the phenomena under investigation using causal relationships between the variables. Furthermore, the positivism assumes that social phenomena can be measured using quantitative techniques.

3.3 Research Design

Research design is the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions (Coopers & Schindler, 2005). It is a framework for specifying the relationships among the study variables. Thus, it guides the selection of sources and types of information.

In quantitative research design, a cross-sectional survey is adopted in this thesis. In a cross-sectional survey, data is collected at one point in time from a sample to depict a population (Babbie, 1990). According to the author, survey study provides a quantitative description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample. Further, a survey is also useful to investigate the underlying relationships between variables (Babbie, 1990). This supported by Leedy & Ormrod (2001) who argued that cross-sectional survey is useful to identifying "the characteristics of an observed phenomenon or exploring possible correlations among two or more phenomena" (p. 191). Thus using the survey design, we can use statistical tools to test the relationship between the study's independent variables and entrepreneurial intention (Creswell, 2009).

The cross-sectional survey design is most suitable for achieving the objectives of this thesis. The survey design allows differentiating responses in a systematic and standardized way. This design approach provides a consistent benchmark for the research. Measurement (in proper scales) can gauge fine differences between responses provided

by participants. The consistent gauging scale provides the basis for precise estimates of the association between variables. The measurement issues will be discussed in details later in this chapter. In a cross-sectional survey design, vagueness about the direction of influence of variables may exist. Nevertheless, this approach is used in most social survey research (Bryman, 2008). According to Bryman, to indicate independent and dependent variables, theoretical supports are necessary for researchers to infer the influence of one variable to the other. This relates to a matter of hypothesis development. The hypotheses of this study are developed based on theoretical supports in psychological and entrepreneurial research, as discussed in Chapter 2.

In the field of entrepreneurship research, cross-sectional survey has been widely used (Autio et al., 2001; Luthje & Franke, 2003; Kristiansen & Indarti, 2004; Krueger et al., 2000) and regarded appropriate and reliable to investigate entrepreneurial intentions. Autio et al. (2001) applied the research design to analyze factors influencing entrepreneurial intention among university students. With cross-sectional survey, the studies compared participants from different areas, such as Finland, Sweden, USA, and UK. With the dependent variable as entrepreneurial intention of their study, the independent variables included attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, work experience in small firms, employment status, change of job within one year, and age. The results showed that TPB was robust and perceived behavioral control was found as the most important determinant of entrepreneurial intention.

Similarly, Kristiansen & Indarti's (2004) conducted surveys among Indonesian and Norwegian students to study the impact of different economic and cultural texts. Independent variables in their study included demographic factors, individual background, personality traits, attitudes, and contextual elements, while the dependent variable was entrepreneurial intention. They found that the level of entrepreneurial intention was higher among Indonesian students than Norwegian students; the individual perceptions of self-efficacy and instrumental readiness were the variables that affected entrepreneurial intention most significantly, while age, gender and educational background had no statistical significant impact.

In addition, Luthje & Franke (2003) explored whether personality traits or contextual founding conditions (independent variables) had an impact on the intention (dependent variable) to create own business. The studies also adopted cross-sectional survey design in their study and reported that personality traits did not directly influence entrepreneurial intention, but through attitudes; perceived barriers and support factors directly affected entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, Kolvereid (1996b), Tkachev & Kolvereid (1999), and Gird & Bagraim (2008) also used cross-sectional survey design to investigate the entrepreneurial intention of students. All these studies showed that survey design is effective to investigate the entrepreneurial intention of students. Thus, in this thesis, a descriptive cross-sectional survey design is applied to investigate the effect of education components on entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions of the public university students. In order to achieve the aim of this study, a sample of public university students in Kenya was determined to participate in the survey and a questionnaire was developed to measure the response of the students regarding the constructs of the study with reference to a pre-designed entrepreneurial intention model. The set of hypotheses developed were then statistically tested in order to study the specific effect of the proposed relationship model.

3.4 Population of the Study

The population of focus comprised all the 16,151 Kenyan Government sponsored undergraduate students in public universities enrolled in the fourth year (2012/ 2013) of study as per the Joint Admissions Board (JAB) list. The interest of this group lies in the fact that they are near the completion of their studies and are expected to be seriously considering the career option to choose after graduation. In addition, they comprise a culturally diverse group selected from all over the country with due consideration of affirmative action in regard to gender composition as inferred from the conceptual framework of the study. Further they constitute a dynamic age group (mid twenties) in which the study of attitudes towards entrepreneurship is desirable. Finally, members of this particular student population are unlikely to have any or substantial prior business experience that would otherwise present hindsight bias or success bias in their responses. Therefore, university students are well positioned for the purpose of this study.

Students samples have been successfully used in previous researchers (Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud 2000). Harvey & Evans (1995) recommend use of the final year classes as the best possible sample population for intentions study because the students are at a stage in their education life-cycle when they are most likely to make career related decisions.

The fourth year classes are either in their final or nearing the final year in their university course. Therefore, their answers could be expected to be more careful and pondered thus qualifying them as a population rich with the relevant information for the study.

3.5 Sample Design

A sample design refers to a definite plan for obtaining a sample from a given population. It refers to the technique or the procedure the researcher would adopt in selecting items for the sample. It also lays down the number of items to be included in the sample (sample size), confidence level for the estimate, sampling frame and population parameters of interest to be considered before methods of collecting data are determined.

The sampling unit for the study was the fourth year students. Proportionate stratified sampling technique was used to determine the sub-samples per university. Judgemental sampling was then applied to select the respondents for each university. Measures to ensure representativeness of the population and thus generalization of the results were taken into consideration. Hoinville et al., (1985) posits that the sample size is almost always a matter of judgment rather than calculation. The required sample size is dependent on the statistical analysis employed (Mendenhall & Sincich, 2003) and has a direct impact on the power of the research.

Hair et al. (1998) suggest between fifteen to twenty observations for each independent variable if the sample is representative. Applying Hair's approach to the current study gives 120 respondents (i.e 6 * 20). However, based on the statistical analysis to be employed, the researcher considered such a sample size to be too small. Thus, Slovin's formula was used to determine the sample size as follows:

$$n = N / (1 + Ne^2)$$

Where n, is the sample size N, is the total population, and e, is the error tolerance

Ariola (2006) argues that in using Slovin's formula, the error of tolerance is first determined which can range between 95% and 99% confidence level (giving a margin error of 0.05 and 0.01 respectively). An error tolerance of 2% from within the range of 1-5 was selected yielding a sample size of 2140. However to account for unreturned questionnaires, oversampling is commonly used. For this study, a typical figure of 2.5% oversampling was used, yielding a final sample size of 2192. The total number of students in Kenya's public universities in year 2009 was 14,863. These numbers were not exact and determining the exact population would have been costly and time consuming. Hence the reason for using the JAB list.

To ensure proportional sub-samples for each university in terms of population size and gender. Specifically, pink (for female) and blue (for male) questionnaires were designed to ensure equitable number of male and female respondents across the universities. As a rule of thumb, sample sizes of 30 to 500 are deemed appropriate for quantitative empirical research. Sekaran (2003) observes that where samples are to be divided into sub-samples, a minimum sub-sample size of 30 for each category would be adequate.

In regard to this consideration, the snowball method was used in cases where the desired quota failed to be randomly obtained until such a time where the researcher was convinced beyond doubt that all possible respondents were exhausted within that sample category. Hofstede (1991) also maintains that for cross-cultural studies, a quota control on ethnic groups is necessary in order to ensure that minimum sample size is achieved for each of the sub groups. A similar approach was adopted by Urban (2004). Table 3.1 provides the details of the sampling design.

Table 3.1: Sampling Technique and Sample Size

Population [1]				Sample Size		
University	Male	Female	Total	Sample total	Male	Female
University of Nairobi	2543	1365	3908	363	236	127
Kenyatta University	1933	1227	3160	355	217	138
JKUAT	796	284	1080	292	215	76
Maseno University	550	364	914	278	167	111
Moi University	2023	1381	3404	358	213	145
Egerton University	1210	727	1937	332	208	124
Masinde Muliro	325	135	460	214	151	63
Total	9380	5483	14863	2192	1407	784

Source[1]: (JAB, 2008/2009)

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

Primary data were gathered from fourth year undergraduate students across all public university students in Kenya using a self-administered questionnaire which was distributed in the classrooms during lecture period. Prior trained research assistants were engaged during the data collection process. Bird (1989, 378) observes that reliability is a bare minimum for valid studies of personality, attitudes and values.

Given that new scales and items without reports on reliability of measures are likely to result in responses that vary and have no consistency, the study relied on questionnaire items that have been previously tested with reference to published reports on their reliability and validity such as Hofstede's (1980:2001) cultural dimensions and Bird's (1989) self efficacy and Kolvereid's (2000) feasibility and desirability constructs. The replication of these measures in several studies provides support for their validity. Intentions were measured as a percentage probability that the respondent would go into business in the five-year period following graduation. Perception variables were measured by eight item questions. Disposition variables were measured by thirteen item questions. Culture variables were measured by fourteen item questions and exposure to entrepreneurship education measured by a five item questions.

The design of the questionnaire was such that it captured the relevant information necessary to answer the research questions. Therefore the instrument was divided into 2 major parts. Part I gathered information about the personal profile of the respondents which included their age, gender, ethnicity, location where respondents grew up and prior exposure to entrepreneurship education. Part II consisted of questions about respondents' intentions to go into self-employment. It also enquired about their personal attitudes and perceptions about entrepreneurship, perceived cultural dimensions and perceived impact of entrepreneurship education on intentions to become self-employed. All the questions in Part II were put on a 5 point Likert scale as adopted from previous studies (Hofstede 1991; Urban 2004; Kolvereid 2000). A copy of the questionnaire is in Appendix A.

3.7 Tests of Reliability and Validity

Reliability means the consistency of a measure of a concept (Bryman & Belt, 2007), which refers to the probability of obtaining the consistent results after the repetition of the research with similar methods. The nature of the study required collection of primary data only, since it sought answers that related to the undergraduate's attitudes, perceptions and preferences. In order to elicit trust from the respondents and enhance response quality, a covering letter of the explanation of the research purpose was attached to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was classified into several sections which covered the general orientation of the research. The reliability of the instrument was estimated using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient which is used to assess the internal consistence or homogeneity among the research instrument items.

Validity concerns the issue of whether an indicator (or set of indicators) that is devised to gauge a concept really measures that concept (Bryman & Belt, 2007). It is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences which are based on results. Mugenda & Mugenda, (2003) observe that validity is the degree to which results obtained from analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. It is largely determined by the presence or absence of systematic error of data (non-random error). This study used face validity where a panel of experts gave their input as to whether the instrument met the criterion. Other techniques of validating data are construct validity and content validity (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

Owing to the crucial importance of primary data in quantitative research, the questionnaire for the investigation was given much attention in this study. Bryman & Belt, (2007) recommends a pilot study before utilizing the whole questionnaire. Hence a pilot study was conducted using fifty questionnaires administered to students in order to assess the respondents' understanding of the instrument. Issues raised by respondents were corrected and questionnaire refined for use in the main study.

3.8 Statistical Procedures and Analyses

A variety of statistical procedures were employed in the analyses of the data starting with basic descriptive statistics to more complex procedures like Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple regression analysis and analysis of correlations between the variables. The descriptive statistics encompassed frequency distributions, measures of central tendency (means) and measures of dispersion (standard deviation). These were employed to develop a thorough understanding of the nature of the data and to provide summary descriptions of the respondents in the sample.

ANOVA was carried out where there was a need to compare groups of cases for differences in their means along particular variables. ANOVA is a technique for testing simultaneously whether two or more population means are significantly different. Although one-way ANOVA is the method of choice when testing for differences between multiple groups, it assumes that the mean is a valid estimate of centre and that the distribution of the test variable is reasonably normal and similar in all groups (Field, 2000).

Where it was not possible to show clearly that these assumptions are satisfied, nonparametric procedures such as the Scheffe's posterior F-test was used to test for the significance of the differences between the mean ranks of the various groups (i.e. whether or not the values of a particular variable differ between two or more groups). Scheffe's posterior F is a non-parametric ANOVA which is applied where there are groups of unequal sizes (Field, 2000). Unlike standard ANOVA, these tests do not assume normality, and can be used for ordinal variables (SPSS, 2004).

Another statistical procedure applied to assess the existence of relationships between variables was the test of correlation. In this case as the data to be tested included ordinal or dichotomous nominal data, the non-parametric Spearman's correlation coefficient was

calculated. This test first ranks the data and then applies the Pearson's equation to compute the correlation coefficient. Correlations measure how variables or rank orders are related. It is useful for determining the strength and direction of the association between two variables which could be positively related, not related at all or negatively related (Field, 2000). The correlation coefficient (r) lies between -1 and $+1$. If the r is close to -1 or $+1$, the two variables are close to a perfect linear relationship, and when the r is close to 0 , there is little or no correlation (Field, 2000).

Analysis of the correlations between the variables was therefore carried out to assess the existence of associations between the dimensions of culture and entrepreneurial intentions and Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients represented by r , was computed. This statistic is appropriate when both variables are measured at an interval level (Trochim, 2006). Correlation analysis is a very common statistical tool in culture related research. Some examples of research that have utilised this technique include Liu (1999), Cheung et al., (2003), Phua & Rowlinson (2004) and Chan & Chan (2005). This measure of association has also been noted as an important step towards the development of the regression model(s) (Hair et al., 1998). Finally, multiple regression analyses were conducted. Multiple regression analysis allows for the examination of relationships between several independent variables and one dependent variable. In addition to the independent variables' collective prediction of the dependent variable, this statistical method determines the individual contribution of each of the individual variables to the dependent variable, both directionally and magnitudinally (Hair et al., 1998).

3.8.1 Multiple Regression Models

Multiple regression seeks to study the effects and the magnitude of the effects of more than one independent variable on one dependent variable (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). It leads to the derivation of an equation in which each independent (predictor) variable has its own coefficient and the dependent (outcome) variable is predicted from a combination of all the variables multiplied by their corresponding coefficients plus a residual term (Field, 2000). A generic equation of this multiple regression model is given as:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_n X_n + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y is the outcome variable

β_1 is the coefficient of the first predictor X_1
 β_2 is the coefficient of the second predictor X_2
 β_n is the coefficient of the n th predictor X_n
 ε_i is the difference between the predicted and observed value of Y for
the i th subject.

According to Hair et al., (1998), the coefficients are weights which effectively denote the relative contribution of the predictor variables to the overall prediction, and facilitate interpretation as to the influence of each variable in making the prediction. As aptly stated in Kerlinger & Lee (2000), the results of the calculations indicate how ‘good’ the prediction is and approximately how much of the variance of the outcome is accounted for by the ‘best’ linear combination of the predictors. This is what makes the multiple regression model particularly appropriate in this research which seeks to examine the influence of various dimensions of culture (independent variables) on each intentions to become entrepreneurs (dependent variable).

3.8.2 Methods of Variable Selection in Multiple Regression

There are several methods for deciding which independent variables to use in the regression model and how to enter these variables into the model. Field (2000) identified three principal methods as hierarchical, forced entry, and stepwise methods. Hierarchical regression relies on the identification of predictors based on past research. These known predictors are then entered into the regression model in order of their importance, after which the previously unidentified predictors are entered (Field, 2000). In this research, the absence of strong empirical evidence of important predictors from the literature on cultural orientations and performance precluded the use of this method of regression. With forced entry, all the predictors are forced into the model simultaneously. As noted in Field (2000), this method also relies on the existence of sound theoretical bases for inclusion of all the chosen variables, a requirement which cannot be satisfied in this research.

The most viable option for this research is thus the stepwise method. In the stepwise method, the decisions about what variables to enter into the model and the order in which they are entered are based entirely on a mathematical criterion (Field, 2000). This approach according to Xiao (2002) yields a final equation that is simple yet powerful

enough to reveal any significant relationships. Predictors not in the model are evaluated for entry one at a time, with the best predictor being entered into the model, and those already in the equation are evaluated for removal one at a time with the removal of the most insignificant predictor, until no more predictors are eligible for entry or removal (Field, 2000; Xiao, 2002). The criterion for entry of a predictor is that the significance of the F test must be ≤ 0.05 , and the criterion for removal is that the significance of the F test must be ≥ 0.10 .

3.8.3 Assumptions of Regression

There are a number of key assumptions associated with the multiple regression procedure. These assumptions must be met for the regression analysis to guarantee a model in which the actual errors in prediction are as a result of the real absence of a relationship among the variables and not caused by some characteristic of the data not accommodated by the regression procedure (Hair et al., 1998). These assumptions are given as: Linearity of the phenomenon measured, Constant variance of the error terms, Independence of the error terms, and Normality of the error term distribution

Hair et al., (1998) have indicated that the principal measure of prediction errors is the residual, which is the difference between the observed and predicted values for the outcome variable. Analysis of the residuals is thus the principal means of identifying violations of the assumptions. According to Hair et al., (1998) plots of the standardised residuals versus predictor and outcome variables is the basic method of identifying assumption violations. Specific patterns of these residuals indicate violations of particular assumptions. These assumptions are discussed in more detail below.

Multiple regression assumes a linear relationship between the outcome variable and the predictor variables. One approach for testing this assumption is to plot the outcome against the predictor variables, and the data points should cluster around a straight line if the assumptions are met (Xiao, 2002). Linearity can also be assessed from an examination of residual plots which must show a random distribution of data points. Hair et al., (1998) and Field (2000) provide a number of residual plots which show non-linear patterns of residuals. Where such non-linear relationships exist, alternative regression methods such as the introduction of polynomial terms must be considered.

Heteroscedasticity, or the presence of unequal variance has been described as one of the commonest assumption violations. It is diagnosed also by plots of studentised residuals against the predicted outcome values. A consistent pattern (triangle or diamond-shaped) in such a plot is evidence that the variance is not constant (Hair et al., 1998). Alternatively, the Levene test for homogeneity of variance can be produced by SPSS (SPSS, 2004). Significant values indicate a departure from constant variance.

It is expected that the residual terms for any two cases should be uncorrelated (i.e. independent). Autocorrelation is said to exist where residual terms are not independent (Field, 2000). The Durbin-Watson test for serial correlation of the residuals (SPSS, 2004), can be used to evaluate this assumption. The test statistic can vary between 0 and 4 with the value of 2 meaning that the residuals are uncorrelated or independent (Field, 2000). As a general rule of thumb, the closer the value is to 2, the better.

A fundamental assumption of multiple regression, and what Hair et al., (1998) described as the most frequently violated assumption, is the assumption of normality of the predictor and outcome variables. The simplest diagnostic tool for the set of predictors in the equation is the histogram of residuals which by visual inspection should be bell-shaped, approximating the normal distribution. A better method is the use of the normal probability plot (P-P plot) which compares the standardised residuals with a normal distribution which is represented by a straight diagonal line.

If the distribution is normal, then the residual line must closely follow this diagonal line (Hair et al., 1998). As indicated in Field (2000), it is only when all these assumptions are met that the model can be accurately applied to the population. All the assumptions were thus tested as each multiple regression model was generated. Multiple regression is a widely used multivariate technique in management research. All these researches have sought to examine and model the relationships between predictor and outcome variables, an aim which clearly resonates with the aim of this research.

3.9 Controlling for Auto Correlation and Multicollinearity

To test the hypothesis using the regression analysis, the study ensured that the basic conditions for the application and interpretation of the results were complied with. The use of regression analysis assumes that the data is normally distributed and that there is independences of errors. It was necessary to control for auto correlation.

The research controlled for auto correlation using the approach provided by Levine et al., (2008). The approach requires the computation of the Durbin Waston statistic (D) which measures the correlation between each residual and residual for the time period immediately preceding the one of interest. When the successive residuals positively auto correlate, the value of D approaches 0. If the residuals are not auto correlated, the value of D will be close to 2. If there is a negative auto correlations, D will be greater than 2 and could approach its maximum value of 4. For each of the tests performed, the study carried out a test for auto correlation, and the value of D interpreted according to these criteria to determine whether autocorrelation could be invalidating the results.

The concept of multicollinearity is based on the basic assumption that in regression modeling the independent variable in the model are not linearly related. The existence of a linear relationship among some of the independent variables is called multicollinearity (Wang, 1966) which affects the stability of the parameter estimates calculated in multiple regression analysis models. The study relied on the approach provided by Bowerman & O 'Conwell (1990), Meyers (1990) and (2005) to control for multicollinearity. Accordingly, the study computed the variance inflation factor (VIF) and the tolerance statistics which indicate whether a predictor has a strong linear relationship with the other predictor(s). For the VIF, a value greater than 1.0 is a good value; values that are substantially greater than 1.0 imply that multicollinearity may be biasing the regression model. The tolerance statistics is computed as the reciprocal of the VIF (1/VIF). Tolerance statistics values below 0.1 indicate a serious problem while those below 0.2 indicate a potential problem. The tests of hypotheses were accompanied by a computation of VIF score and the results interpreted according to this criterion.

3.10 Testing for Type I and Type II errors

Empirical research may be affected by the wrong interpretation arising out of the testing of hypotheses due to the influence of Type I and Type II errors. Type I error in research occurs when the Null hypothesis is rejected when in fact the null is true. Type II error on the other hand occurs when the research accepts a false null hypothesis when they should have rejected it (Zikmund, 2003; Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004; Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Scholars agree that the Type I errors are considered more serious than the Type II errors and that reducing the probability of a Type II error increased the probability of a Type I error (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

To control this Type I error, researchers and statistician agree that it largely depends on the level of statistical significance that the researcher has set up for testing the hypotheses. The conventional levels are $P < 0.001$, $P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.05$ (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004). The various hypothesis tested by this research were tested within the threshold of the conventional significance levels to ensure that the probability of committing this Type I error was very low and that practical decisions made out of the recommendations of the tested hypotheses stand a relative low chance of being misleading.

Zikmund (2003) suggested that the Type II error is addressed through the sample size by ensuring that the sample size is relatively large. This study obtained data from a population estimated at 18,000 respondents.

While statisticians agree that a sample is large, this study increased the targeted sample size of 2,200 to whom the questionnaires were distributed. The actual response was from 1,659 enough to control for the chances of committing Type II error. A number of scholars have used a similar approach to control for the Type II error (Muathe, 2010).

3.11 Operationalization of the Variables

The key variables of this study include the independent variables; culture, gender, dispositional traits, entrepreneurial perceptions, ethnicity and entrepreneurship education playing various roles as indicated in the conceptual model. These variables were operationalized and measured as contained in Table 3.2. A summary of the data analysis methods to be used is provided in Table 3.3

Table 3.2: Summary of Operationalization of Variables

Variable/ Elements	Operationalization of the variable	Measure	Question
Entrepreneurial intentions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire to start your own business within 5 years of graduation 	Range of statements suggesting a strong interest to start your business within 5 years.	Likert type scale 1) strongly agree to 5) strongly disagree	Questions 2-5
Entrepreneurial perceptions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desirability • Feasibility 	Desirability - Having more or less of the conviction that founding their own firm is a suitable alternative Feasibility - Individuals perceptions of their own entrepreneurial capability in identifying and managing viable businesses	Likert type scale 1) strongly disagree 5) strongly agree	Questions 6-13
Entrepreneurial disposition <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need for Achievement • Risk-taking • Autonomy 	Reasons for wanting to go into business relative to each of the three elements	Likert type scale 1) strongly disagree 5) strongly agree	Questions 14 – 26
Culture <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hofstede’s cultural dimensions 	Range of statements describing the cultural inclination to the particular value	Likert type scale 1) strongly agree to 5) strongly disagree	Questions 27 -40
Exposure to entrepreneurship education	Impact of entrepreneurship education on students entrepreneurial intentions	Likert type scale 1) strongly disagree 5) strongly agree	Question 41-45

Table 3.3: Summary of Data Analysis

Objectives	Hypotheses	Data Analysis
To determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial intentions	H1a: There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial intention	Linear Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$
To determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intentions	H1b: There are significant differences in entrepreneurial intentions between different ethnic groups	ANOVA using Scheffe's posterior F-test
To determine the effect of gender on entrepreneurial intentions	H1c: There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intentions	ANOVA using Scheffe's posterior F-test
To determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial disposition	H2a: There is significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial disposition	Linear Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$
To determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial disposition	H2b: There are significant differences in entrepreneurial disposition between different ethnic groups	ANOVA using Scheffe's posterior F-test
To determine the effect of gender on entrepreneurial disposition	H2c: There is significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial disposition	ANOVA using Scheffe's posterior F-test
To determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial perceptions	H3a: There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions	Linear Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$
To determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial perceptions	H3b: There are significant differences in entrepreneurial perceptions between different ethnic groups	ANOVA using Scheffe's posterior F-test
To determine the effect of gender on entrepreneurial perceptions	H3c: There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial perceptions	ANOVA using Scheffe's posterior F-test
To determine the effect of entrepreneurial disposition on entrepreneurial intentions	H4: here is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intention	Linear Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$

To determine the effect of entrepreneurial perceptions on entrepreneurial intentions	H5: There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions	Linear Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta x + \epsilon$
To determine the effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions	H6a : Entrepreneurship education has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions	Multiple Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n + \epsilon$
To determine the effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions	H6b: Entrepreneurship education as a positive moderating effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions	Multiple Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n + \epsilon$
To determine the joint effect of predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions	H7: There is a significant combined effect by the predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions	Backward stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis $Y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_n x_n + \epsilon$

3.12 Chapter Summary

The Chapter presented the research methodology which comprised the research design and research paradigms. The research design used was a descriptive survey design driven by the positivist paradigm. The population and sampling procedures were presented herein too. The data collection procedures used and data collection instruments were presented as well as the operationalization of the variables alongside the data analysis techniques. Justification of the particular data analysis techniques is given. A table summarising the statistical tests conducted for the hypotheses is also provided. The Chapter therefore gives way for Chapter Four which has the analysis of results and interpretations of findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to data analysis and interpretation, and discussion of findings of the research. It presents where appropriate, answers to the research questions and provides a basis for either confirming proposed relationships. Besides descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation coefficients, linear and multiple regression analysis and ANOVA were employed for this purpose. A table summarising the test of hypotheses and the subsequent interpretation of results is also provided.

4.2 Data Analysis

The first step in data analysis involved cleaning the data collected using questionnaires by checking for any incompleteness, inconsistencies and mistakes. Descriptive statistics were used to deduce the basic features of data into simple summaries while inferential statistics were used to make inferences about the population (Harper et al., 1977). To improve statistical conclusion validity, data was examined for violation of the assumptions underlying multivariate normality, homoscedasticity and linearity (Pallant, 2005). Testing of the hypotheses was done using regression models, to determine if significant associations existed between the proposed variables. Linear regression analyses was conducted to test hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 while hypotheses 13, 14, and 15, were tested using multiple regression analysis. In adopting the 95% confidence interval, the statistics were significant if the p-value revealed fell below 0.05.

Multiple regression analysis allows for the examination of relationships between several independent variables and one dependent variable. In addition to the independent variables' collective prediction of the dependent variable, this statistical method determines the individual contribution of each of the individual variables to the dependent variable, both directionally and magnitudinally (Hair et al., 1998). ANOVA was used to test hypotheses 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12. Determination of the location of the differences between all mean pairs was done using Scheffe's posterior contrast test, which is readily applicable to groups of unequal sizes. Scheffe's posterior F-test is relatively insensitive to departures in normality and homogeneity of variances.

This was done to determine gender and ethnic differences within the proposed relationships. A similar approach was used by Dess & Davis (1984), and Mungai & Ogot (2012). A summary of description of each hypothesis in relation to the statistical tool utilized was provided in Table 3.3

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics generated frequencies; minimum and maximum values of the non-continuous variables, means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, item-total correlations and coefficient alphas for the measures. The results in general indicated that the data collected were normally distributed.

4.3.1 Response Rate

The study targeted 2,192 respondents from the 7 public universities in Kenya as of July 2012. The field data was obtained from 1,658 respondents. The data set was then screened for code violations and missing data, using SPSS descriptive statistics and visual inspection by the researcher, yielding an effective response rate of 69.8%. While most scholars do not seem to agree on the acceptable level of response rate to form the basis for data analysis, Nachmias & Nachmias (2004) have pointed out that survey researchers face a challenge of low response rate that rarely goes above 50%. Accordingly they suggest that a response rate of 50% and above is satisfactory and represents a good basis for data analysis. This study was a descriptive survey in design, and the response rate registered is interpreted using this simple rule of response rate that is higher than 50% of the targeted sample size for the study.

4.3.2 Response Rate per University

The overall response rate of 70.8 % was distributed per university as shown in Table 4. 2

Table 4.1 Response Rate per University

Name of the University	Frequency	Percent
Moi	274	16.8
UON	125	7.7
Masinde	182	11.2
Egerton	279	17.1
KU	208	12.8
JKUAT	320	19.6
Maseno	241	14.8
Total	1629	100.0

4.3.3 Course Being Pursued

The respondents were asked to indicate the courses they were pursuing at the university in order to capture diversity of programmes. The findings revealed that indeed the data was adequately diverse therefore allowing generalisation of the findings. This was particularly important for the study as it distinguished the study from a majority of previous studies that focussed on students taking business and management courses.

A majority of the respondents (37%) were pursuing Bachelor of Science (BSc) or Bachelor of Education, Science, (BSc Ed) . Following at a distance were ChBMB, BSc Maths, BSc Eng. (20%); Bcom and BBA (19.5%), and BA , BEd Arts (17.6%). Less than 1% of the respondents failed to indicate the courses they were pursuing while those with courses that could not be clearly categorised within defined categories were simply classified as others representing 5.7% of the respondents.

Table 4.2 Degree Course Being Pursued

Course being Pursued	Frequency	Percent
BCom,BBA	318	19.5
BA , BEd Arts	287	17.6
BSc, BEd Science	602	37.0
ChBMB, BSc Maths, BSc Eng.	325	20.0
Others	93	5.7
Total	1625	99.8
Missing	4	.2
Total	1629	100.0

4.3.4 Exposure to Entrepreneurship Education

The questionnaire required respondents to indicate whether they had any form of exposure to entrepreneurship education, be it as a full course unit or sub-unit. The responses presented in Table 4.3 shows that only 68% of the respondents had some form of exposure to entrepreneurship education. Less than 1% recorded no response to that particular item. This indicates that 68% of the sample had some knowledge of entrepreneurship education making the data suitable for testing the moderating effect of Entrepreneurship education on relationships between predictor variables and entrepreneurial intentions.

Table 4.3 Responses on Exposure to Entrepreneurship Education in the University

Have you taken the course?	Frequency	Percent
No	515	31.6
Yes	1108	68.0
Total	1623	99.6
System	6	.4
Total	1629	100.0

4.3.5 Respondents' Age Profile

Although the age categories were not provided in the survey, the responses were later categorized into four categories for ease of analysis as presented in Table 4.4. As shown, more than 87% of the respondents are between the ages of 20-24 years. The age group of 25-28 years represented 7.8% of the respondents. Below 19 years comprised of 3.7% of the respondents while 0.7% represented the age group of 29 years and above at 0.7%. The number of respondents who failed to respond to that item was minimal at 0.1%. These findings reveal that majority of the respondents are at an appropriate age in terms of making career-related choices and are possibly more concerned about their options after graduation. The features of these particular group are therefore suitable for testing career intentions using contextual and cognitive factors as is the case in this study.

Table 4.4 Respondents Age Profile

Age	Frequency	Percent
19 and below	61	3.7
20 to 24	1428	87.7
25 to 28	127	7.8
29 and above	12	.7
Total	1628	99.9
System	1	.1
Total	1629	100.0

4.3.6 Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Table 4.5 shows that majority 64.8% of the respondents were male while 35.2% were female. The proportions as presented in the findings revealed the true picture of gender composition within the universities as per the sampling frame that was used by the researcher. Thus, it provides a step towards internal validity for generalizability of the study findings.

Table 4.5 Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	1055	64.8	64.8
Female	574	35.2	100.0
Total	1629	100.0	

4.3.7 Distribution of Respondents by Ethnicity

For those students willing to state their ethnicity, 25 percent came from the GEMA community-Gikuyu, Embu and Meru, this was followed by Luos at 17.8 percent, Luhya's at 10 percent, Kamba at 9.8 percent, Kalenjin at 13.8 percent, Kisii at 8.3 percent, coast community at 4.1 percent, communities from northern Kenya at 0.7 percent collectively, Somali's at 0.3 percent while all other ethnicities collectively represented 9.6 percent of the respondents. Table 4.6 presents a summary of these distributions.

Table 4.6 Distribution of Respondents by Ethnic background

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
Luo	288	17.8
Kikuyu-Embu, Meru	407	25.2
Kamba	159	9.9
Luhya	163	10.1
Kalenjin	224	13.9
Coastal groups-Taita, Digo, Pokomo	66	4.1
Somali	5	.3
Kisii	134	8.3
Northern-Turkana, Pokot	12	.7
Other	156	9.7
Total	1614	100.0

4.3.8 Distribution of Combined Means and Standard Deviation for Ethnic Groups

Descriptive statistics relating to the combined means and standard deviations for each ethnic group were determined and results shown in Table 4.7. In addition, tests of skewness and kurtosis were performed on the data in order to check for normality of data for each group. Skewness tells us about the direction of variation of the data set (a measure of symmetry or lack of symmetry), while Kurtosis is a parameter that describes the shape of a random variable's probability distribution. No departure from normality was observed, therefore it was concluded that assumptions of normality were met.

Table 4.7: Summary of Descriptive Statistics for the Ethnic groups

Group	Mean	Sd	Skewness	Kurtosis	N
Did not indicate	3.28	0.90	-0.23	-0.39	15
Luo	3.61	0.87	-0.23	-0.23	278
Kikuyu, Embu, Meru	3.52	0.84	-0.7	-0.22	376
Luhya	3.58	0.80	0.12	-0.92	144
Kalenjin, Kipsigis, Tugen, Nandi	3.51	0.80	-0.11	-0.22	154
Kamba	3.53	0.90	-0.25	-0.82	210
Coastal tribes, Mijikenda, Digo	3.49	0.87	-0.34	0.19	62
Maasai	3.70	0.41	-1.74	3.25	5
Kisii	3.61	0.80	-0.00	-0.92	129
Samburu, Somali, Northern Cushites	3.21	0.90	0.63	-0.45	12
Turkana	3.70	0.84	-0.17	-0.37	145

4.3.9 Entrepreneurial Disposition and Ethnicity

The descriptive statistics, Table 4.8 provides details of the means and standard deviation for each ethnic group with regard to responses relating to entrepreneurial disposition. Using a five point likert scale, the questionnaire had thirteen items covering entrepreneurial disposition with a scale ranging from 1 to 5. One (1) represented "strongly disagree" and five (5) represented "strongly agree". High scores (>2.5) were associated with high levels of entrepreneurial disposition and low scores (<2.5) were

associated with low levels of entrepreneurial disposition. The midpoint of the scale was three (3) representing "neutral or no opinion". The aim was to measure the levels of entrepreneurial disposition across the ethnic groups sampled. The means and standard deviations for all the groups are presented in Table 4.8.

On average, all ethnic groups exhibited low variance in their mean scores relating to entrepreneurial disposition. The mean scores were high scores (>2.5) for all of them indicating that all ethnic groups displayed high levels of entrepreneurial disposition. The range for the mean scores was between 3.38 and 3.20, while the standard deviations ranged between 0.35 and 0.48 showing similar observations from the respondents same ethnic group..

Table 4.8: Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations for Entrepreneurial Disposition

Group	Mean	Sd	N
Did not indicate	3.38	0.48	15
Luo	3.29	0.43	278
Kikuyu, Embu, Meru	3.31	0.42	376
Luhya	3.20	0.46	144
Kalenjin, Kipsigis, Tugen, Nandi	3.25	0.38	154
Kamba	3.26	0.41	210
Coastal tribes, Mijikenda, Digo	3.31	0.42	62
Maasai	3.24	0.37	5
Kisii	3.30	0.35	129
Samburu, Somali, Northern Cushites	3.26	0.44	12
Turkana	3.30	0.44	145

4.3.10 Entrepreneurial Perceptions and Ethnicity

Table 4.9 provides details of the means, standard deviation and the total data set for each ethnic group with regard to responses relating to entrepreneurial perception. Using a five

point likert scale, the questionnaire had eight items covering entrepreneurial perception, with a scale ranging from 1 to 5. One (1) represented "strongly disagree" and five (5) represented "strongly agree". High scores (>2.5) were associated with high levels of entrepreneurial perception, and low scores (<2.5) were associated with low levels of entrepreneurial perception.

The midpoint of the scale was three (3) representing "neutral or no opinion". The aim was to measure the levels of entrepreneurial perception across the ethnic groups sampled. The means and standard deviations for all the groups are presented in Table 4.9.

On average, all ethnic group exhibited low variance in their mean scores relating to entrepreneurial perception. The mean scores were high scores (>2.5) for all of them indicating that all ethnic groups displayed high levels of entrepreneurial perception. The range for the mean scores was between 3.58 and 3.29, while the standard deviations ranged between 0.50 and 0.87 showing similar observations from the respondents between ethnic group sets.

Table 4.9 : Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations for Entrepreneurial Perceptions

Group	Mean	Sd	N
Did not indicate	3.29	0.50	15
Luo	3.52	0.71	278
Kikuyu, Embu, Meru	3.44	0.66	376
Luhya	3.41	0.63	144
Kalenjin, Kipsigis, Tugen, Nandi	3.45	0.69	154
Kamba	3.45	0.64	210
Coastal tribes, Mijikenda, Digo	3.41	0.67	62
Maasai	3.58	0.87	5
Kisii	3.54	0.69	129
Samburu, Somali, Northern Cushites	3.53	0.63	12
Turkana	3.46	0.71	145

4.3.11 Entrepreneurial Intentions and Ethnicity

Table 4.10 provide details of the means, standard deviation for each ethnic group with regard to responses relating to entrepreneurial intentions. Using a five point likert scale, the questionnaire had four items covering entrepreneurial intentions with a scale ranging from 1 to 5. One (1) represented "strongly disagree" and five (5) represented "strongly agree". High scores (>2.5) were associated with high levels of entrepreneurial intentions and low scores (<2.5) were associated with low levels of entrepreneurial intentions. The midpoint of the scale was three (3) representing "neutral or no opinion". The aim was to measure the levels of entrepreneurial intentions across the ethnic groups sampled. The means and standard deviations for all the groups are presented in Table 4.10.

On average, all ethnic groups exhibited low variance in their mean scores relating to entrepreneurial intentions. All the groups displayed high mean scores (>2.5) indicating that all ethnic groups displayed high levels of entrepreneurial intentions. The range for the mean scores was between 3.70 and 3.21, while the standard deviations ranged between 0.41 and 0.90 showing similar observations from the respondents between ethnic group sets.

Table 4.10: Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations for Entrepreneurial Intentions

Group	Mean	Sd	N
Did not indicate	3.28	0.90	15
Luo	3.61	0.87	278
Kikuyu, Embu, Meru	3.52	0.84	376
Luhya	3.58	0.80	144
Kalenjin, Kipsigis, Tugen, Nandi	3.51	0.80	154
Kamba	3.53	0.90	210
Coastal tribes, Mijikenda, Digo	3.49	0.87	62
Maasai	3.70	0.41	5
Kisii	3.61	0.80	129
Samburu, Somali, Northern Cushites	3.21	0.90	12
Turkana	3.70	0.84	145

4.3.12 Entrepreneurship Education and Ethnicity

The descriptive statistics, Table 4.11 provides details of the means, standard deviation and the total data set for each ethnic group with regard to responses relating to entrepreneurship education. Using a five point likert scale, the questionnaire had five items covering entrepreneurship education with a scale ranging from 1 to 5. One (1) represented "strongly disagree" and five (5) represented "strongly agree". High scores (>2.5) were associated with high levels of impact for entrepreneurship education and low scores (<2.5) were associated with low levels of impact for entrepreneurship education. The midpoint of the scale was three (3) representing "neutral or no opinion". The aim was to measure the levels of impact for entrepreneurship education across the ethnic groups sampled. The means and standard deviations for all the groups are presented in Table 4.11.

On average, all ethnic groups exhibited low variance in their mean scores with regard to perceived impact of entrepreneurship education. The mean scores were low scores (<2.5) for all of them indicating that all ethnic groups evaluated the impact of entrepreneurship education lowly. Notable is that the range for the mean scores was between 1.81 and 2.40, while the range between the standard deviations was between 1.11 and 1.81 showing differing observations from the respondents between ethnic group sets.

Table 4.11: Distribution of Means and Standard Deviations for Entrepreneurship Education

Group	Mean	Sd	N
Did not indicate	2.40	1.58	15
Luo	2.35	1.74	278
Kikuyu, Embu, Meru	2.27	1.63	376
Luhya	1.99	1.60	144
Kalenjin, Kipsigis, Tugen, Nandi	1.81	1.71	154
Kamba	2.10	1.73	210
Coastal tribes, Mijikenda, Digo	2.38	1.71	62
Maasai	1.95	1.81	5
Kisii	2.34	1.73	129
Samburu, Somali, Northern Cushites	2.25	1.11	12
Turkana	2.20	1.71	145

4.4 Reliability and Validity of Data

Statistical conclusion validity was observed through the examination of the data prior to analysis to ensure non violation of the assumptions underlying multivariate normality, homoscedasticity and linearity (Pallant, 2007).

T tests based on the Cronbach's α were used to establish the reliability of measurement tools used. Cronbach α is a measure of the reliability of a scale by looking at the variance within the item and the covariance between a particular item and any other item on the scale. Nunnally (1978) suggested that as a rule of thumb, scores in the ranges 0.5-0.6, 0.6-0.7, 0.7-0.8, and 0.8-0.9, should be considered to have an internal consistency that is poor, questionable, acceptable or good respectively. Values above 0.9 represent excellent internal consistency, while values less than 0.5 are considered to be unacceptable. Several researchers have observed that Cronbach's Alpha tends to under-estimate internal consistency (Novick & Lewis, 1967), therefore data yielding lower values may still be useable.

The research tested the reliability of the research instrument by computing the Cronbach's alpha score for each variable measured. The research instrument measured five variables each with differing number of items to measure the variable. The results of the reliability tests as shown in Table 4.12, indicate that the Cronbach's α for the five variables in the study ranged between 0.425 to 0.883 showing good internal consistency in general.

Table 4.12: Summary for Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for each variable.

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Intention	0.525	4
Perception	0.6230	8
Disposition	0.4256	13
Culture	0.5734	14
Education	0.8831	4

4.5 Tests of Hypotheses

In this study, the main objective was to establish the effects of socio-cultural factors (culture, gender and ethnicity) on entrepreneurial intentions of public universities' undergraduate students in Kenya. This objective was realised by answering the following research question: How does the socio-cultural context influence entrepreneurial intentions of public universities' undergraduate students in Kenya? The study had several hypotheses, which are discussed in the sections that follow:

4.5.1 The Effect of Culture on Entrepreneurial Intentions

The first objective was to determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial intentions. Culture was operationalised as a composite variable that consisted of three cultural values adopted from the pertinent literature, in particular Hofstede's (1980-2005) seminal work. The cultural values were uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity and individualism versus collectivism. Ethnicity and gender (male and female) were also included as socio-cultural factors. Hypotheses H1a, stated,

H1a: There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial intention

To tests hypothesis H1a, linear regression model was conducted. The same model was run for H2a, H3a, H4, and H5. The model was formulated as;

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \varepsilon$$

Where :

α is the constant coefficient

β_1 is the model regression coefficient that approximates the change in Y for a unit change in x_1 ,

x_1 is the the predictor variable , and

ε is the random disturbance or error

The results for the regression analysis are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Model Summary for Regression Analysis for Culture and Entrepreneurial Intention

Variable	No. Of observations	Beta	S.E	t-statistic	p-value
Constant	1535	4.264	.150	28.498	.000
culture	1535	-.219*	.046	-4.793	.000
r=-0.120 R2=.014 F=22.973 Durbin Waston=1.244					

*P<0.05

As shown in Table 4.13, the value for Durbin-Watson (D=1.244) is within the accepted range of 1 -3 and therefore indicates that the data met the assumptions for normality in using regression analysis. The Durbin-Watson test is used in all the regression results. Further, the correlation for the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and culture is weak, negative and significant (r=-0.120, p<0.05). Regression analysis was used to test if culture significantly predicted entrepreneurial intentions.

The results indicated that Culture significantly predicted Entrepreneurial Intentions ($\beta_1 = -0.219$, $t = -4.793$; $p < 0.05$), which means that a unit increase in culture yielded a -0.219 change in Entrepreneurial Intentions. The R squared value showed that Culture explained 1.4 percent of the variance ($R^2 = 0.014$, $F = 22.973$; $p < 0.05$). These results therefore support the Hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial intention.

Besides confirming the emphasis of culture in entrepreneurship literature in explaining entrepreneurship activities among different groups of people, of particular interest is the finding that culture was negatively related to entrepreneurial intentions ($r = -0.120$; $\beta = -0.219$, $p < 0.05$) showing that for every unit change in scores of culture, entrepreneurial intentions changed by proportionate magnitude in the opposite direction. This finding suggests that those who scored low on culture exhibited higher entrepreneurial intentions.

On the other hand, those who scored high on culture exhibited low entrepreneurial intentions. However, this result should be read with caution because the negative significance could be attributed to the special sample group (students) who are likely to score unrealistically high on some values due to “idealism” picture of the world common with the youth who have not yet depended on themselves.

This finding does not however contradict findings from previous studies (Lent et al., 2000, and Krueger 2000) that have alluded to the significance of culture in predicting entrepreneurial intentions. Lent et al., (2000) operationalised culture using subjective social norms and concluded that culture will have an influence on entrepreneurial intentions through these subjective social norms, which are linked to an individual's immediate personal environment. Similarly, operationalising culture as a ‘social’ component in the TPB model, Krueger (2000) concluded that culture influences intentions. The inconsistency in finding with regard to direction of influence of culture on entrepreneurial intentions may be explained by differences in culture or social systems that have rendered some of the western theories inapplicable to developing countries.

4.5.2 The Effect of Ethnicity on Entrepreneurial Intentions

Hypotheses H1b was concerned with determining if significant difference existed in the mean scores of the various ethnic groups with regard to data sets that were obtained by asking the respondents to indicate their level of agreement (1= strongly agree to 5= strongly disagree) with a series of statements relating to the variables of the study. The data was used to test for the effect of ethnicity on each variable of the study and this effect tested by H1b, H2b and H3b.

An One way ANOVA was then conducted in order to determine if the group means were significantly different with regard to the respective variables. A hypothesis was supported if the difference in the means between the groups were significant (showing great magnitude in variance) and rejected if the difference in the means between the groups were insignificant (approximately the same). An alpha level of 0.05 was used for all subsequent ANOVA analyses. Hypothesis H1b was thus stated:

H1b: There are significant differences in entrepreneurial intentions between different ethnic groups

Results from an One Way Anova Table 4.14 showed the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intentions was not significant ($F_{(10,1519)} = 1.14$; $p > 0.05$), The mean squares for entrepreneurial intention measures between groups and within groups ($MS_B = 0.82$; $MS_W = 0.72$) shows marginal variability that is not significant ($F_{(10,1519)} = 1.14$; $p > 0.05$), Post hoc analyses using the Scheffe's post hoc criterion for significance indicated that the means variance were not statistically significant. These results failed to confirm the proposition that there is variability across the ethnic groups. The hypothesis that there are significant differences in entrepreneurial intentions between different ethnic groups is therefore not supported.

Table 4.14: Anova Results for the Effect of Ethnicity on Entrepreneurial Intentions

	Df	SS	MS	F-value	P-value
Ethnicity	10	8.2	0.82	1.14	0.33
Residuals	1519	1087.5	0.72		

***P<0.05**

The objective was to determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intentions. It was assumed that the students had cultures that were predominantly acquired from their ethnic backgrounds. Therefore, the study anticipated that ethnic identities would yield differences with regard to entrepreneurially related variables (intentions perceptions, and disposition) among the respondents. The findings however indicated several similarities along the study variables across the ethnic groups. These findings were in contrast to our expectations and to findings of previous studies that have alluded to the existence of significant ethnic-based influences on entrepreneurial behavior and intentions.

This contradiction in findings, though difficult to explain may be attributed to the fact that race differences may not necessarily apply to ethnic differences. This means that the 'seeming cultural heterogeneity' among the ethnic groups may not necessarily yield substantial heterogeneous behavior in entrepreneurship. Another possible explanation is that the study was conducted among young university students who may have a culture of their own, with completely different cultural values compared to older generations. This explanation is however not consistent with Toney (2010) who found that although students were motivated by similar factors and perceived similar barriers to business creation, American, Asian and European students did not share the same entrepreneurial intentions or dispositions. It is however possible that there exist indirect and not direct effects of ethnicity on the said variables which in turn explain variation in entrepreneurship behavior.

4.5.3 The Effect of Gender on Entrepreneurial Intentions

The influence of gender on entrepreneurial intentions is often alluded to in the literature. Studies (Zhao et al., 2005) have found that males have a higher preference for entrepreneurial behavior than females. A set of three objectives were formulated which aimed to determine if there existed differences between male and female respondents with regard to entrepreneurially related variables. This objective led to the development of three gender-based hypotheses. These hypothesis were stated as a) H1c, there is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intentions b) H2c, there is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial disposition, and c) H3c, there is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial perceptions.

H1c: There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intentions

ANOVA method was conducted to test hypothesis H1c, H2c and H3c. Scheffe's posterior F- test was used in order to allow comparisons of unequal pairs as was the case of male and female samples in the study. All the study variables were included in the ANOVA and the results presented in Table 4.15

Table 4.15 ANOVA Results Showing Male and Female Differences

VARIABLE	MALE		FEMALE		SCHEFFE ANOVA		Comment
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	F-Value	P-value	
EI	3.60	.84	3.48	.86	1.5487	.2135	No significant difference
EP	3.47	.68	3.44	.66	0.0745	.7848	No significant difference
ED	3.31	.41	3.23	.43	0.7530	.3856	No significant difference
EC	3.31	.44	3.14	.48	3.715250	.0541	No significant difference
EE	2.27	1.71	2.04	1.64	5.861692*	.01559	Significant difference

*P<0.05

With reference to ANOVA results Table 4.15, no significant differences were revealed between male and female students with regard to entrepreneurial intentions (F=1.5487; p>.05).

There were no significant differences on the reported measures of Entrepreneurial intentions between; males ($M=3.60$, $SD=.84$) and females ($M=3.48$, $SD=.86$) Therefore hypotheses H1c is not supported.

Results for hypothesis H1c, indicating that there were no significant differences between male and female students in relation to their entrepreneurial intentions were unexpected particularly given that the study was conducted in an African context where gender-related discriminations are said to dominate (Roomi & Parrot, 2008).

It was expected that such discriminations coupled with poor socialization that looks down on entrepreneurship (Major et al., 2007) would be exhibited by differences in entrepreneurial related dispositions, perceptions and intentions between the gender.

These findings are inconsistent with the findings of previous studies which observed that African women are often faced with cultural barriers and social hurdles in their quest to become entrepreneurs. The findings also failed to confirm the findings of Delmar & Davidsson, (2000) and Veciana et al., (2005) that males have a higher preference for entrepreneurial behaviour than females. However a possible explanation for the inconsistencies in findings is that many of these studies were looking at populations whose men and women were not exposed to university education and therefore their cultural-gender biases may have played a larger role in their intentions on entrepreneurship. Therefore, although the study expected findings that would resonate well with the African culture where distinctively defined gender roles are seen to influence career choices, this scenario was not reflected by the study findings.

4.5.4 The Effect of Culture on Entrepreneurial Disposition

Literature reviewed indicated that culture defines personality disposition which can be described as entrepreneurial or non-entrepreneurial. Among the traits commonly associated with entrepreneurial behaviour are namely; risk-taking, need for achievement motivation and autonomy. The three traits were operationalised to make up for entrepreneurial disposition variable. The objective was establish the role of culture in influencing disposition as either entrepreneurial or anti-entrepreneurial.

Literature emphasizes culture as one of the exogenous factors responsible for influencing personality. A Hypothesis was thus developed from the pertinent literature reviewed and the conceptual framework depicted in Figure 2.1 with the aim of determining the effect of culture on entrepreneurial disposition, it stated;

H2a: There is significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial disposition

The effect was determined using a linear regression model whose results are presented in Table 4.16

Table 4.16 Model Summary for Regression Analysis for Culture and Entrepreneurial Disposition

Variable	No. Of observations	Beta	S.E	t-statistic	p-value
culture	1535	3.192	.075	42.707	.000
Entrepreneurial Disposition	1535	0.027	.023	1.172	.241
r=.030 R²=.001 F=1.375 Durbin Waston=1.390					

*P<0.05

As shown in Table 4.16, the correlation for the relationship between culture and entrepreneurial disposition is weak, positive but not significant ($r = 0.030$, $p > 0.05$). Simple linear regression was run to indicate cause and effect between the two variables. The results of the regression indicated that Culture failed to significantly predict Entrepreneurial disposition ($\beta_1 = 0.027$, $t = 1.172$; $p > 0.05$). The R squared value shows that Culture explained less than 1 percent of the variance ($R^2 = 0.001$, $F = 1.375$; $p > 0.05$). The Hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial disposition was therefore not confirmed.

Contrary to expectations and to the findings from previous studies, our empirical findings did not support the relationship between culture and entrepreneurial disposition ($\beta=0.027$; $p>0.05$). The findings revealed non or almost zero effect of culture on Entrepreneurial disposition ($R^2=0.001$; $p>0.05$). These findings were inconsistent with previous studies (Hayton et al., 2002) and existing literature on the influence of culture on entrepreneurship behaviour (Hofstede, 1980- 2005; GEM , 2007, 2010) at individual level.

The findings also suggest that culture does not exert an influence on entrepreneurial disposition. It may also be the case that culture (as observed from the finding in the preceding section of this study) may affect high individual responses to entrepreneurial intentions but may not significantly affect entrepreneurial disposition.

These findings may however only be generalized to undergraduate students as opposed to the rest of Kenyan population because measures such as risk-taking, need for achievement and autonomy (entrepreneurial disposition) may not mean much to young people who have not worked under anybody to experience limitations and hence the need to express themselves in the said traits-related manner. Also, they may not have a complete picture of risks involved in running own business since they have no experience. Table 4.4 indicated that 88% of the respondents ranged between age 20-24 years, confirming their unlikelihood of prior business experience.

4.5.5 The Effect of Ethnicity on Entrepreneurial Disposition

The aim of this analysis was to determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial disposition. A hypothesis statement was thus stated:

H2b: There are significant differences in entrepreneurial disposition between different ethnic groups

Results from an One Way Anova Table 4.17 showed the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial disposition was not significant ($F_{(10,1519)}=0.95$; $p>0,05$). The mean squares for entrepreneurial disposition measures between groups and within groups is the same ($MS=17$) showing zero variance. These results show that there is no variability across the ethnic groups with regard to Entrepreneurial Disposition parameters. The hypothesis that there are significant differences in entrepreneurial disposition between different ethnic groups is therefore not supported.

Table 4.17: Anova Results for the Effect of Ethnicity on Entrepreneurial Disposition

	Df	SS	MS	F-value	P-value
Ethnicity	10	1.65	0.17	0.95	0.49
Residuals	1519	264.30	0.17		

***P<0.05**

The objective was to determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial dispositions. Previous studies have alluded to the possibility of certain communities possessing traits that nurture entrepreneurship while arguing that the said traits are relatively subdued in other communities. However, the ANOVA results did not reveal differences between males and females with regard to all entrepreneurially related variables tested. This finding dispels the proposition that some communities are more entrepreneurial than others and suggests that other factors but not ethnicity could explain the presupposed differences if any at all.

4.5.6 The Effect of Gender on Entrepreneurial Disposition

Hypothesis H2c sought to examine the effect of gender on entrepreneurial disposition. Using evidence from the theoretical literature on gender differences in entrepreneurship behaviour and entrepreneurial traits, it was pre-supposed that male respondents would score high on entrepreneurial disposition compared to their female counterparts. The hypothesis thus stated:

H2c: There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial disposition

Results revealed no significant differences between male and female students in relation to their entrepreneurial disposition ($F=0.7530$: $p> 0.05$). There were no significant differences on the reported measures of Entrepreneurial Disposition between males ($M=3.31$, $SD=.41$) and females ($M=3.23$, $SD=.43$) as shown in Table 4.15. Therefore hypotheses H2c is not supported.

The finding failed to confirm past studies which have observed that males are more inclined towards an entrepreneurial personality than women. Indeed, one striking feature in the gender-based literature within the field of entrepreneurship is the entrepreneurial activity variations between males and females. A study by Mungai & Ogot (2012), indicated significant differences in the manifestation of entrepreneurial traits between males and females. However, the findings of this study suggest that the implied gender differences that have shown men to be more entrepreneurially predisposed do not seem to apply among the university students.

4.5.7 The Effect of Culture on Entrepreneurial Perceptions

The objective for hypothesis three was to determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial intentions. The general wisdom that culture is the seedbed for perceptions presupposed that pro-entrepreneurial cultures would exhibit positive or favourable perceptions for entrepreneurial behavior. Hypothesis H3a was thus stated:

H3a: There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions

The hypothesis was tested using linear regression and results presented in Table 4.18

Tables 4.18 Model Summary for Regression Analysis for Culture and Entrepreneurial Perceptions

Variable	No. Of observations	Beta	S.E	t- statistic	p-value
culture	1535	4.274	.118	36.184	.000
Entrepreneurial Perceptions	1535	-.251*	.036	-6.972	.000
r=.174 R²=.030 F=48.613 Durbin Waston=1.086					

*P<0.05

As shown in Table 4.18, the correlation for the relationship between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions is weak, positive and significant ($r = 0.174$, $p < 0.05$). Regression analysis was used to test if culture significantly predicted entrepreneurial perceptions. The results of the regression indicated that Culture significantly predicted

Entrepreneurial perceptions ($\beta_1 = .0251$, $t = -6.972$; $p < 0.05$), which means that a unit increase in culture yielded a 0.251 change in Entrepreneurial perceptions. The R squared value showed that culture explained 3 percent of the variance ($R^2 = 0.030$, $F = 48.613$; $p < 0.05$). This means that the larger proportion of variation in entrepreneurial perceptions (97%) is explained by other factors not captured in the model. The Hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions is therefore supported.

The study analyzed entrepreneurial perceptions of desirability and feasibility as an outcome of culture. The Objective was to determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial perceptions. The study found support for a positive relationship between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions ($\beta = -0.251$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the study finds justification for the link between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions as alluded to in the literature. These findings are consistent with the findings from previous studies that contend that entrepreneurial perceptions are dependent on the social context and in particular on what can be regarded as personally desirable and feasible. To the researcher's knowledge, no previous study has been undertaken on the effect of culture (as measured by Hofstede's values) on entrepreneurial perceptions using TPB. However the findings do not contradict previous studies on the effect of culture on entrepreneurship behaviour. For example there are studies that included social norms as a major ingredient of culture, implying that differences in social norms can directly be translated to differences in cultures.

Therefore, the study did not find support for the contention by Krueger et al., (2000) that social norms are not significant in determining entrepreneurial intentions. Support is however found of McGrath & MacMillan, (1992) and a later study by Krueger & Kickul, (2006) who concluded that social norms are more supportive of entrepreneurial activity in some countries than in others. It can thus be said that Kenya is one such country where culture positively influences entrepreneurial perceptions.

4.5.8 The Effect of Ethnicity on Entrepreneurial Perceptions

Whenever society is highly differentiated along racial or ethnic lines, race and ethnicity have been used to predict entrepreneurial activity (Kiggundu, 2002:241) because it is expected that such differences will yield different entrepreneurial perceptions as informed by the values and social norms guiding that society. As such, past studies have

consistently reported differences in entrepreneurship activities among ethnic groups. The objective for hypothesis H3b was to determine if ethnicity determines entrepreneurial perceptions. A hypothesis statement was thus stated.

H3b: There are significant differences in entrepreneurial perceptions between different ethnic groups

Results from an One Way Anova Table 4.19 showed the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial perceptions was not significant ($F_{(10,1519)}=0.741;p>0,05$). The mean squares for entrepreneurial perceptions measures between groups and within groups ($MS_B=.3356$; $MS_W=.4528$) shows marginal variability that is not significant ($F_{(10,1519)}=0.741$; $p>0,05$). Post hoc analyses using the Scheffe's post hoc criterion for significance indicated that the means variance was not statistically significant. These results show that there is no variability across the ethnic groups with regard to Entrepreneurial perceptions parameters. Therefore, the hypothesis that there are significant differences in entrepreneurial perceptions between different ethnic groups is not supported.

Table 4.19: Anova Results for the Effect of Ethnicity on Entrepreneurial Perceptions

	Df	SS	MS	F-value	P-value
Ethnicity	10	3.4	0.3356	0.741	0.686
Residuals	1519	687.8	0.4528		

***P<0.05**

This finding was inconsistent with past studies, (Kollinger & Minnit, 2006) who observe found that Black and Hispanic Americans exhibited lower rates of self-employment than other ethnic groups. In South Africa, Herrington et al., (2010) found that White and Indian/Asian were more likely to start business ventures than Colored or Black Africans. This study was however unique because it compared the influence of ethnic as opposed to race cultures on entrepreneurial intentions among the public undergraduate university students in Kenya. Although some studies have compared races, the researcher could not find a study that compared intra cultures in a highly multi-ethnic nation such as Kenya. Thus by virtue of the fact that the study is being conducted among Kenyan cultural groups for the first time, and no known to the researcher has examined the social cultural effect, strict consistence or inconsistency could not be established. However, the finding makes contribution and addition to knowledge arising from new findings.

4.5.9 The Effect of Gender on Entrepreneurial Perceptions

To establish the effect of gender on entrepreneurial perceptions, hypothesis H3c was developed. This hypothesis was informed by the literature which suggests that perceptions differ between males and females and that women often perceive themselves as being deficient of entrepreneurial capabilities. Thus, the hypothesis was stated:

H3c: There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial perceptions

With reference to Anova results Table 4.15, no significant differences were revealed between male and female students with regard to entrepreneurial perceptions ($F=0.0745$; $p > 0.05$). There were no statistically significant differences on the reported measures of Entrepreneurial Perception between; males ($M=3.47$, $SD=.68$) and females ($M=3.44$, $SD=.66$) Therefore hypotheses H3c is not supported.

These findings were in contrast to expectations and past research that have noted gender differences (Chowdhury & Endres, 2005) in terms of levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and in expectancies of self-efficacy for traditional and non-traditional occupations, thereby confirming the role of gender in shaping perceptions and in taking up certain tasks.

A possible explanation to these results is that the study population comprised of fourth year university students. Their stay at the university may have given rise to stronger influences from exposure to both university education as well as entrepreneurship education. It is also possible that this group of students have already overcome the strong cultural and gender biases likely to be at play against their counterparts in the rural areas who did not pursue education beyond secondary school level.

4.5.10 The Effect of Entrepreneurial Disposition on Entrepreneurial Intention

The objective for hypothesis four was to determine the effect of entrepreneurial disposition on entrepreneurial intentions. The hypothesis statement proposed that, a person who is entrepreneurially predisposed (i.e possess traits associated with entrepreneurship), is likely to rank highly in entrepreneurial intentions than one who is considered to possess negative entrepreneurial disposition. Thus, the hypothesis was stated:

H4: There is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intention.

This hypothesis was tested using simple linear regression. The results are presented in Table 4.20.

Tables 4.20 Regression Results for the Effect of Disposition on Entrepreneurial Intentions

Variable	No. Of observations	Beta	S.E	t- statistic	p-value
Constant	1535	.544	.150	3.634	.000
Entrepreneurial Disposition	1535	.918*	.045	20.260	.000
r=.453 R ² =.205 F=410.473 Durbin Waston=1.460					

*P<0.05

As shown in Table 4.20, the correlation between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial disposition is moderate, positive and significant ($r = 0.453$, $p < 0.05$). Regression results indicated that Entrepreneurial Disposition significantly predicted Entrepreneurial Intentions ($\beta_1 = 0.918$, $t = 20.260$; $p < 0.05$), which means that a unit increase in Entrepreneurial disposition yielded a .918 change in Entrepreneurial Intentions. The R squared indicated that Entrepreneurial Disposition explained 20.5% of the variance ($R^2 = .205$, $F = 410.473$; $p < 0.05$). Durbin-Watson value of 1.460 is within the accepted range and therefore indicates that the data met the assumptions for using regression analysis. These results therefore support the Hypothesis that there is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intention.

The Objective for H4 was to establish the nature of the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions. Results revealed a positive significant relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions ($\beta = 0.918$; $p < 0.05$). These findings are important because they confirm that personality traits (risk taking, need for achievement and autonomy) play a significant role in

influencing entrepreneurial intentions. The findings are consistent with Lee and Tsang, (2001) who observed that risk-taking, self-confidence, and striving for independence increases the intention and the success of new venture creation. Zhao et al., (2005) and Kickul, et al., (2009) also found positive relationship between general self efficacy (entrepreneurial disposition) and entrepreneurial intentions.

The finding therefore confirms past studies that have concluded that entrepreneurial intentions are stronger for those with more positive entrepreneurial disposition than otherwise. The finding also implies that a student with more positive entrepreneurial disposition will more readily make the decision to go into self employment. Conversely, a student with a less-positive entrepreneurial disposition is more likely to await paid-employment. This implication is in line with the emphasis in the literature about the traits (risk-taking, need for achievement and autonomy) that may be expected to drive entrepreneurial reactions. The study therefore advances knowledge by confirming existing findings.

4.5. 11 The Effect of Entrepreneurial Perceptions on Entrepreneurial Intention

The objective of hypothesis five was to determine the effect of entrepreneurial perceptions on entrepreneurial intentions. The hypothesis statement proposed that, a person with positive and favourable entrepreneurial perceptions will yield enhanced entrepreneurial intentions. The hypothesis was thus stated:

H5: There is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions

The results of the linear regression model are presented in Table 4.21.

Tables 4.21 Regression Results for the Effect of Perceptions on Entrepreneurial Intentions

Variable	No. of observations	Beta	S.E	t- statistic	p-value
Constant	1535	.709	.085	8.378	.000
Entrepreneurial perceptions	1535	.823*	.024	34.278	.000
r=.651 R²=.424 F=1174.974 Durbin Waston=1.753					

*P<0.05

As shown in Table 4.21, the correlation between entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial perceptions is strong, positive and significant ($r = 0.651$, $p < 0.05$). Regression results were used to determine cause and effect between the two variables by considering the Beta and R squared coefficients. Beta coefficient indicates that Entrepreneurial perceptions significantly predicted Entrepreneurial Intentions ($\beta_1 = 0.823$, $t = 32.278$; $p < 0.05$), which means that a unit increase in Entrepreneurial perceptions yielded a .823 change in Entrepreneurial Intentions. The R squared indicated that Entrepreneurial perceptions explained 42.4 percent of the variance ($R^2 = 0.424$, $F = 1174.974$; $p < 0.05$). These results therefore support the hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intention.

In examining the effect of perceptions in determining intentions to become an entrepreneur, entrepreneurial perceptions construct, was analyzed as a composite variable comprising the two factors; a) desirability perceptions, and b) feasibility perceptions. Consistent with the researcher's expectation, the findings confirm a general observation in the literature that those individuals with more positive perceptions about entrepreneurship with regard to its desirability and feasibility are more likely to choose an entrepreneurial career path.

4.5.12 Entrepreneurship Education, Entrepreneurial perceptions, Entrepreneurial Disposition and Entrepreneurial Intentions

A set of two objectives were formulated to determine the moderating role of entrepreneurship education on, a) the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions and b) the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions.

Data to test the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education on a) the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions, and b) the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions of the respondents' intentions to become entrepreneurs were obtained by asking the respondents to indicate their level of agreement (1= strongly agree to 5= strongly disagree) with four statements relating to their intentions and preparedness to start a business within five years after graduation. The data was then used to test hypothesis H6a and hypothesis H6b.

Stepwise regression was run to determine the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial dispositions and entrepreneurial intentions using the following procedure. First, (step 1) a regression model was conducted for the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions without the moderating variable and secondly (step 2) the procedure was repeated by including the moderating variable, in this case entrepreneurship education, in the regression model. The results were then compared to establish if there is any significant difference between the results of step one and step two. The hypothesis testing the influence of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions was stated as:

H6a: The strength of the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions depends on exposure to entrepreneurship education.

The results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis undertaken are presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22 Stepwise Regression Results for the Moderating Effect of Entrepreneurship Education on the Relationship Between Entrepreneurial Disposition and Entrepreneurial Intentions.

Predictor Variables	Dependent Variable (Entrepreneurial Intentions)				
	Intercept	β	R^2	t	F
Entrepreneurial Disposition	.354	.946*	.229	17.919	410.473
	Intercept	β	R^2	t	F
Entrepreneurial Disposition and Entrepreneurship Education (EP*EE)	.386	.941*	.371	26.937*	654.408*
	Change in R squared =0.142				
	F change =243.935				

*P<0.05

The results presented in Table 4.22 show that before introducing entrepreneurship education, about 23% ($R^2 = .229$) of entrepreneurial intentions were explained by entrepreneurial disposition. The value of F was 410.473 while the value of Beta was 0.946 meaning that for every unit change in entrepreneurial disposition, there was a resultant 0.946 change in entrepreneurial intentions. After introducing entrepreneurship education, the value for R^2 increased by 0.142, F increased by 243.935 while Beta decreased by 0.005 units which were all significant at $p < 0.05$ implying that the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions indeed revealed a significant change after introducing entrepreneurship education in the regression model. Therefore, the hypothesis (H6a) that the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions is moderated by exposure to entrepreneurship education is confirmed.

The hypothesis testing the influence of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions was next stated as:

Hypothesis H6b: The strength of the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions depends on entrepreneurship education

With reference to Hypothesis H6a, similar procedure was followed in order to determine the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions. The statistical output for stepwise regression are presented in Table 4.23

Table 4.23 Stepwise regression results for the moderating effect of Entrepreneurship Education on the relationship between Entrepreneurial Perceptions and Entrepreneurial Intentions

Predictor Variables	Dependent Variable (Entrepreneurial Intentions)				
	Intercept	β	R^2	t	F
Entrepreneurial Perceptions	.834	0.834*	.419	28.034*	785.933
	Intercept	β	R^2	t	F
Entrepreneurial Perceptions and Entrepreneurship Education (EP*EE)	.496	.867*	.482	30.401	918.060
	Change in R squared =0.063				
	F change =132.127				

*P<0.05

The results presented in Table 4.23 show that before introducing entrepreneurship education, about 42% ($R^2= 0.419$) of entrepreneurial intentions were explained by entrepreneurial perceptions. The value of F was 785.933 while the value of Beta was 0.834 meaning that for every unit change in entrepreneurial perceptions, there was a resultant 0.834 change in entrepreneurial intentions. After introducing entrepreneurship education, the value for R^2 increased by a magnitude of 0.063. F increased by 132.127 while Beta increased by 0.063 which were all significant at $p<0.05$. This implies that all statistics determining the effect of interaction between the variables showed statistical significance of the interaction after introducing entrepreneurship education in the regression model, the overall effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions improved as revealed by the increase in the predictive value of R^2 by 0.063. Based on these findings, the hypothesis (H6b) that the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions is moderated by exposure to entrepreneurship education is confirmed.

In congruence with the researcher's expectations, the findings revealed that exposure to entrepreneurship education had a positive significant moderating effect on, the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions, and on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions. These findings confirm previous findings (e.g. Peterman & Kennedy, 2003) that showed positive significant effect of entrepreneurship education interventions on the relationship between perceived desirability and intentions to become an entrepreneur. These results are similar to results by Zhao et al., (2005) showing support for a positive significant effect of entrepreneurship education interventions on the relationship between perceived feasibility and intentions to become an entrepreneur.

However these findings fail to confirm previous studies that have failed to find support for the direct or indirect effect of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intentions. Hence, although these results join the set of contradicting versions of results on the importance of entrepreneurship education in entrepreneurial intentions, this study provides empirical support to conclude that exposure to entrepreneurship education have an influence on entrepreneurial intentions among undergraduate students in Kenya. This implies that entrepreneurship education as currently being offered within our institutions of higher learning is significantly effective in encouraging entrepreneurship behaviour amongst the university students. Therefore, in order to increase entrepreneurial activities, there is need to expose as many students to entrepreneurship education.

4.6 Combined Effect of Predictor Variables on Entrepreneurial Intentions

The joint effect of predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions was tested in this section. In the previous sections, the influence of individual predictor variables on the relationships expressed in the conceptual framework (Chapter 2, Figure.1) were discussed. The joint effect was determined by testing the following hypothesis

H7: There is a significant combined effect of predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions

The predictor variables were regressed on entrepreneurial intentions using backward stepwise multiple regression. The regression model was expressed as follows:

$$EI = \alpha + \beta_1 ED*EC + \beta_2 EP*EC + \beta_3 ED*EP + \beta_4 EC + \beta_5 ED + \beta_6 EP + e$$

Where α is the constant coefficient

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_6$ are the model regression coefficients that approximate the change in Y (Entrepreneurial Intentions) for a unit change in X (predictor variable).

ED*EC is Entrepreneurial disposition and culture combined

EP*EC is Entrepreneurial perceptions and culture combined

ED*EP is Entrepreneurial disposition and Entrepreneurial perceptions combined

EC is culture,

ED is Entrepreneurial Disposition

EP is Entrepreneurial Perceptions and

e is the random disturbance or error.

The objective in stating this hypothesis was to determine the joint effect of the predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions. The hypothesis was developed from the literature reviewed and the conceptual framework. To test this hypothesis, backward stepwise regression analysis was performed. This method allows for entry of all the variables and then the effect of each variable or set of variables is analyzed. Variables that do not significantly contribute to entrepreneurial intentions were eliminated through the stepwise process remaining with only those that significantly predicted entrepreneurial intentions. The regression results showing the effect of predictor variables individually on entrepreneurial intentions and those showing their joint effect on entrepreneurial intentions is presented in Table 4.24

Table 4.24. Summary of Backward Stepwise Regression Results showing the Joint Effect of Predictor Variables on Entrepreneurial Intentions

Model	Betas						R ²	F-value
	EP	ED	EC	ED*EP	EP*EC	ED*EC		
I	1.189 (0.463)	0.587 (0.450)	0.324 (0.106)	-0.048 (0.173)	-0.100* (0.039)	-0.008 (0.463)	0.4595	215.8690
II	1.196* (0.000)	0.561* (0.001)	0.306* (0.042)	-0.048 (0.173)	-0.102* (0.020)		0.4595	259.2100
III	1.051* (0.000)	0.386* (0.000)	0.331* (0.030)		0.109* (0.0139)		0.4592	323.8170

*P<0.05: p-values shown in brackets

Model 1 results showing regression coefficients in Table 4.24 indicate that the joint effect of the entrepreneurial disposition and culture, ED*EC ($\beta = -0.008$); entrepreneurial perceptions and culture, EP*EC ($\beta = -0.100$); and entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial perceptions, ED*EP ($\beta = -0.048$) on entrepreneurial intentions is much less than the effects of the individual predictors, culture EC ($\beta = 0.324$); entrepreneurial disposition, ED ($\beta = 0.587$); and entrepreneurial perceptions EP ($\beta = 1.189$), on entrepreneurial intentions respectively. This implies that a unit change among any of the individual variables will yield a corresponding larger magnitude of change in entrepreneurial intentions compared to any of the joint effects analyzed.

The model shows that the variables that contributed significantly to entrepreneurial intentions were; entrepreneurial perceptions and culture, EP*EC ($\beta = 0.100$, $p < 0.05$); entrepreneurial perceptions EP ($\beta = 1.189$, $p < 0.05$), and entrepreneurial disposition, ED ($\beta = 0.587$, $p < 0.05$). These variables were retained while those variables that did not significantly predict entrepreneurial intentions were eliminated.

Elimination was done by dropping the least significant predictors (in this case, ED*EC) first and then repeating the stepwise regression once again. The contribution of each predictor variable or combination of predictor variables is indicated by the respective beta and F values of the models.

All the variables together explained 45.9 percent of the variance in entrepreneurial intentions. The proportion of the variance did not change much among the three models. The F value was significant in all the models implying that the models were fit to predict

the effect of the predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions. The reduced model (model 3) shows that the only joint effect that significantly predict entrepreneurial intentions is that of entrepreneurial perceptions and culture, EP*EC ($\beta= 0.109$, $p<0.05$). No previous study known to the researcher had looked at this relationship. The results also show that the separate effects of the individual variables are significantly greater than any of the joint effects. Therefore the hypothesis that there is a significant combined effect of the predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions is only partially supported. This finding is therefore an important contribution to the body of knowledge.

Table 4.25 presents the results of all the fifteen hypotheses tested in the study as well as the interpretations of the relationships among the variables that were examined. As evidenced in the Table 4.25, seven hypotheses were confirmed while the remaining eight hypotheses were rejected.

Table 4.25 Summary of Hypotheses and Major Results

OBJECTIVES	HYPOTHESES	RESULTS	INTERPRETATIONS
To determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial intention	H1a: There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial intention.	$r=-0.120$, $\beta_1=-.219$, $R^2=0.014$; $p<0.05$.	Confirmed
To determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intention	H1b: There is significant relationship between ethnicity and entrepreneurial intention.	ANOVA ; $F_{(10,1519)} = 1.14$; $p>0.05$	Not Confirmed
To determine the effect of gender on entrepreneurial intentions	H1c: There is a significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intentions	ANOVA ; $F=1.5487$; $p> .05$	Not Confirmed

To determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial disposition	H2a: There is significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial disposition.	$r=0.030$, $\beta_1=0.027$, $R^2 = 0.001$; $p>0.05$	Not Confirmed
To determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial disposition.	H2b: There is significant relationshi between ethnicity and entrepreneurial disposition.	ANOVA ; $F_{(10,1519)} = 0.95$; $p>0.05$	Not Confirmed
To determine the effect of gender on entrepreneurial disposition.	H2c: There is significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurial disposition.	ANOVA ; $F=0.7530$; $p> 0.05$	Not Confirmed
To determine the effect of culture on entrepreneurial disposition	H3a: There is a significant relationship between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions	$r = 0.174$, $\beta_1 = .251$, $R^2 = 0.030$; $p<0.05$	Confirmed
To determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intention perceptions	H3b: There is significant relationship between ethnicity and entrepreneurial perceptions	ANOVA ; $F_{(10,1519)} = .741$; $p>0.05$	Not Confirmed
To determine the effect of gender on entrepreneurial	H3c: There is a significant relationship between	ANOVA ; $F=0.0745$; $p> 0.05$	Not Confirmed

perception.	gender and entrepreneurial perceptions		
To determine the effect of entrepreneurial disposition on entrepreneurial intention.	H4: here is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intention.	$r = 0.453$, $\beta_1 = 0.918$, $R = .205$; $p < 0.05$	Confirmed
To determine the effect of entrepreneurial perceptions entrepreneurial on intentions.	H5: There is a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions.	$r = 0.651$, $\beta_1 = 0.823$, $R^2 = 0.424$; $p < 0.05$	Confirmed
To determine the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education	H6a: Entrepreneurship education has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions	Change in R squared = 0.142* F change = 243.935* * $P < 0.05$	Confirmed
To determine the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education	H6b: Entrepreneurship education as a positive moderating effect on the relationship between	Change in R squared = 0.063* F change = 132.127* * $P < 0.05$	Confirmed

	entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions.		
To determine the joint effect of the the study variables on entrepreneurial intentions	H7: There is a significant combined effect by the study variables on entrepreneurial intentions	EP*EC (0.0139)* *P<0.05	Partially Supported.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This study focused on the relationships between socio-cultural factors and entrepreneurial intentions of undergraduate students in public universities in Kenya. The conceptual framework for the study was derived from existing literature and empirical evidence from past studies. The study departed from previous studies by introducing culture, gender and ethnicity as independent variables in the model. The influence of these three variables on entrepreneurial behavior has often been alluded to in the literature. While past studies have looked at the effect of entrepreneurial perceptions, personal characteristics and entrepreneurship education as antecedents to entrepreneurial intentions, a common suggestion has been the need to investigate factors that influence these antecedents. Taking cue from these suggestions, three socio-cultural variables, culture, gender and ethnicity were investigated as influencers to antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions.

Some of the findings of this research are in line with the theoretical underpinnings presented in the literature review and do confirm the findings of previous studies also captured in the literature review. However, there are findings that are new by virtue of the fact that the study is being conducted among Kenyan cultural groups for the first time, and no known study has examined the socio-cultural effect, and other study variables on entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, this study has made contributions or additions to knowledge arising from new findings and advanced existing knowledge by confirming findings of previous studies.

This research had the following specific objectives: to investigate the effect of culture on entrepreneurial intention, entrepreneurial disposition, and entrepreneurial perceptions; to determine the effect of entrepreneurial disposition, and entrepreneurial perceptions on entrepreneurial intentions; to determine the effect of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intentions, entrepreneurial disposition, entrepreneurial perceptions, and inclination to take an entrepreneurship education course; to determine existence of differences between gender with regard to entrepreneurially related variables of perceptions, disposition and intentions; to determine the moderating effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between, a) entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions, and b) entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions and finally; to determine the joint effect of predictor variables on entrepreneurial intentions. Fifteen hypotheses were developed from these set of objectives and from the conceptual framework in Figure 2.1. The hypotheses were accepted or rejected based on the levels of significance of the various statistical tests.

In general, a direct influence of culture on entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions was revealed by the findings of the study. However the effect of culture on entrepreneurial disposition is not empirically supported. Similarly direct and indirect influences of both entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial disposition on entrepreneurial intentions are revealed. No significant gender differences are revealed with regard to entrepreneurial intention, dispositions, and perceptions. It was also presumed that different cultural contexts defined by ethnicity would form different cues as to whether self-employment is preferred or not preferred. However, overall finding on the influence of ethnicity on entrepreneurial intentions did not yield significant differences between the ethnic groups. In addition, a positive and significant interaction effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between a) entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions, and b) entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions is confirmed, revealing the importance of the role of entrepreneurship education in enhancing entrepreneurial intentions. Finally, the combined effect of the predictor variables on the dependent variable in the study is only significant between entrepreneurial perceptions and culture.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

Increasing entrepreneurship activity and devising methods of enhancing entrepreneurship motivation has been a recurring theme in numerous studies. For this increase in activity and motivation to be realised, it is essential to investigate systematically some of the exogenous factors such as culture, gender, personality, and perceptions that have previously been linked to entrepreneurship, in order to ascertain their effect on entrepreneurial related career choices.

To this end, this research undertook a study of fourth year undergraduate students in Kenya's public universities with the aim of examining the effect of socio-cultural factors within the student population on their intentions to become entrepreneurs. This led to the development of an intention model that was inclusive of the said factors. Thus, presented in this chapter are the conclusions and recommendations that are informed by the findings of the research.

The Chapter begins with the major conclusions that can be derived from these findings against other research findings. Finally, a presentation is made of the main recommendations from the study, including the implications that the study has on theory, policy and practices and the future directions.

5.2 Conclusion

This study examined public university undergraduate students in Kenya who were in their fourth year of study from January to March 2013. Specifically, the influence of cultural values on entrepreneurial intentions among the public undergraduate university students was investigated using the constructs developed by Hofstede & Hofstede (2005). The students' entrepreneurial intentions were measured through three variables namely: individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. With a sample size of 1,659 students, the study findings were congruent with the emphasis in the literature on the influence of culture on entrepreneurial intentions. However, it is also worth noting that the population studied with regard to culture represents a group of youth with a 'culture of their own' compared to older generations. Therefore generalizing findings

with regard to cultural values and their influences among the wider population should be approached with caution. More research should be conducted using more varied groups with regard to cultural values and entrepreneurial intentions to validate these results.

Other variables in the study included gender; entrepreneurial disposition; entrepreneurial perceptions, ethnicity and exposure to entrepreneurship education. In general, the study established that entrepreneurship is a desirable career goal among Kenya public university students, men and women alike. Further, the study confirms that entrepreneurship education has the potential to enhance entrepreneurial intentions of students. Therefore, well designed courses, training and targeted public policies can promote the entrepreneurial spirit among educated Kenyan youth and thus facilitate the diversification of the country's economic activities for overall national growth and development. Specific conclusions are presented in the sections that follow.

As opposed to the mainstream literature, the study could not detect any influence of gender on entrepreneurial intentions. Therefore, for our sample population, there was no confirmation of the general wisdom that men exhibit a stronger preference for self-employment than women, nor were any differences exhibited between males and females with regard to entrepreneurial perceptions. Interestingly, there was no variability in the students' dispositional rating. Meaning, that both males and females were equal to tasks requiring expression of the stated traits of risk-taking, need for achievement and autonomy.

Therefore, conclusions were drawn that, there is no relationship between; a) gender and entrepreneurial disposition, and b) gender and entrepreneurial perceptions and c) gender and entrepreneurial intentions. However, as we draw these conclusions, it is important to keep in mind that on the overall, undergraduate female students have already overcome barriers that are typical of cultural constraints often attributed to gender differences as they climbed the academic ladder. The female students have also received considerable exposure at the university which is likely to enhance their self-confidence and self-evaluation than their female counterparts who dropped out of education below university level.

Given that the two factors (self-confidence and self-evaluation) were called to force in response to questions relating to entrepreneurial dispositions and perceptions of the respondents, it is possible that the self-report survey enhanced the minimization of gender effect on university students as a sample population.

In Chapter Two, individual characteristics and factors that motivate individuals to become entrepreneurs were considered. While the traits approach to entrepreneurship may help to paint a fuller picture about the kinds of people that become entrepreneurs, traits theory also presents some limitations to understanding entrepreneurs. But useful for this study is the confirmation of the effect of traits on the cognitive process, hence on entrepreneurial behaviour. Therefore, while the cognitive theory emphasizes the traits dimension in explaining why entrepreneurs seize opportunities, The finding further affirms that entrepreneurs differ from the rest of society, suggesting that entrepreneurship is not something that everyone is equally capable of.

Of particular interest was the confirmation that entrepreneurial traits (risk-taking, need for achievement and autonomy) are not determined by culture. This revelation provided support for the contention that under similar situational circumstances certain people will set up business while others will not. It however disputed the general claim that some groups of people are more culturally endowed to become entrepreneurs than others. This points out to possible support for other factors besides culture in influencing an entrepreneurial personality.

Bandura (1980) argues that the prediction of self-efficacious behavior such as entrepreneurship is more accurate when the social system's response to the specific behavior is evaluated. Thus, individuals' possessing high levels of self-efficacy expectations about a certain behavior are more likely to perform the behavior in societies where it is recognized, legitimate and appreciated. The study extended this observation by testing whether there is any association between culture and entrepreneurial perceptions.

Based on the study findings, there is a significant relationship between culture and perceptions. This means that perceptions are informed by culture, therefore an increase or enhancement of entrepreneurial intentions would be easily achieved via a change in values, norms and beliefs which have a subsequent effect on perceptions about entrepreneurship. From our findings, it is inferred that culture will legitimize perceptions about entrepreneurship and therefore respect for entrepreneurial career choices. The finding is in line with (Hofstede, 2010) who observed that cultural legitimacy makes entrepreneurship and the identity of an entrepreneur become an increasingly respected status symbol and object of hero worship.

Based on the findings, it can be inferred that culture can entrepreneurially discriminate a particular group of people from others, by influencing perceptions of what is considered appropriate, or not appropriate, for individuals within that group. The critical question therefore remains: how can a society's values, norms and beliefs be changed in order to induce entrepreneurial intentions?

Although there is no consensus on the content and structure of entrepreneurship education, the findings of the current study showed that exposure to entrepreneurship education does enhance or improve entrepreneurial intention levels by significant margins. The positive change in coefficient of determination was confirmed as having an interaction effect upon introduction of entrepreneurship education to the two hypotheses testing; a) effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial intentions and b) effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between entrepreneurial disposition and entrepreneurial intentions.

The finding of this study confirms the link and affirms the key role of entrepreneurship education in entrepreneurial intention. Conclusion can therefore be drawn that the current learning and delivery process of entrepreneurship education course as adopted in our public universities' curriculum indeed fosters entrepreneurship behavior. Previous studies found a positive link between education and entrepreneurship (Galloway & Brown, 2002; Henderson & Robertson, 2000). That said, provision of entrepreneurship education should probably therefore be seen as a key success in encouraging development of entrepreneurship as stipulated in the objectives of higher institutions of learning as well as

a successful step towards achieving enhanced entrepreneurial activities which is a clear prerequisite for economic growth. The effect of entrepreneurship education therefore probably explains the reason why we have more fresh university graduates venturing into self-employment today as opposed to the past.

Empirical support that culture was statistically significant in predicting entrepreneurial intentions is important because the finding confirmed previous studies and contributed to addition of knowledge particularly because the study was carried out in a developing country that is characterised by multi-ethnic cultures as opposed to past studies that have focussed attention on Western and Asian countries. However the indication that the direction of this relationship was negative also meant the values that probably drive entrepreneurship in Africa differ from those that drive entrepreneurship in developed and Asian countries.

Africa being a culture-rich continent, it was presumed that culture would be more influential on entrepreneurship intentions. However, contrast findings demonstrated that it was less important carrying minimal but significant predictive value on entrepreneurial intentions. Though not in magnitude of significance, the findings agree with (Adler et al 1986; Bird 1988; Davidson 1995; Busenitz 1996) on the influence of culture in predicting entrepreneurial intentions. Given the emphases on the influence of culture in entrepreneurship within the literature, it is possible that complexity of culture was not entirely captured in the research questions as only three out of five of Hofstede's cultural value grid were used for the study. The limitations notwithstanding, this study findings conclude that cultural influence plays an important role in shaping entrepreneurial intentions.

A curious finding in this research was the lack of empirical evidence to link the influence of ethnicity to any of the study variables. It was anticipated that ethnic identities would yield differences in levels of entrepreneurial intentions.

The findings however indicated several similarities along the study variables across the ethnic groups. On the basis of these findings, it is tempting to propose that ethnicity does not matter and even suppose that it be ignored.

However it should be noted from the above conclusion that a lack of evidence to prove an association does not necessarily mean that such an association does not exist. Moreover, it is possible that there may be associations with ethnicity that were not operationalised in the construct and therefore not assessed in this research. Indeed it may well be that ethnic construct is just an enabler or enhancer which by itself cannot guarantee entrepreneurial intentions. It is therefore not prudent without further validation of this research involving different populations to suggest that ethnicity is not an important measure.

5.3 Contribution to Literature

Examining entrepreneurial motivation across Kenya's diverse range of cultural groups is pivotal to understanding entrepreneurial intentions with respect to the ethnic groups, since little evidence exists that intentions and self-efficacy are salient to entrepreneurs from non-Western cultures (Vecchio, 2003). The researcher could not find any cultural study of entrepreneurial intentions and its antecedents across different ethnic groups in Kenya. Thus, the study makes an important contribution to literature given lack of similar studies with this focus.

The research findings indicate that the antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions are perceptions and psychological traits which are mainly determined by an individual's socio-cultural orientation in terms of cultural values and gender roles which then define what is desirable (or less desirable) within a group. To explain how entrepreneurial intentions are shaped among individuals, the literature emphasizes the significance of cultural values (Adler et al 1986; Bird 1988; Davidson 1995; Busenitz 1996); nonetheless, studying this effect empirically has gained little attention in the literature.

In sum, the literature shows that previous studies have studied the relationship between culture and entrepreneurship, perceptions (feasibility and desirability) and intentions, psychological traits and entrepreneurship and the impact of entrepreneurship education on intentions. However, none of the previous studies explored the relationship between

social- cultural factors (as used in the study), perceptions, dispositions and entrepreneurship education. Thus, besides designing a new intentions model that incorporates culture, gender and traits as new entrants, this study extends previous research therefore making an original contribution to the literature.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

This research has achieved its aim of providing a general view of Kenya's social-cultural context by exposing some of the significant associations between the context variables and entrepreneurial intentions which may be indicative of a causal (non-causal) effect of the said context. In undertaking this study, a number of choices were made which ultimately influenced the methodology adopted, data collected, analysis undertaken and consequently, the findings. Whilst these choices have facilitated the achievement of the objectives of this research, they have also imposed some constraints on the research. For instance it is possible that a mix of methods (quantitative and qualitative) would yield different results.

Beyond some of the limitations highlighted in the preceding sections of this thesis, there are some other potential limitations that should be borne in mind when interpreting the findings of this research. It has been noted in Babbie (1992) that theoretical concepts almost never have perfect indicators. Any given concept has several possible indicators and whilst theory and empirical evidence facilitate the identification of the most useful indicators, they do not give any guarantees that these indicators are indeed the best. In this research, a number of indicators have been utilised as proxies for the measurement of culture and other study variables , and as noted above they may not be perfect indicators.

Moreover, every empirical indicator has some defects (Babbie, 1992). Although this is a potential limitation it is also important to emphasise that significant theoretical and empirical evidence were adduced to support the choice of these indicators. Again it was impossible to ascertain whether or not all the respondents answered the questions with frankness. Thus as recognised in Hammond (2006), if the respondents failed to answer the questions honestly as envisaged, then the results may not be a true reflection of the population. However, the application of multiple research methods helped to obviate the potential biases.

Given that the focus of the empirical aspects of this research was entirely on public university students in Kenya, and given the micro-cultural influences implied in the thesis, it is entirely plausible that there may be significant differences in the findings if this study is replicated in another jurisdiction such as inclusion of universities across a number of African countries. Indeed this aspect is recommended as a potential area for further research.

The limitations noted here do not however undermine the validity of the research undertaken and its main findings. It should be remembered that scientific research is a never-ending quest aimed at the understanding of some phenomenon which requires continuous measurement and examination of associations (Babbie, 1992), and this research is just one step on this quest.

5.5. Implications of the Study

The findings of this study have several implications. These findings have theoretical, practical and policy implications that adds to the body of knowledge and provides better explanations for entrepreneurial intentions that are likely to lead to increased entrepreneurial activities and therefore economic growth. The specific implications are discussed in the sections that follow.

5.5.1 Theoretical Implications

Findings of the study are consistent with some of the theories that provided the foundation for this study. These were the psychological theories and sociological theories. This consistency with the theories has expanded the use for these theories in entrepreneurship theory and practice. Many researchers have suggested investigating the cultural and demographic factors as influencers of antecedents to entrepreneurial intentions. The value of this study lies in the fact that this study is the first study known to the researcher to investigate the effect of socio-cultural factors on Kenya's public universities' students. The study not only looked at the influence of all these variables (joint effect) together, but also investigated the effect of each of them using the TPB. This was a key contribution to the body of knowledge.

Secondly, with regard to socio-cultural factors, this study has a number of theoretical implications. Starting with culture, the study contributes to existing knowledge by showing that cultural values significantly explain the variance in entrepreneurial perceptions among the undergraduate students. The same could not be said of culture in explaining variance in students' entrepreneurial disposition. Nevertheless, both entrepreneurial perceptions and entrepreneurial disposition had positive direct effects on entrepreneurial intentions. It would however be interesting to see if culture has a significant interaction effect on the relationship between each of the two variables and entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, besides advancing the existing body of research, the study recommends that future research should look at this interaction effect in order to have a clearer understanding of the influence of culture on entrepreneurial intentions.

The results also contribute towards existing psycho-social literature by establishing the link between social, cultural and cognitive characteristics to explain entrepreneurial intentions. Cultural values, gender and ethnicity were seen to affect entrepreneurial perceptions of feasibility and desirability. Thus, the study provides empirical support to the psych-social approach to entrepreneurship adopted by prior studies (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Kim & Hunter 1993; Krueger & Carsrud 1993; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994) and extends the psych-social approach explanations by supporting the emerging social cognitive theory that links entrepreneurial process to the theory of planned behavior.

Further, in tandem with prior studies (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993; Krueger et al., 2000), this study provides support for use of Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour (1991), Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event (1982) and Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (1986) in testing the antecedents to entrepreneurial intentions and therefore advances the existing body of knowledge.

It is however worth noting that the study used a university students sample whose intentions may be affected by foresight bias besides other factors. The scales used to measure the cultural dimensions of uncertainty avoidance, masculinity vs. femininity and individualism vs. collectivism also had a low Cronbach's alpha.

Therefore there is need to research the influence of these cultural dimensions using a different scale or retest the same on a more varied group of students, perhaps across countries as opposed to within the country. There is need to also test the process of intentions on other samples beyond student population in extension of research in this particular area of focus

5.5.2 Practical Implications

The model of the study yields useful practical applications for a behaviour that is intentional such as entrepreneurship. The study confirmed that entrepreneurial perceptions (desirability and feasibility) are affected by psychological and exogeneous factors such as cultural values and beliefs, subjective norms and gender roles in the society as implied in the literature. Consultants, advisors, and the entrepreneurs will all benefit from a better understanding of how intentions are formed and how founders' beliefs, perceptions, and motives coalesce into the intent to start a business.

The entrepreneurs should gain considerable value from a better understanding of their own motives. The lens provided by intentions affords them the opportunity to understand why they made certain choices in their vision of the new venture. It is useful to recognize how individuals differ in character traits and across gender and ethnicities in our perceptions of desirability and feasibility. Though the findings do not imply that certain values are more superior to others in the context of ethnic practices which are used as a proxy for cultural distinctiveness in the study, it is possible to explore ways of enhancing those perceptions that are considered pro- entrepreneurial while at the same time mitigating the negative impact of those that are considered anti- entrepreneurial.

The effect on intentions appear to change significantly when moderated by the exposure to entrepreneurship education. Instructors at institutions of higher learning can invoke this model to better understand our students' motivations and intentions, and thus provide better training. As noted earlier, gender and ethnic differences in career choice derive from differences in culturally impacted perceptions of self-efficacy, which in turn inform entrepreneurial perceptions and dispositions.

5.5.3 Policy Implications

The purpose of this study was to attempt to understand the impact of presumed factors on student's intentions to become entrepreneurs. To this effect, a model that linked culture; gender; entrepreneurial perceptions; dispositions and entrepreneurship education to entrepreneurial intentions was developed. The study findings are particularly considered important to vocational educators and public policy makers given the potential of the study variables to explain future entrepreneurial behaviour through behavioural intentions models (Ajzen, 1991; Krueger et al., 2000). Further, the understanding that government initiatives will affect business formations will benefit policy makers particularly if such policies are perceived in a way that influences attitudes or intentions.

The current trends of downsizing and outsourcing that dominate much of Kenya's corporate landscape make the results presented here more than a sterile academic exercise. Recognition is growing among policy-makers that economic and community development hinges on growing your own businesses. Hence, if we seek to encourage economic and community development by promoting new enterprises, then we need a much better understanding of the process. Empirical support for the TPB model advances that promoting entrepreneurial intentions requires promoting perceptions of both feasibility and desirability.

In addition, even if we are to increase the quantity and quality of potential entrepreneurs, we must also increase the credibility of entrepreneurship among critical stakeholders in the community. Government officials, politicians, suppliers, investors, bankers, friends and neighbours, and the larger community must also see entrepreneurial activity as desirable and feasible (Shapiro 1982). We must also make certain that we include all strata of society (Hood & Young 1993).

Ethnic and gender differences in career choice may derive from self-efficacy differences, but literature provides ways of how to remediate such differences. All this should be done with an eye toward encouraging business-launch related activities.

5.6 Recommendations

From the findings of the study, it is recommended that policy makers and vocational educators pay attention to social and cultural influences in developing entrepreneurship models in order to come up with initiatives that will affect business formations. Further, in order to fast-track entrepreneurship development through learning, improved designs of teaching entrepreneurship can be developed to increase self-efficacy perceptions and reduce deficits in perceived feasibility and desirability.

That entrepreneurship education should of necessity be made compulsory at all tertiary institutions of learning in order to expose more youth population to entrepreneurship with the aim of creating more positive perceptions about entrepreneurship and resultant benefits of increased enterprise creations upon graduation.

That aggressive campaign through both media and civil society groups are important in militating against the negative perceptions of self – employment. Specifically, forums to show case exemplary performance of self – employment individuals and their success stories can go along way in enhancing entrepreneurial perceptions.

5.7 Suggestions for Further Research

This study only addressed few of the commonly mentioned antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions in the literature such as cultural values and gender. The impact of these variables on entrepreneurial intentions may differ based on context. Further, many more factors define the social- cultural context beyond what is covered in the study. Thus, future research should consider including multiple items suggested in the literature.

Further, there is need to explore how intention translates into behaviour. Although this study focused on the antecedents of intentions to start a business, future research must also explore relationships between intentions and behaviour. Shapero (1982) proposed that some precipitating event triggers the process and offers a list of precipitating events worth testing. This includes a follow up of these subjects or other longitudinal design. Thus a longitudinal study design is recommended for purposes of validating claims that indeed intentions predict behaviour.

Correlational research merely demonstrates that we can predict the behaviour of one variable from the behaviour of another variable. If a relationship exists, then there is an association between variables. However, two variables can be associated without there being a casual relationship between the variables. Equally, this type of research may also have limitations with respect to the generality of the findings. This study involved special groups (Students), whose circumstances are controlled by the university environment and the fact that they are still dependent on their parents / guardians. Thus, to be certain that the findings can be generalized to other people or situations, this study suggests that future research be conducted in a different context and / or using a different sample group.

The explanatory power of the variables used to determine the variation caused in entrepreneurial intentions was rather low. This implies that other factors not included in the study may influence entrepreneurial behaviour. It is also possible that the relationship between these variables was not linear. Hence further research should be conducted to include more variables and more vigorous methods for analysis to find out what really precipitates entrepreneurial intentions.

5.8 Chapter Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an overview of the key findings of hypotheses testing on social-cultural factors, entrepreneurial perceptions, entrepreneurial dispositions, and entrepreneurial intentions. The chapter presented conclusions inferred from the findings and discussions that preceded this chapter. This chapter has articulated how this thesis has contributed to the theory – both at a conceptual level and a practical level, in terms of policy and practical implications. It has also identified the limitations confronted towards completion of this thesis, and makes recommendations for future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Kindly provide the information requested by ticking () on the spaces provided.

2. a) Kindly indicate the degree course that are you pursuing

.....

b) Have you taken any entrepreneurship course within the university

.....

c) Age of the respondent.....

d) Gender

Male () Female ()

e) Kindly indicate the geographical location in which you were raised.

Urban ()

Peri-urban ()

Rural ()

Please
(Specify).....

f) Kindly indicate paternal Ethnicity

.....

g) Please indicate maternal ethnicity If and only if (f) above is not applicable.....

h) Does your family or any member of the family own a business?

Yes () No ()

Indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by circling the appropriate number.						
	1= strongly disagree (sd) 2= disagree, 3= neither agree or disagree 4= agree, 5= strongly agree (sa)	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I think about starting my own business.					
3	I am determined to create my own business in the future					
4	I believe that i will start my own business in the next 5 years					
5.	I prefer paid employment over self-employment					
6.	Starting my own business is not attractive					
7.	I would feel very good if i started my own business.					
8.	I would not be very enthusiastic if i started my own business					
9.	It is very practical for me to start my own business					
10.	I think it would be hard for me to start my own business					
11.	I think i would have a high workload if i started my own business					
12.	If i started my own business, i would be certain success					
13.	I believe i know enough to start my own business					

Please indicate your personal attitudes to the following question as honestly as possible by circling the appropriate number.						
1= strongly disagree (sd) 2= disagree, 3= neither agree or disagree 4= agree, 5= strongly agree (sa)						
		1	2	3	4	5
14.	I need to know that its already been done before I'm willing to try it					
15.	I push myself and feel real satisfaction when my work is among the best, there is					
16.	I respect rules and established procedures because they guide me.					

17.	I am quite independent of opinion of others					
18.	I enjoy the uncertainty and risks of various task: They energize me more than circumstances with predictable outcomes					
19.	Nothing that life can offer is a substitute for great achievement.					
20.	I spend more time thinking about my future goals than my past accomplishments					
21.	I rarely get a sense of pride and accomplishment from my work.					
22.	I do not get excited doing something on my own					
23.	I am willing to risk my personnel and family's material well being for the sake of business.					
24.	An opportunity to beat a perceived competitor in life is always a personal thrill.					
25.	It is important to continually look for new ways to do things					
26.	I like a job in which I don't have to answer anyone.					

Please indicate how you perceive the following cultural dimensions by circling the appropriate number as provided below						
	1= strongly disagree (sd) 2= disagree, 3= neither agree or disagree 4= agree, 5= strongly agree (sa)	1	2	3	4	5
27.	It is important to have job requirements and instructions spelled out in detail so that employees always know what they are expected to do.					
28.	Managers expect workers to closely follow instructions and procedures.					

29	Rules and regularities are important because they inform workers what the organization expects of them.					
30	Standard operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job					
31	Instructions for operations are important for employees on the job					
32	Business ventures are usually run more effectively by men than when they are run by women					
33	It is more important for men to have higher income than it is for women to have a higher income					
34	Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.					
35	Solving problems usually requires an active, forcible approach which is typical of men.					
36	It is preferable to have a man in power or position of authority rather than a woman.					
37	Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.					
38	Group success is less important than individual success.					
39	Being accepted by the members of your larger community is not important.					
40	An individual should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.					

Indicate your level of agreement with the following sentences from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):

	1	2	3	4	5
41.I believe i have acquired the necessary knowledge to start a business from the entrepreneurshhip course completed					
42.The entrepreneurshhip course is a good complement to my professional background that can help me to start a business					
44.I believe the entrepreneurshhip course has given me more ideas and opportunities to start a business in the future					
45.I believe that the knowledge acquired in entrepreneurship course will be more valuable if I start business than if i worked for a Company					

Appendix B: Table showing Item – Total Statistics

The item-total statistics Table presents the Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted in the final column as shown.

Table showing Item-Total Statistics

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I think about starting my own business.	138.11	198.894	.559	.761
I am determined to create my own business in the future	138.12	199.407	.579	.761
I believe that I will start my own business in the next 5 years	138.49	202.424	.465	.766
I prefer paid employment over self-employment	138.18	212.634	.174	.777
Starting my own business is not attractive	137.88	206.800	.336	.771
I would feel very good if I started my own business.	138.05	200.109	.526	.763

I would not be very enthusiastic if I started my own business	138.34	207.701	.308	.772
It is very practical for me to start my own business	138.35	204.893	.422	.768
I think it would be hard for me to start my own business	138.27	209.496	.273	.773
I think I would have a high workload if I started my own business	138.27	213.609	.142	.778
If I started my own business, I would be certain of success	138.63	205.847	.359	.770
I believe I know enough to start my own business	138.66	206.707	.326	.771
I need to know that its already been done before I'm willing to try it	138.57	222.022	-.123	.789
I push myself and feel real satisfaction when my work is among the best, there is	138.09	204.528	.445	.767

I respect rules and established procedures because they guide me	139.07	233.451	-.463	.799
I am quite independent of opinion of others	138.49	210.019	.277	.773
I enjoy the uncertainty and risks of various task: They energize me more than circumstances with predictable outcomes	138.51	206.004	.421	.768
Nothing that life can offer is a substitute for great achievement.	138.49	207.683	.339	.771
I spend more time thinking about my future goals than my past accomplishments	138.34	203.782	.472	.766
I rarely get a sense of pride and accomplishment from my work.	138.44	215.446	.076	.780
I do not get excited doing something on my own	138.22	209.295	.261	.774
I am willing to risk my personnel and family's material well being for the sake of business.	139.38	211.218	.206	.776

An opportunity to beat a perceived competitor in life is always a personal thrill.	138.09	209.805	.269	.773
It is important to continually look for new ways to do things	137.72	204.371	.472	.766
I like a job in which I don't have to answer to anyone	137.87	209.012	.249	.774
It is important to have job requirements and instructions spelled out in detail so that employees always know what they are expected to do.	137.81	203.405	.477	.766
Managers expect workers to closely follow instructions and procedures.	137.69	206.690	.471	.768
Rules and regularities are important because they inform workers what the organization expects of them.	137.67	204.784	.503	.766
Standard operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job	137.72	205.329	.489	.767

Instructions for operations are important for employees on the job	137.74	204.671	.497	.766
Business ventures are usually run more effectively by men than when they are run by women	138.52	226.118	-.228	.794
It is more important for men to have higher income than it is for women to have a higher income	138.66	223.617	-.162	.791
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.	138.49	219.368	-.048	.785
Solving problems usually requires an active, forcible approach which is typical of men.	138.87	213.416	.123	.779
It is preferable to have a man in power or position of authority rather than a woman.	138.80	219.826	-.061	.786

Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	138.53	225.947	-.249	.792
Group success is less important than individual success.	138.93	216.952	.028	.782
Being accepted by the members of your larger community is not important.	139.17	219.873	-.062	.785
An individual should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	138.34	226.201	-.240	.793
I believe I have acquired the necessary knowledge to start a business from the entrepreneurship course completed	138.56	198.734	.549	.761
The entrepreneurship course is a good complement to my professional background that can help me to start a business	138.31	201.100	.555	.763

I believe the entrepreneurship course has given me more ideas and opportunities to start a business in the future	138.44	200.390	.531	.763
I believe that the knowledge acquired in entrepreneurship course will be more valuable if I start business than if I worked for a Company	138.49	202.688	.443	.766

Appendix C: Summary Studies on Intentions

The table below provides a summary of studies that have utilised intentions models to examine entrepreneurial intentions and its antecedents.

Author(s)	Focus	Level/Contribution
Bird (1988)	Entrepreneurial intention	Individual (theoretical)
Boyd and Vozikis (1994)	Entrepreneurial intention	Individual (theoretical)
Chen et al. (1998)	Intention to start a business	Individual (empirical)
Crant (1996)	Intention to own a business	Individual (empirical)
Douglas and Shepherd (2002)	Self-employment intention	Individual (empirical)
Katz and Gartner (1988)	Entrepreneurial intention	Organisational (theoretical)
Kolvereid (1996)	Self-employment intention	Individual (empirical)
Kolvereid et al. (2006)	Self-employment intention	Individual (empirical)
Krueger and Carsrud (1993)	Entrepreneurial intention	Organisational (theoretical)
Krueger and Brazeal (1994)	Entrepreneurial intention	Individual (theoretical)
Krueger et al. (2000)	Entrepreneurial intention Comparing and testing intentions models	Individual (empirical)
Peterman and Kennedy (2003)	Entrepreneurial intention	Individual (empirical)
Shapero and Sokol (1982)	Entrepreneurial event formation	Individual or Group (theoretical)
Zhao et al. (2005)	Intentions to start a business	Individual (empirical)