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Utilisation of Entrepreneurship skills among TIVET  
graduates

A case study of Ruiru Town

By

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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This research project has been submitted for examination with my approval as University supervisor.

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May Almighty bless you in your endeavours!

## TABLE OF CONTENT

Content	Page
Declaration	ii
Acknowledgement	iii
List if tables and graphs	vii
Abstract	ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Problem Statement	5
1.3 Goals and Objectives	6
1.4 Justification	6
1.5 Scope and Limitation	7
1.6 a) Definition of Terms	8
b) Abbreviations	8
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.0 Introduction	9
2.1 Entrepreneurship	19
2.2 Entrepreneurial Character and Traits	11
2.3 Development of Enterprise Culture	
2.3.1 Culture	13
2.3.2 Enterprise	14
2.3.3 Enterprise culture	14
2.3.4 Development of enterprise culture in Kenya	15
2.4 Entrepreneurship innovation	17
2.5 Adequacy of Entrepreneurship training in TIVET	20
2.6 Conceptual Framework	22
2.7 Theories	

2.7.1	The theory of planned behaviour	23
2.7.2	Theory of change	24
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY		
3.0	Introduction	25
3.1	Research Design	25
3.2	Area of Study	26
3.3	Study Population	26
3.4	Sampling Technique	27
3.5	Study Instruments	28
3.6	Data collecting Method	29
3.7	Validity and Reliability	29
3.8	Data Analysis	30
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS		
4.0	Introduction	31
4.1	Utilisation of the acquired entrepreneurship	
	Skills to establish business	31
4.1.1	Biographic data	31
4.1.2	Gender and business venture	32
4.1.3	Age and business venture	33
4.1.4	Marital status and business venture	33
4.1.5	Training and business venture	35
4.1.6	Completing college	35
4.1.7	Duration of training in TIVET colleges	36
4.1.8	Qualification of training and business venture	37
4.1.9	Level of education and business venture	37
4.1.10	Duration of on job training	38
4.1.11	Business venture and paid employment	39
4.1.12	Length of time in paid employment	39
4.1.13	Maid duties	40
4.1.14	Reasons for taking paid employment	41
4.1.15	Business type for those in self-employment	43

4.1.16	Reasons for engaging in business	45
4.1.17	Number of employees	46
4.1.18	Business records	47
4.1.19	Calculating profit	48
4.1.20	Financial management	49
4.1.21	Changes in the market	50
4.1.22	Challenges	51
4.2	Innovation	52
4.2.1	Process and product innovation	52
4.2.2	Innovation and mode of training	53
4.2.3	Venturing into the new market	54
4.3	Attitude towards the entrepreneurship training	54
4.3.1	The adequacy of entrepreneurship training	54
4.3.2	Improving entrepreneurship	55

## CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0	Introduction	57
5.1	Summary	57
5.2	Research methodology	57
5.3	Results	
5.3.1	Personal Data	58
5.3.2	Use of entrepreneurship skills	59
5.3.3	Enterprise innovation	60
5.3.4	Graduates attitude towards the adequacy of entrepreneurship training	60
5.4	Conclusion and recommendations	61
	References and bibliography	63
	Appendix 1 work schedule	70
	Appendix 2 interview schedule	71

## LIST OF TABLES AND GRAPHS

	Page number
4.1 Respondents age, gender and marital status	32
4.2 Gender and business venture	32
4.3 Ages and business venture	33
4.4 Marital status and business venture	34
4.5 Mode of training	35
4.6 Respondents' completion of college	36
4.7 Duration taken in training	36
4.8 Qualification and business venture	37
4.9 Levels of education before training	37
4.10 Levels of education and business venture	38
4.11 Duration of on job training	38
4.12 Employment type	39
4.13 Period of time in paid employment	40
4.14 Main duties	40
4.15 What duties include	41
4.16 Reasons for taking paid employment	42
4.17 Previous engagement with paid employment	42
4.18 Hindrance to starting business	43
4.19 Type of business	44
4.20 Number of years in business	44
4.21 Reasons for starting business	45

4.22	Reasons for starting business for TIVET graduates	46
4.23	Number of employees	46
4.24	Number of workers and mode of training	47
4.25	Business records	48
4.26	Business records and training mode	48
4.27	Frequency of Calculating profit	49
4.28	Financial management	49
4.29	Understanding market	50
4.30	Challenges faced by business owners	51
4.31	Innovation	52
4.32	Innovation and mode of training	53
4.33	Venturing into new Market	54
4.34	Adequacy of training	55
4.35	Improving the training	55



## ABSTRACT

The wealth of a nation depends on its capacity to develop its human resources and not so much on its physical resources, and a country which is unable to develop skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else. One of the Kenya's approaches to skills development is focusing on development of TIVET institutions which are required by government policy to provide entrepreneurship training to all the apprentices. The aim is to create the enterprise culture and assist with skills necessary to start and run business. This study's aim was to explore how well these skills are used.

The skills are meant to instil in trainees the drive necessary to venture into profit making activities through knowledge, skills and attitudes that will enable them start, operate and manage personal or group business enterprises effectively. There was a dire need to establish whether these skills translate to business ventures among the TIVET graduates, especially when we consider the following arguments: one is the argument that most artisans seek to start self-employment after failing to acquire paid jobs in the formal sector; two, the argument by the government that only 2 out of 20 trainees given management and technical skills succeed in business venture; and the argument that 80% of SME fail within their first year of start.

The main goal of this study was to establish whether the TIVET graduates utilise the knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired during their training to establish business. This was done through specific objectives that were:

1. To establish whether the graduates of TIVETs institutions use their acquired entrepreneurship skills to establish business,
2. To establish the new innovations the graduates have brought to the market as they meet the societal needs.
3. To establish the TIVET graduates attitude on the adequacy of their entrepreneurship training.

This study interviewed graduates from TIVET institutions by following them to where they work. It also interviewed artisans who trained through on-job training but are engaged in similar ventures.

The study utilised snowballing sampling technique and data collection was through structured interview method. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data, and presented in simple tables and graphs.

The study found that there is a sizable number of graduates trained by TIVET that is in business just because they could not secure a paid job. Together with this there is a good number of those in paid job because they have the fear that their business would not succeed. The study revealed that there is need for the graduates to understand the meaning of market and have better market analysis methods. This study also found out that product and radical innovation are missing among the graduates. Many respondents felt that the entrepreneurship skills given to them were adequate to assist in starting and running business. Besides, they felt that the training content should be increased and the training should be more skill based.

The study therefore recommends that the course should be reviewed in the following areas: How it can encourage the graduates view business as an employment opportunity, how it can offer better market analysis skills and how it can offer more innovative skills.

This study further recommends that further study be carried out to establish what should be included in the content and how the training can be made skill based rather than theory.

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Background of the study

There has been a widespread belief among educational economists that educational development would lead to accelerated economic growth, more wealth and income distribution, greater equality of opportunity, availability of skilled human power, a decline in population growth, long life, better health outcomes, low crime rates, national unity and political stability (Ojiambo Peter 2009). The wealth of a nation depends on its capacity to develop its human resources and not so much on its physical resources (Harbison 1973). Arguably, a country which is unable to develop skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else (Harbison 1973). One of the Kenya's approaches to skills development has been channelling the focus to development of TIVET institutions. These institutions are required by government policy to provide entrepreneurship training to all the apprentices going through the institutions. This is aimed at not only creating the enterprise culture among the youth but also assist the graduates have the skills necessary to start and run business. This study's aim was to explore how well the graduates use the entrepreneurship skills.

The vision 2030 notes that the first immediate challenge facing the social pillar in Kenya's transformation is how to meet the human resource requirements for a rapidly changing and more diverse economy. However, it suggests that this can be solved through life-long training and education. As a priority, a human resource data base needs to be established to facilitate better planning of human resources requirements in the country. Steps should be taken to raise labour productivity to international levels. Majorly, steps should include the establishment of new technical training institutions, as well as the enhancement of closer collaboration between

industry and training institutions. A major challenge lies in improving the overall transition rates, particularly from secondary to tertiary levels.

This major challenge can be cushioned by Technical, Industrial, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TIVET) (John Nyerere, 2009), whose major role, as described by Bennell (1999), is to furnish skills required to improve productivity, raise income levels and improve accessibility to employment opportunities. A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research (2004) gives the objective of TIVET as to provide and promote life-long education and training for self-reliance. It identifies TIVET as the cushioning ground for primary and secondary school dropout.

TIVET has three potential benefits (KIPPRA, 2009). One, its up-to-date knowledge and skills contribute to higher productivity. Subsequently, the skills acquired by one individual can have positive spillover effects on the productivity of other individuals, so that social benefits of training exceed private benefits. Two, TIVET programmes are attractive because training may complement investments in physical capital. The skilled labour attracts direct investment and enhances competitiveness and innovative capacity of an economy. Moreover, skilled workers are also essential, especially in changing the production environment. Together with this, introduction of new forms of work organization also relies heavily on availability of skilled workers. Three, high quality TIVET complements entrepreneurship development programmes whose aim is to promoting self-employment. Accordingly, deficient training could adversely affect the quality of goods and services produced, and where goods and services are for export markets, poor quality can adversely affect their competitiveness.

The issue of unemployment in Kenya, just like the other developing countries, cannot be solved by merely providing technical skills. There is a great need to link the technical skills to the employment for both wage employment and self-employment (UNESCO 2010). With diminishing formal employment opportunities (Scott and Ahmed, 1997), there is need for TIVET institutions to engage in training the skills that can enable the graduates to seek opportunities of self-employment. This can be traced back to the time of The Mackay Report, 1981 which recommended the expansion of other post-secondary training institutions. This was meant to enhance self-reliance and reduce high reliance on formal employment. Later on in 1988 Kamunge led commission recommended that entrepreneurship be taught in the technical training institutes (Republic of Kenya 1988). Today entrepreneurship course is a core subject taught in all TIVET institutions with the aim of creating an enterprise culture and harness the entrepreneurial effort among the youth (Republic of Kenya, 1990). The syllabus is developed by KIE and its objectives are outlined as follows:

Acquire entrepreneurial competences necessary for planning, starting and managing businesses.

Demonstrate positive attitude towards self-employment.

Portray desire to venture into business.

Identify viable business opportunities.

Demonstrate entrepreneurial behaviour in planning, starting and managing business enterprises.

Demonstrate creativity and innovation in their day-to-day business activities.

Appreciate the role of business planning in supply and management.

Cope with the emerging trends and issues in entrepreneurship.

This training is regarded as the “master key” for alleviation of poverty and it is critical that Kenya, through TIVET institutions, meets the challenges of increased unemployment (Nyerere, 2009). The introduction of entrepreneurship training in TIVET institutions is expected to bring a remarkable change in Kenya’s growing economy. One, it is a way of alleviating the problem of unemployment (Psacharopoulos, 1997). Two, it is expected to improve the graduates’ problem-solving skills, adaptability to group setting and innovativeness. The graduates are equally expected to possess high motivation, high self-esteem, and exercise a wide choice of methods and environmental approach (Kogoe 1985).

Despite the efforts to provide skills in entrepreneurship and nurturing enterprise culture through TIVET programs, previous research shows that most enterprises have no prospect for growth to medium enterprise and hence large production (House, Ikiara, & McCormick, 1990). Among the contributing factors are lack of skills and lack of the necessary experience and willingness to take the necessary risk to expand (House, et al., 1990). Technology, which is a primary factor in economic development (Sherer& Perlman, 1992), has been cited as a barrier to enterprise growth due limited educational capabilities, and weak technological infrastructures (Githeko, 1996).

It is also noted that most artisans seek to start self-employment after failing to acquire jobs in the formal sector (Scott and Ahmed, 1997) and the study carried out by the government showed that out of 20 trainees given management and technical training skills with an aim of helping them succeed in their enterprises, only two were considered to be successful in terms of employment creation, increase in assets, and increase in profits. Likewise, the baseline survey of 1999 estimated that 80% of the MSEs failed within their first three years after starting up (GOK, 2001).

The government of Kenya has also admitted that the growth of TIVET institutions have been rather haphazard and uncoordinated due to lack of a unified policy and legal provisions. It has further admitted that the uncoordinated growth has resulted in ineffective co-ordination of training policies, disparities in training standards, and the disproportionate production of skilled personnel in the economy, which has also been aggravated by inadequate funding of the sub sector (Republic of Kenya 2005).

These lead us to the question: Are the graduates adequately equipped with the necessary entrepreneurship skills that can enable them to not only start business but also identify business opportunities and act on them, use management skills in organising and planning business and finances, bring a long innovation of both product and process, and solve business problems as they meet societal needs.

### **1.2.Problem Statement**

The need to train entrepreneurship, as Kenya moves from over-dependency on agrarian economy to a more diversified industrial society, has been emphasised by many forums and scholars, as in Sessional Papers and noted by Robert and Scott (1997). The need to entrench entrepreneurship training in Technical Colleges, including TIVET, has been given a lot of weight; the role of entrepreneurship training in supporting economic growth, especially among the youth, has been clearly spelt out by sessional papers, Government reports, Donor Agencies as well scholars. As earlier noted, entrepreneurship training in TIVET institutions is intended to equip the trainees with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes that will enable them start, operates and manage personal or group business enterprise effectively, hence promote enterprise culture. It's also intended to instil in trainees the drive necessary to venture into profit making activities.

In spite of all the training, Scott and Ahmed, 1997 noted that most artisans seek to start self-employment after failing to acquire jobs in the formal sector and the study carried out by the government showed that out of 20 trainees given management and technical training skills with an aim of helping them succeed in their enterprises, only two were considered to be successful in terms of employment creation, increase in assets, and increase in profits. Therefore there was a dire need to establish how well the skills provided by the institutions translate to business ventures among the TIVET graduates, especially when

### **1.3.Goals and Objectives**

The main goal of this study was to establish whether the TIVET graduates utilise the knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired during their training to establish business.

The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To find out whether the graduates of TIVETs institutions use their acquired entrepreneurship skills to establish business,
2. To find out the new innovations the graduates have brought to the market as they meet the societal needs.
3. To find out if the TIVET graduates' found the entrepreneurship training adequate enough to assist them start and run business.

### **1.4.Justification**

One approach to enhancing economic growth and development among developing countries is to create an "enterprise culture" among the youth. To attain an enterprise culture, education and training programs in Kenya have incorporated business, technology, and entrepreneurship into the curriculum. Much emphasis was given to providing technical skills to the youth through



technical colleges and huge budgets were direct to this course. The purpose was to cushion school dropouts and curb the rapidly growing unemployment. But the government has realised that unemployment in Kenya, as in other developing countries, cannot be solved by simply providing training in technical skills (UNESCO 2010). There is need to train students be innovative and provide marketing skills. Therefore the aspect of entrepreneurship education was meant to make a difference when incorporated in technical and vocational education and training (TIVET). The underlying principle is to create awareness in young trainee's minds of the existence of various options in the world of work.

The characteristics of an entrepreneurial culture include innovation, foresightedness and persistence. And these characteristics could not be fully assessed by simply giving a pen and paper evaluation as in college test or end-of-the-course exam. Observation, discussions and answering structured questions could provide a better insight and feed-back of how far the training program has succeeded.

### **1.5.Scope and limitation**

Though this study was focused on those trained through TIVET institutions, its endeavours were mainly on utilisation of entrepreneurship skills and not their technical aspects. However, it did reach those doing similar work and were not formally trained through TIVET institutions. It limited itself to those who have completed the training and did not attempt to study those who were going through the training. This study confined itself to Ruiru Town in Kiambu County. It was not limited to particular TIVET institutions or particular artisan training field.

## 1.6.

### **a) Definition of Terms**

Graduates:	These who have gone through the TIVET institutions and have graduated, irrespective of their grading
Entrepreneurship skills:	Training on entrepreneurship provided to the graduates as they went through the TIVET programs
Technical Skills:	Other areas of training in TIVET programs apart from entrepreneurship
Trade Skills:	Specific Technical skills
On-job Training:	Informal training where skills are acquired in the process of working
Artisan:	One who has acquired technical skills through TIVET programs

### **b) Abbreviations**

TIVET:	Technical Industrial Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training
TVET:	Technical Vocational Education and Training
KIE:	Kenya Institute of Education
KICD:	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
KIPPRA:	Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis
ILO:	International Labour Organization
SME:	Small and Medium Enterprise
MSME:	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises
SMSE:	Small and Medium-Scale Enterprises

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

### **2.0.Introduction**

This section will focus on review of related literature. It will briefly define entrepreneurship before paying attention to entrepreneurship characteristics and traits. It will later focus on development of enterprise culture, look at what constitutes entrepreneurship innovation and finally address the adequacy of entrepreneurship training in TIVET institutions. Together with these, the chapter provides the conceptual framework and highlights the two theories that the study is based on.

### **2.1. Entrepreneurship**

The term entrepreneurship has undergone great evolution from the time of Cantillon, and up to date there is lack of univocal definition of the term despite decades of research in the field. This could have been caused by the divergent views of scholars on what constitutes the concept of entrepreneurship.

Cantillon used the word entrepreneur in economic literature to refer to a person who has enterprise in unknown and risky conditions (Foss and Klain, 2007). Cantillon believed that tolerance for the risk was inherent in providing for one's own economic wellbeing. And as Jennings (1994) explains, Cantillon's idea of entrepreneur was entrenched in maximisation of profit. To him, entrepreneurs were directly involved in the equilibrium of supply and demand.

Jean-Baptiste Say further expanded Cantillon's definition of a successful entrepreneur to include the possession of managerial skills (Long 1983). This was further supported by Schmoller when he noted that an entrepreneur is regarded as a creative manager and organiser who is totally dependent of innovation and initiation (Van Daalen 1989). Hebert and Link (1988) suggested

that an entrepreneur is a “New Leader” since he/she urges the economic system on and strengthens it through creative innovation, Van Daalen (1989).

Max Weber, whose focus was driven from sociological perspective, regarded an entrepreneur as a “dynamic coordinator of resources” (Paula, 1996). He regarded entrepreneurship as a detachment from old traditions of production to develop new methods.

Schumpeter is regarded probably as the most explicit writer about the economic function of an entrepreneur. To him entrepreneur is the prime mover of economic development and his main function is to innovate or to carry out new combination, zoltan, et, al, (2005). Schumpeterian entrepreneurship is one of creation by specialist dis-equilibrating innovators (Stuart 2005) and dis-equilibrating innovator as one who breaks the traditional notion of market equilibrium where money and goods are moving in a constant circular flow(Frank (1990)).

Although many attempts have been recently made to better explain the concept of entrepreneurship and its domain of research (Sharma and Chrisman, 1999), the field of entrepreneurship has not yet reached maturity and, ‘entrepreneurship’ is a wide label under which a broad array of research efforts are housed (Shane and Venkataraman 2000).

Most of the definitions are in either of the two clusters. One focuses on the characteristics of entrepreneurship like innovation, growth and uniqueness. For example Shane and Venkataraman (2000) define ‘entrepreneurship’ as the process through which opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated and exploited while University of Pretoria defines an entrepreneurial as a venture that constantly seeks growth and innovation and has strategic objectives (Kruger, 2004).

The second group focuses on the outcomes of entrepreneurship including the creation of value (Sharma and Chrisman 1999). For example Hornaday (1990) and Collins, et, al (1964) exemplified Weber by looking at entrepreneurship from a sociological perspective which focuses on the role society plays in shaping entrepreneurs and on the impact entrepreneurs have on society.

However, the major purpose of this study is not qualify or disqualify any definition assigned to entrepreneurship by different scholars, neither is it attempting to analyse the scholarly work in finding the definition of entrepreneurship, but find out how graduates of TIVET use the entrepreneurship skills acquired in through training.

## **2.2. Entrepreneurial Character and Traits**

Although the purpose of this study is not to analyse the psychological traits of an entrepreneur, it's fundamental to identify what differentiate entrepreneurs from other business people. There are various ways of looking at entrepreneurship characters and traits. Stephen (1998) noted that characteristics of an entrepreneur are heavily influenced by social, demographic, psychological and other factors. Klandt (1984) identifies two main motivation factors of entrepreneurs as push which he argues is a necessity and pull which he refers to as opportunity. Push factors happen when the current situation one is in is perceived as dissatisfying; for example termination of employment, and can be described as negative factors. Pull factors encourage potential entrepreneurs by virtue of attractiveness, for example the perception of a market opportunity or the desire to be their own boss, and these factors are referred to positive factors.

The pull factors that will influence people to exploit new venture opportunities may be categorized into three general areas: motivational, core self-evaluation, and cognitions (Shane

2003). Motivational factors include need for achievement, risk taking propensity and desire for independence (Brockhaus, 1982); while core self-evaluation factors include locus of control and self-efficacy; and, cognitions are beliefs and attitudes that influence how a person thinks and makes decisions.

The creation of a business is a complex process and the outcome of many influences Vesper (1980), and the most focused upon include, locus of control, risk taking, and need for achievement.

Locus of Control is the individual's perception about the underlying main causes of events in his/her life (Rotter 1966); it is the believe that one controls what happens in his or her life. People with internal locus of control believe that they can determine their fate through their own behaviour. Brockhaus (1982); Lao (1970); Gurin et al (1969), found out that internal locus of control is more important than need for achievement, and people who have internal locus of control express more need for achievement.

Risk taking is one of the earliest identification of entrepreneurial characters used particularly by Cantillon (1755) and later J.S. Mill (1848). J. S. Mill included the term risk-bearing to distinguish entrepreneur from manager (Mill 1848). Risk-taking refers to the tendency to engage in behaviours that have the potential to be harmful or dangerous, yet at the same time provide the opportunity for some kind of outcome that can be perceived as positive. In entrepreneurship it refers to the willingness to commit significant resources to some uncertain opportunities (Miller 1983).

Moore &Gergen did study on risk-taking in business and found that the process of risk-taking involves both making the decision to take a risk and developing a strategy that minimizes the

risk. Well-seasoned risk-taking requires careful decision making (Moore & Gergen 1985, 72). Nevertheless, study shows that an entrepreneur is more inclined to take risks in a domain where he or she is an expert. Therefore, individuals will be more risk-averse in areas in which they have little knowledge to estimate the probabilities for different outcomes (Heath & Tversky 1991), a fact that emphasises the need for training.

Need for achievement is another very important trait that is reflected in entrepreneurs. Davidson (1989), notes that achievement motivation is the most important factor that contributes in explaining variation of growth rates and entrepreneurship, while Johnson (2000), clarifies that it is the basic trait of entrepreneur.

McClelland's (1955) research found that people having a strong need for achievement consider achievement to be much more important than material or financial reward. Need for achievement is a driving force of a personality that constantly stimulates new aims and ideas required for an entrepreneurship.

## **2.3. Developing Enterprise Culture**

### **2.3.1 *Culture***

It is Max Weber who emphasised the importance of looking at entrepreneurship from a cultural perspective. He argued that culture, particularly religion, had a great influence on entrepreneurship at the beginning of twentieth century. To Weber, Protestantism encouraged a culture that emphasized individualism, achievement motivation, legitimating of entrepreneurial vocations, rationality, asceticism, and self-reliance, which, according to him, were key ingredients of modern capitalism (Weber, 1976). Scheinberg and Macmillan (1988) noted that there are remarkable differences across cultures in motivations to establish a new business.

Hofstede (1981) describes culture as the collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from those of another. Therefore culture is a system of collectively held values, where values are critical features of distinctiveness of culture. However, as Hofstede notes, cultural values are not ingrained in an individual genetic formation, rather they are embedded through training. Visagie, et, al (2002), notes that culture is a set of values, norms, standards behaviour and common expectations that control the ways in which individuals and groups interact with other to achieve goals.

### 2.3.2 *Enterprise*

Enterprise, as Cannon (1991) puts it, is the characteristic of people, groups and organisations which produces a disposition to self-realisation through achievement. It encompasses the self-reliance to innovate, accept risk and act independently, if these are needed to complete tasks effectively.

The term enterprise can be discussed in three different ways (Rosa 1992): First, enterprise refers to a business organisation; second, the term enterprise is used when referring to a series of personal skills and qualities vital to economic development; and, enterprise as a series of personal skills and qualities vital to good citizenship and the realisation of the individual's full potential. Rose (1992) further notes that most of policy makers and educationalists view enterprise from the perspective of the third category, but there is need to encompass the other two to address total economic sphere.

### 2.3.3 *Enterprise culture*

ILO (1998) described developing an enterprising culture as the process of creating an environment that favours initiative, enterprise creation, productivity, environmental



consciousness, quality employment, good labour and industrial relations, and adequate and equitable social practices. According to ILO, this should include the development of entrepreneurial attitudes, through education, training and entrepreneurship development. And Kao 1993, described enterprising culture as a commitment of the individual to the continuing pursuit of opportunities and developing an entrepreneurial endeavour to its growth potentials for the purpose of creating wealth for the individual and adding value to society

Hooper (1998) argues that the term enterprise culture was popularised in 1970s following the period of stagflation, majorly caused by rise in oil prices. The term was used to refer to qualities that were seen to be desirable to restore and renew economy. He (Hooper) clarifies that enterprise culture drives people to possessing the traits of being self-reliant and autonomous individual. However, the full potential of these traits can only be realised if the government plays its pivotal role of enhance two main changes (Keat and Abercrombie, 1991). One, the government should make avenues for people to learn and acquire the meaning and practice of enterprise. This can be done through the education system, hence emphasising the value of enterprise culture to the broader community. Two, make policies that promote enterprise culture in the community and lead by demonstrating by nurturing enterprise culture in State Corporation and public service (Drucker 1985).

#### 2.3.4 *Developing Enterprise Culture in Kenya*

Kenya, like many countries, encountered a series of adverse economic and political events in 1970s and 1980s that served to disrupt both political and economic trends, among them the global oil crises, the breakup of East African Community, the attempt of coup d'état in 1982, and the hard-biting drought of 1984 (OREA, 2010). These events, coupled with the Structural

Adjustment Program (SAP) of 1979, gave the government the need to relook into avenues of economic reforms. In 1986, the government came up with the Sessional Paper no. 1 of 1986 on Economic Management for Renewed Growth. This sessional paper gave the bases of development of enterprise culture in Kenya. It underscored the Kenya's need to nurture small enterprise as a beacon for future economic growth. Together with this, the small enterprise would cushion unemployment by providing a bulk of new jobs (Government of Kenya 1986). For this to work the government needed the hand of private enterprise sector and corporations, and there was need to enhance meaningful interaction between government agencies, education sector and private enterprise sector, Robert and Scott (1997). This was a big deviation from the earlier approach where problems of limited jobs was solved through the establishment of large industrial complexes that were expected to create many jobs and spur economic growth (Charmes, 1990). The development of enterprise culture was given impetus by the Kamunge led commission "Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond" of 1988. The commission recommended, among other things, that entrepreneurship training be taught in all the technical training institutions, currently known as TIVET, (Republic of Kenya, 1988), and the implementation commenced in 1990.

Development of enterprise culture has shown great growth with micro and small enterprise covering a range of establishment (Government of Kenya 2003). However, as House, Ikiara, & McCormick (1990) noted, growth of private enterprise sector in Kenya has been spontaneous rather than a result of deliberate strategies within an overall government policy framework. And, many small enterprises do not have the prospects for growth into medium-sized enterprises due to an over-supply of similar goods in the marketplace, lack of management and technical skills, limited capital, and low product quality (House, et al., 1990). To enhance a flourishing enterprise

culture, the government, through the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation 2003 – 2007 identified the following ways: One, expand and strengthen partnership with the private sector especially in negotiating trade protocols and other business related issues. Two, identify suitable zones, through Local Authorities, with basic infrastructure which will serve as incubators for SMEs. This will also improve their image, visibility and facilitate linkage between SMEs and medium and large scale enterprises.

The vision 2030 noted that for development of a well flourishing enterprise culture in Kenya, a well-coordinated human resource development is needed. It further notes that this can be achieved through specialized training at different levels: community polytechnics, and the technical, industrial, vocational and entrepreneurship (TIVET) institutions. In spite of the important role played by these institutions in development of much needed enterprise culture in Kenya, little is achieved due to the constraints of inadequate facilities as well as the number of TIVET institutions (Government of Kenya 2007). This pushes unskilled young people to the Jua Kali sector hence lowering the quality of enterprise culture in Kenya. This study endeavours to identify the level to which TIVET institutions are playing their role in developing enterprise culture.

## **2.4 The Entrepreneurship Innovation**

The term innovation first appeared in law in the thirteenth century and it meant renewing an obligation by changing a contract for a new debtor (Benoît Godin 208), and even as late as nineteenth century, the term was negatively taken by the society since it was associated with defiant with church and political affairs. Barnett 1953, writing in the field of anthropology, defined innovation as any thought, behaviour, or thing that is new because it is qualitatively

different from existing forms. Joseph Schumpeter introduced the notion of the entrepreneur as innovator, and wrote that everyone is an entrepreneur only when he actually 'carries out new combinations', and loses that character as soon as he has built up this business (Harbison & Myers, 1959). To Schumpeter an innovation is the introduction of a new idea or doing something that has been done in the past but in a new way (Humphrey and Schmitz, 2002). Therefore, business can innovate through introducing a new product, adopting a new production process, discovering new sources of supply, sourcing for new markets and engaging in new organization or management.

Innovation is the process of bringing the best ideas into reality, which triggers a creative idea, which generates a series of innovative events; it is the creation of new value. Therefore innovation brings together knowledge and ideas to create value (Friday 2007). The purpose of innovation in any organisation is to satisfy the end user of the product (Zairi 1999).

Peter Drucker viewed innovation as the tool or instrument used by entrepreneurs to exploit change as an opportunity. He argued that innovation, as a discipline, is capable of being learned, as well as practiced (Mckeown 2008). He disagrees with the conventional thinking that entrepreneurship and innovation are natural, creative, or spontaneous. Rather, he notes that entrepreneurship and innovation are as a result of work (Richard 2005). To him (Drucker) innovation consisted of the purposeful and organized search for changes, and in the systematic analysis of the opportunities such changes might offer for economic or social innovation. In this view, Grant 1998, suggest that entrepreneurship education program should entrench innovation aspect as an inherent endeavour and should challenge students to look for new opportunities or initiatives that have not been taken in the past.

Enterprise innovation is either product or process. Process innovation is a problem-solving or experimentation that takes place on the production floor; it is the development of new or improved process technologies (Davenport, 1993). It is better defined as new or improved tools, materials, equipments and other technologies that directly affect how the innovating business produces the goods that it sells on the market (Gopalakrishnan&Damanpour, 1997). On the other hand product innovation refers to the new or improved product technologies that the firm sells for the benefit of customers or clients. It is the introduction of a good or service that is new or significantly improved with respect to its characteristics or intended uses (OECD, 2005). This includes significant improvements in technical specifications, components and materials, incorporated software, user friendliness or other functional characteristics. Product innovations can utilize new knowledge or technologies, or can be based on new uses or combinations of existing knowledge or technologies (Gatimu C, 2009).

Entrepreneurial innovation can also be classified as incremental or radical. A radical innovation calls for a whole new design, ideally using new components configured in a new way (Henderson and Clark's 1990). This kind of innovation is relatively rare (Rothwell and Gardner 1989). Incremental innovation refines and improves an existing design, through improvements in the components; and, it is improvements not changes, the components are not radically altered (Christensen 1997).

Incremental innovations are the commonest in Africa (Robson et al., 2009) and as Kamau and Munandi, 2009 suggest, mild process, technological and product innovations have been taking place across many firms in the industry in Kenya. In spite of this, The International Finance Corporation (IFC) (2011) identified lack of innovative capacity as one of the challenges faced by MSMEs, and suggested that this could be caused by lack of managerial training and experience,

inadequate education and skills, among other reasons. Some of the indicators of lack of entrepreneurial innovations include oversupply of similar goods and services in the market place (House, et al., 1990), poor business growth and lack of technological advancement (Sherer& Perlman, 1992).

## **2.5 Adequacy of Entrepreneurship Training in TIVET**

Debate as to whether entrepreneurship can be taught is an age-old debate. Entrepreneurs can be created and nurtured through appropriate interventions in the form of Entrepreneurship Education Programs (SMSE Annual report 2007-2008 India). Entrepreneurship education can be described as a process through which learners acquire a broad set of competencies can bring greater individual, social and economic benefits since the competences acquired lend themselves to application in every aspect of people's lives (European Commission 2011). Collins and Jack (2004) describe it as the process of providing individuals with the ability to recognise commercial opportunities and the insight, self-esteem, knowledge and skills to act on them. Entrepreneurship education trains students analyse the changes taking place in their countries and are encouraged to consider self-employment and enterprise creation as a career choice (ILO 2009). It cuts across arts and sciences. Science include the structured training to provide the entrepreneur with technical and personal skills like financial management and marketing, which can be taught through the conventional methods (Hisrich and Peters 1998); Arts including creativeness and innovation, which are highly subjective and not be easily taught through the conventional methods (Jack and Anderson 1999).

An adequate entrepreneurship education curriculum should comprise of the following three components, Kourilsky (1995): First, opportunity recognition which deals with identification of

unfulfilled needs in the marketplace and the creation of ideas for services or products that meet them. The student is given the skills in observation of the market, insight into customer needs, and invention and innovation. Second is marshalling of resources. This involves willingness to take risks as well as skills in securing outside investment. Third is creation of an operating business organisation which requires skills in financing, marketing, and management.

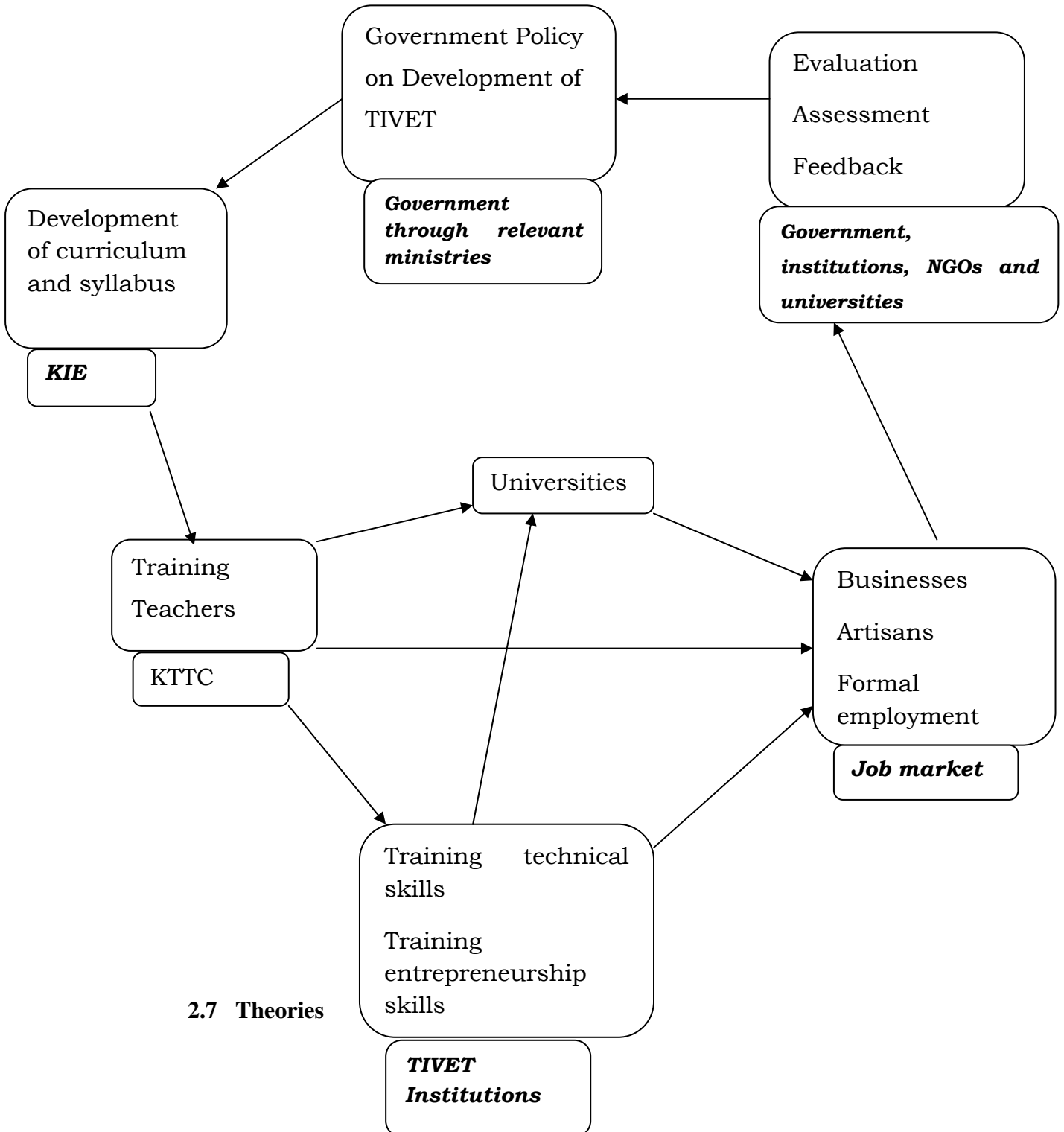
In Kenya, the introduction of entrepreneurship curriculum to TIVET institutions was done in 1990 after the then Ministry of Research, Technical Training and Technology (MRTT&T) initiated a four-year project to implement a new policy requiring all TIVET students to complete a Course in entrepreneurship education. The UNDP helped the in providing the funding, while ILO assisted in implementing the program (Robert N and Sott D J, 1997).

This entrepreneurship education program focused on the pre-start level in TIVET institutions where positive business and entrepreneurial attitudes needed to be developed in trainees before they initiate the process of becoming self-employed. All students in TIVET institutes at the artisan, craft, and technician level were required to complete a 154-hour course in entrepreneurship education to develop positive attitudes towards self-employment and entrepreneur-ship. In addition, all trainees gain experience with business planning and are required to prepare a business plan before graduation (Robert N and Sott D J, 1997).

The TIVET institutions target the 300,000 students who fail to join secondary school after KCPE, and 200, 000 who do not get a chance of joining the university after the secondary education. The key objective is to provide and promote life -long education and training for self-reliance. However, the growth of this sub-sector has been rather haphazard and uncoordinated due to lack of a unified policy and legal provisions. This has resulted in ineffective co-ordination

of training policies, disparities in training standards, and the disproportionate production of skilled personnel in the economy, which has also been aggravated by inadequate funding of the sub sector (Republic of Kenya 2005).

### 2.6 Conceptual framework



### 2.7 Theories



This study is based on two theories: the theory of planned behaviour and the theory of change.

### **2.7.1 The Theory of Planned Behaviour by Icek Ajzen**

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was proposed by Ajzen in 1991 and has been used by researchers over the past twenty years and shown to be able to predict a variety of intentions and behaviours (Timothy Teo & Chwee Beng Lee 2010). It is designed to provide prudent explanations of informational and motivational influences on behaviour, and can be considered as deliberative processing models, as it implies that individuals make behavioural decisions based on careful consideration of available information (Ajzen 1991). Accordingly, a person's action is determined by behavioural intentions, which in turn are influenced by an attitude towards the behaviour and subjective norms. In addition to attitude towards the behaviour and the subjective norm in the theory of planned behaviour, perceived behavioural control can influence intention as well. Perceived behavioural control influences the individual's decision through behavioural intention.

Perceived behaviour controls are influenced by beliefs concerning whether one has access to the necessary resources and opportunities to perform the behaviour successfully, weighted by the perceived power of each factor to facilitate or inhibit behaviour (Ajzen, 1988). Control beliefs are the perception of factors likely to facilitate or inhibit the performance of the behaviour and are either internal or external. Internal factors include information, personal deficiencies, skills, abilities and emotions, while external factors include opportunities, dependence on others, and barriers. These control factors are crucial to the market approach.

### **2.7.2 Theory of Change**

Theory of change was popularised by Carol Weiss. She noted that there are difficulties in evaluating complex programmes and attributed these difficulties to poor articulation of the assumptions that inspired the programmes. She suggested that stakeholders of complex initiatives should have clarity of how the change process will unfold and have deep attention to the early and mid-term changes that need to happen in order for a longer term goal to be reached. So she defines the theory of change as the way to describe the set of assumptions that explain both the mini-steps that lead to the long term goal and the connections between policy or programme activities and outcomes that occur at each step of the way (Carol Weiss 1995).

A theory of change is a predictive assumption about the relationship between desired changes and the actions that may produce those changes (Turner, 1982). Desired change can only be attained and evaluated if the planners specify the reason and pay deep attention to the early and midterm expected changes (Connell & Kubisch, 1998). In doing so, assumptions that do not support the program and may deter or slow the assumed outcome will be exposed and dealt with.

The government's introduction entrepreneurship training in TIVET institutions is to make a change in the society by creating enterprise culture. Clear articulation of the change was necessary at the early and midterm level, hence defining with clarity how the training is expected to change the society. The syllabus is, in our case, the assumed programme that would bring the change. Its formation required deep attention and the process of implementing it be looked into deeply to shed out unnecessary involvement and add missing details.

## CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the research design, area of study, sampling techniques, research instruments, validity, data collection methods, and how the data was analysed.

### **3.1 Research Design**

This study sought to establish whether the graduates of TIVET institutes utilise their entrepreneurship skills. It was designed to answer three basic questions: 1) Do the graduates establish businesses or engage in business activities using the knowledge and skills they acquire from the TIVET institutions. 2) Do they bring in new innovation to the market through the work process and production as they meet the societal needs? 3) Do the graduates feel that the entrepreneurship training they received was adequate and gave them the necessary skills they needed.

Although the literature review provided insight on the development of the enterprise culture in Kenya, particularly the development of TIVET institutions to support this noble venture, the emphasis is laid on development of technical skills, and little has been put into looking into the application of entrepreneurship skills by the graduates. This study endeavoured, beyond the starting of business by the graduates, to establish, as noted in the literature review, whether they are in business as a fall back after they could not secure paid employment, or they are in business as a result of the drive created by the entrepreneurship training they acquired in college.

This study utilised descriptive survey design. As Parten (1950) explains it is a method with social scientific nature and it's suitable for research dealing with facts, opinion and attitudes. The

researcher organised interviews with the first set of respondents who are trained by TIVET institutions and are either in self-employment or paid and employment, and those trained through on job training and are in similar self-employment. The respondents later nominated the next set, and this continued. The interview was inform of written structured questions that the respondent was expected to answer. There were carefully set sections for all the above mentioned categories.

### **3.2 Area of study**

This study interviewed artisans operating from Ruiru Town in Kiambu County. The unique position of the town is that it has those who reside in the town, hence representing urbanised people, and those who commute daily from rural areas. The town is located along the Thika Super High. It is 30km from the Kenya's capital city, Nairobi and 15km from Thika. Besides being a dormitory town whose residences are commute to and from Nairobi daily, there are many people who commute daily from the neighbouring rural areas.

However, the study did not endeavour to categorise the respondents as having come from the rural or urban.

### **3.3 Study population**

The study population was selected on the basis of being an artisan from Ruiru town who have formally been trained by the TIVET institution, hence getting formal entrepreneurship training, or have been trained informally through the process referred to as on-job training. It did not target particularised TIVET institutions. The term artisan here is not used in the context of craftsman but in the context of one skilled in certain trade.

The study reached a total of 50 respondents who were both men and women as follows: men 34 or 68% and women 16 or 32%. They were drawn from various technical and trade training backgrounds that are offered by various TIVET institutions in Kenya.

Among the 37 trained by TIVET institutions 17 were in paid employment and 20 were in self-employment. However, all those who went through on-job training were in self-employment.

### **3.4 Sampling Techniques**

This study purposed to reach those who had trade skills offered by the TIVET institutions, whether in self-employment or paid employment. As noted earlier, the acquiring of trade skill was considered for both formal and informal training. To reach this population the researcher needed to identify those with trade skills, and due to lack of formal record of such workforce, the researcher opted to result to snowball technique where the identified respondents recruited the next respondents. Katz (2006) describes snowball sampling technique as a special non-probability method for developing a research sample where existing study subjects recruit future subjects from among their acquaintances. Henning (2004) identified snowball sampling as unique in that the participants are selected at the time they are needed. De Vos et al (2002) further noted that the snowball sampling is valuable in social research since it is directed at the individuals who are difficult to reach through random sampling techniques. Burn and Grove (2003) clarifies that this technique enables the researcher to select specified subjects who will provide the most extensive information about the phenomenon being studied.

The researcher reached the first group by visiting them at their places of work. After agreeing on interview dates with each one of them, they were asked to nominate the next group. The easiest

method to reach them to agree of interview date was through phone calls. This was repeated until the required sample size was attained.

### **3.5 Study Instruments**

Richard, 2009 writes that qualitative methods provide a depth of understanding of issues that is not possible through the use of quantitative, statistically-based investigations, and that quantitative research requires one either simply study the counts of events/people/things or that numeric labels be created for meaningful events, experiences and actions. To attain this, the study required an instrument that will allow systematic way of collecting data. This study utilised structured interview schedule. Corbetta (2003) writes that structured interviews are interviews in which all respondents are asked the same questions with the same wording and in the same sequence.

In selecting interview schedule as suitable research instrument for the study, the researcher, through the guidance of the literature review, considered that the participants' level of education varied. The interview questions were therefore designed to be administered as face-to-face interview.

The interview questions were set in parts that will cater for: 1) those who formally trained in TIVET institutions and completed the training as was scheduled, 2) those who trained in TIVET institutions but dropped out before completion of the course work for one reason or the other, 3) those who trained by the process of on-job, 4) those whose employment type is paid employment, and 5) those whose employment type is self-employment. In the interview schedule, the researcher asked open-ended and closed questions to attain in-depth of the phenomenon under study.

### **3.6 Data collecting method**

Interview technique is the suitable study methods of collecting data in studies involving a limited number of samples (Bogdan&Bildn, 1992). The interview was conducted to those with specific trade skills that are offered by TIVET institutions, who have completed the TIVET training and are in the job market, and those who are trained through the informal training, hereby referred to as on-the-job training. Both male and female were interviewed, though the purpose of the study was not to analyses gender inequality in training. The interview was face to face and the interviewer filled in the structured interview schedule. A total of fifty artisans were reached and their technical training varied in specialisation and qualifications.

The data from the interviews were statistically analysed using the SPSS version 19 program and the findings were interpreted in simple descriptive statics.

#### **Validity and reliability**

Polit and Beck (2006) describe validity as the extent of accuracy of an instrument to measure the construct it is supposed to measure in the context of the concepts/variables being studied.

After the structured interview schedule was developed, the researcher sought expert opinion from TIVET curriculum developer in KIE and entrepreneurship teachers of TIVET institutions. This was meant to ascertain its validity.

The researcher carried out a pre-test interview. This helped in adjusting the interview questions, remove vagueness and remove unwanted questions. The pre-test was also used to ascertain consistency of the interview schedule. The data collected during the pre-test did not form part of this study.

### **3.7 Data analysis**

The data was coded and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version V19.0 software computer program. Descriptive and inferential statistics, such as frequency tables, percentages and graphs were used in the data presentation and analysis.



## CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

### **4.1.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the data analysis and findings from interview questions, and it is organised according to the following themes derived from the study objectives: 1) utilisation of the acquired entrepreneurship skills to establish business, 2) innovation, and 3) the graduates' attitudes towards the adequacy of the entrepreneurship training. The interview schedule, which is at appendix of this report, was set following the literature review.

#### **4.1.0 Utilisation of the acquired entrepreneurship skills to establish business**

One of the objectives of this study was to establish whether the graduates use their skills to establish business. In an attempt to answer this question, the study went further and tried to establish the motivating factor to start business. This mainly focused on what is captured in the literature review that many graduates in Kenya join business due to push factors, as opposed to pull factors. Therefore, they try business after they fail to get paid jobs. Besides, the study endeavoured to find whether those who studied entrepreneurship but are in paid employment use the entrepreneurship skills at their places of work.

#### **4.1.1 Biographic data**

In personal data, the researcher sought the respondents' gender, age and marital status. However, this was not captured in the purpose of the study, but was meant to describe the demographic variables of the respondent. The entire respondent answered this section.

Table 4.1: respondents' age, gender and marital status

age	Single		Married		Divorced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
18-24	4	1	0	0	0	0
25-34	6	7	8	3	0	1
35-44	0	1	14	3	0	0
45-54	0	0	1	0	0	0
55-64	0	0	1	0	0	0

Majority of the respondent were in the age bracket of 25 to 34 years making 50% of the total respondents.

#### 4.1.2 Gender and business venture

Since the purpose of this study was not to analyse the gender disparity that exist in entrepreneurship training among the TIVET institutions, there was no deliberate move made to equate the number of male and female.

Table 4.2: Gender and business venture

Gender		Self-employment(Business)	Paid employment	Total
Male		9	25	34
	% of Total	18.0%	50.0%	68.0%
Female		8	8	16
	% of Total	16.0%	16.0%	32.0%
Total		17	33	50

As shown by the Table 4.2, 18% of the respondents were men in paid employment and 50% had ventured into business, as compared to women who were 16% in business venture and 16% in paid employment.

### 4.1.3 Age and business venture

This study compared the ages as set in the questionnaire and their engagement; whether in paid employment or business venture, also referred by the study as self-employment.

Table 4.3: age and business venture

Age	Paid employment	Self-employment(Business)	Total
<b>18-24</b>	<i>3</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>5</i>
	<i>6.0%</i>	<i>4.0%</i>	<i>10.0%</i>
<b>25-34</b>	<i>11</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>25</i>
	<i>22.0%</i>	<i>28.0%</i>	<i>50.0%</i>
<b>35-44</b>	<i>3</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>18</i>
	<i>6.0%</i>	<i>30.0%</i>	<i>36.0%</i>
<b>45-54</b>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>
	<i>.0%</i>	<i>2.0%</i>	<i>2.0%</i>
<b>55-64</b>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1</i>
	<i>.0%</i>	<i>2.0%</i>	<i>2.0%</i>
<b>Total</b>	<i>17</i>	<i>33</i>	<i>50</i>
	<i>34.0%</i>	<i>66.0%</i>	<i>100.0%</i>

The Table 4.3 shows that the respondents' most active age in business venture is in the age bracket of 25 to 34. This is followed by those in the ages of 35 to 44 years. Notably, the age of 25 to 34 is the most active age even in the paid employment sector.

### 4.1.4 Marital status and business venture

This study interviewed those who are married, singles and divorced. The majority of the respondents, making a total of 60% were married, 38% were single and 2% were divorced.

Figure 4.4: Marital status and business venture

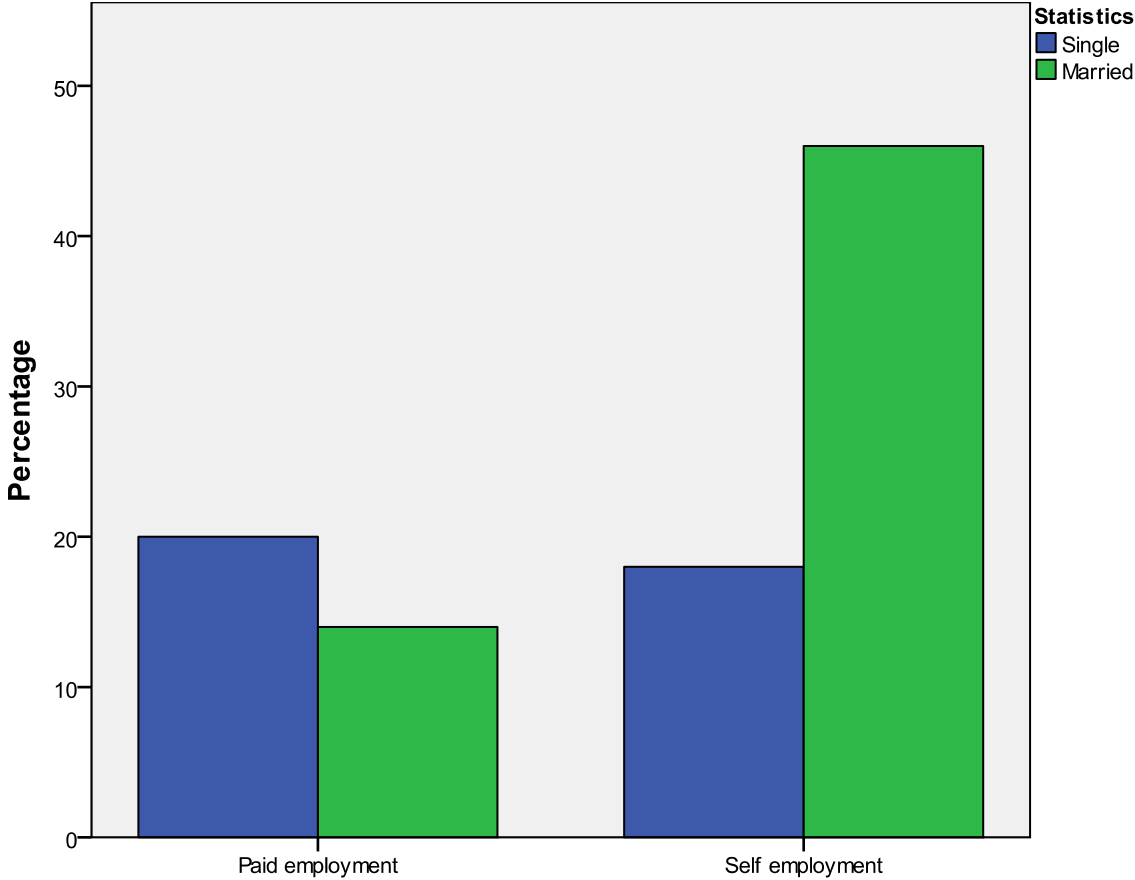


Figure 4.4 has two sections, the marital status for those in paid employment on the left side and marital status for those in self-employment on the right side. In paid employment, the respondents who were single at the time of interview were 20% and married were 18%. The situation was different for those respondents who were in the self-employed. Only 14 % of the respondents who were single were in the self-employment, as compared to 49 % who were married at the time this study carried out the interviews.

#### 4.1.5 Training and business venture

This research admitted from the beginning that for artisans to carry on with their duties there must be a form of training. For this reason, two forms of training were considered: One, the formal or college training that is offered by the TIVET institutions. Two, is where one does not attend college training but trains through practicing and we refer to this as on-job training. However, the major purpose of this study was not to analyse the forms of training.

To differentiate those who attained formal training through college and those who trained on-job, the respondents were asked to disclose if they attended college to train for the work they were doing.

Table 4.5: Mode of training

Training type	Number	Percentage
<b>TIVET training</b>	<i>37</i>	<i>74.0</i>
<b>On-job training</b>	<i>13</i>	<i>26.0</i>
<b>Total</b>	<i>50</i>	<i>100.0</i>

According to Table 4.5 the majority of the interviewees had had been trained formally through the TIVET college, while 26% of the interviewees were trained through on-job process.

#### 4.1.6 Completing college

This study further endeavoured to find out whether after attending college one completed the study and attained the necessary qualifications as set by various colleges. This is indicated in the Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Respondents completion of college

		Percent
Completed college	<b>33</b>	<b>89.2</b>
Did not complete college	<b>4</b>	<b>10.8</b>
Total	<b>37</b>	<b>100.0</b>

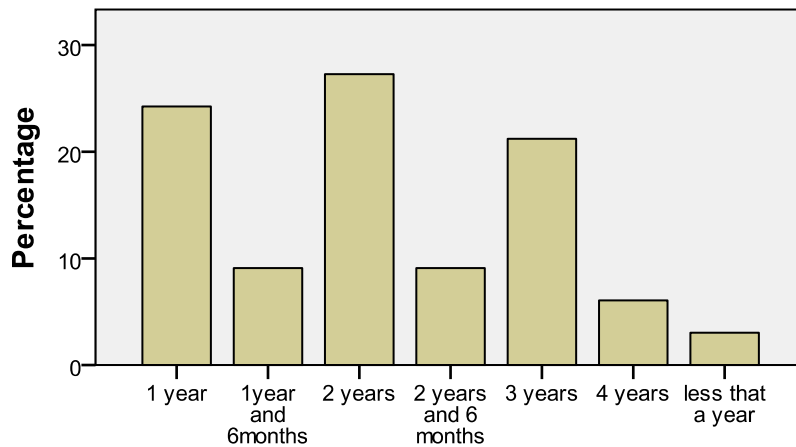
As the chart 4.6 shows, 89.2% of the respondents who enrolled in TIVET institutions completed the training, while 10.8% did not complete.

#### 4.1.7 Duration of training in TIVET colleges

The researcher asked the interviewees to indicate the time they took to complete their study. This was mainly for those who went through the formal training in TIVET institutions.

The duration differed depending on the training one was undergoing and the qualification one was pursuing. Seemingly, there is no uniformity in time frame and various institutions set different time frames.

Figure 4.7 Duration taken to train in TIVET institutions



#### 4.1.8 Qualification of training and business venture

Table 4.8: Qualification and business venture

Qualification	Paid employment	Self-employment	Total
Certificate	9	9	18
Diploma	6	8	14
Degree	0	1	1
Total	15	18	33

As shown by 4.8, there is no indication that qualification influences the choice of either business (self-employment) or paid employment. Besides, this was not one of the purposes of this study.

#### 4.1.9 Levels of education and business venture

Here the study endeavoured to find the levels of the respondents' education going through training in TIVET institutions. This ranged from KCPE level to the KCSE.

Table 4.9: levels of education before training

		Percent
A level	1	2.7
KCPE (class 8)	4	10.8
Secondary but no KCSE	6	16.2
KCSE (Form 4)	26	70.3
Total	37	100.0

Table 4.9 shows the respondents' levels of education before joining TIVET institutions for formal training. Majority of the respondents, 70.3% had KCSE certificates before joining college.

Table 4.10: Levels of education and business venture

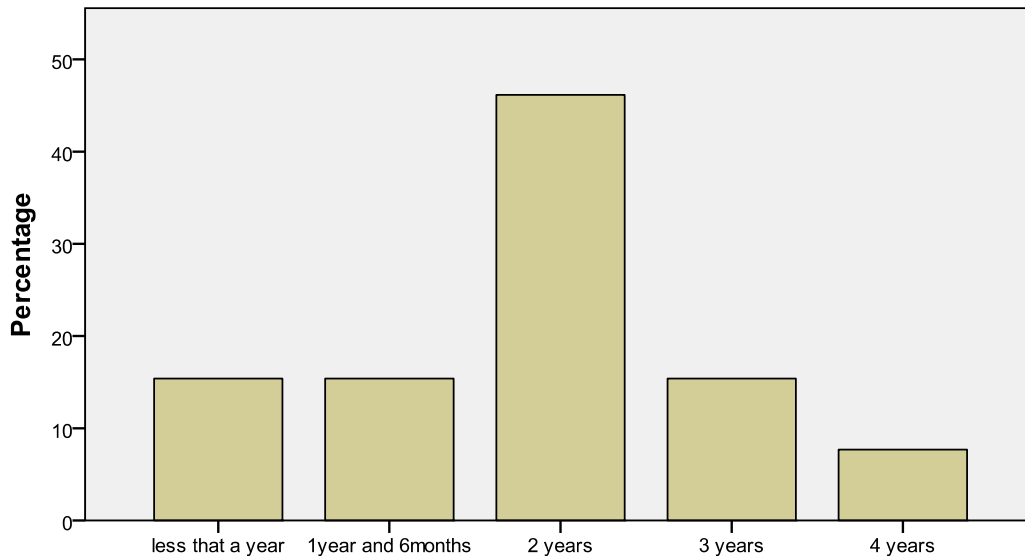
	Paid employment	Self-employment	Total
KCPE (class 8)	3	1	4
Secondary but no KCSE	2	4	6
KCSE (Form 4)	11	15	26
A level	0	1	1
Total	16	21	37

The study crosses tabulate the education levels and the employment type. According to the Table 4.9, majority of those in business completed form four.

#### 4.1.10 Duration of the on-job training

The informal training also known as on-job training does not have assigned time frame for completing. However, the respondent were asked the time they took to train to a point they felt they were confident to handle the work they were doing.

Figure 4.11: duration of on-job training





The majority took two and three years to train. This is similar to the time taken by those who attended formal training as shown by

#### 4.1.11 Business venture and paid employment

This set of questions were meant to get information as to whether the graduates of TIVET use their entrepreneurship skills to venture into business and how well they use the entrepreneurship skills to manage their business. Besides, the researcher intended to find how those who have opted to be in paid employment utilise the entrepreneurship skills.

Table 4.12: Employment type and training

Employment type		Trained by TIVET	On-job Training	Total
<b>Paid employment</b>		<b>16</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>17</b>
	% within the paid employment	<b>94.1%</b>	<b>5.9%</b>	<b>100.0%</b>
	% of Total	<b>32.0%</b>	<b>2.0%</b>	<b>34.0%</b>
<b>Self-employment (business)</b>		<b>21</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>33</b>
	% within the self- employment	<b>63.6%</b>	<b>36.4%</b>	<b>100.0%</b>
	% of Total	<b>42.0%</b>	<b>24.0%</b>	<b>66.0%</b>
<b>Total</b>		<b>37</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>50</b>

The Table 4.12 above shows that the majority of the respondents were in self-employment and from those who have started business, 63.6% went through the TIVET training.

#### 4.1.12 Length of time in paid employment

This section required the respondents to disclose the total length of time they have been in paid employment and the time they have been in the current employment.

Table 4.13 period of time in paid employment

Years		Percent
1-5	12	70.6
6-10	1	5.9
11-15	2	11.8
16-20	1	5.9
Total	17	100.0

The graphs show that most of the respondents have worked for a period of 1 to 5 years, and there is minimal change of job.

#### 4.1.13 Main duties

The respondents who were in the paid employment were asked to indicate their main duties at the place of work. This was compared with the whether they studied entrepreneurship or not.

Table 4.14 main duties

Main duty	<i>Trained entrepreneurship</i>	<i>Did not train entrepreneurship</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Production</i>	1	2	3
<i>Sales</i>	1	0	1
<i>Supervision</i>	6	0	6
<i>Service</i>	4	1	5
<i>Total</i>	12	3	15

As shown by Table 4.13, most of those who trained entrepreneurship were given supervision which is part of management, one of the components of entrepreneurship training.

The research interview also included a list of other duties that would be included in the main duties.

Figure 4.15: What the duties include

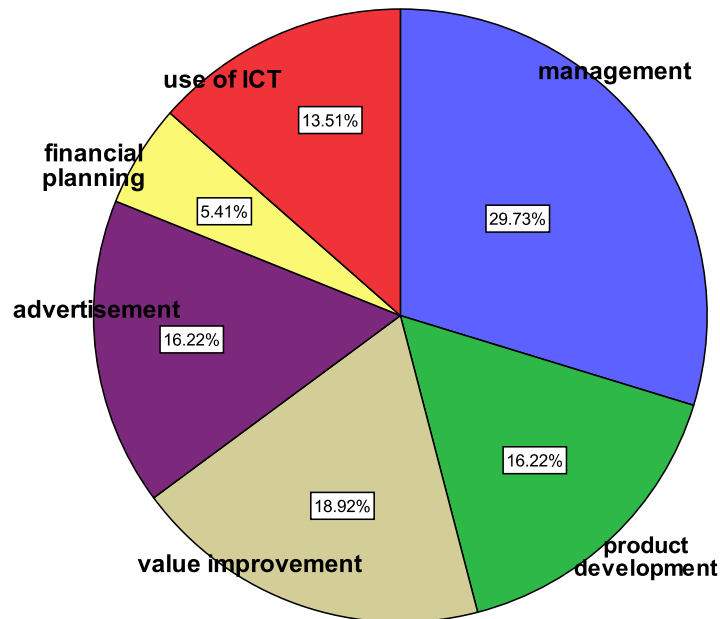


Figure 4.15 shows that 29.7% have taken management responsibilities in their places of work, 18.9% do value improvement, while 16.2% advertise, which is an equal number with those who are involved in product development.

Only 5.41% carry out some financial management, possibly because business owners would like to handle finance rather than entrust on employees.

This study found the use of ICT being very low at 13.5%. This was mainly in hospitality industry. This means that there are those in management or have management duties and have limited knowledge or use of Information Computer Technology.

#### 4.1.14 Reasons for taking paid employment

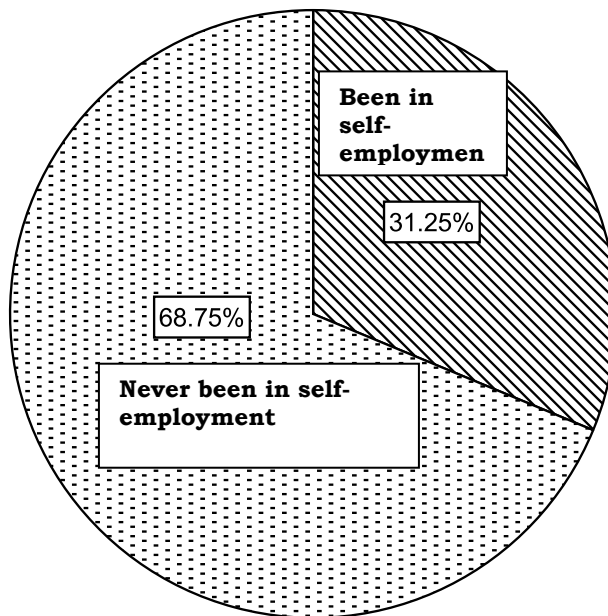
The respondents in paid employment were asked why they decided to be in paid employment instead of self-employment. This was a multiple response question.

Table 4.16 reasons for taking paid employment

	N	Percent
Lack of initial capital	13	76.5%
Job is less stressful	2	11.8%
Lack of enough skills	2	11.8%
Total	17	100.0%

Table 4.16 reveals that 76.5% of the respondent joined paid employment because they lacked the initial capital to start business along the field they trained. Only 11.8% admitted that they joined paid employment because it is less stressful. And as shown by the figure 4.17 below, 68.75% of the respondents have never been in self-employment before joining paid employment.

Figure 4.17: previous engagement with self-employment



The researcher needed to know what hinders those in paid employment from getting to start their own businesses, especially when we note that all of them said they look forward to starting a business.

Again this was a multiple response question since this study acknowledged the fact that one can have more than one reason for not starting a business.

Table 4.18: hindrances to starting a business

<b>Hindrance</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Lack of capital	13	31.7%
fear of failure	10	24.4%
unsure of business to start	9	22.0%
lack of management skills	4	9.8%
unable to identify business location	5	12.2%

Table 4.18 identifies lack of capital as the major hindrance to starting as business for those in paid employment. However, 24% of them admitted that they fear their business would not succeed. Together with this, there are those who were unsure of the business to start.

#### **4.1.15 Business type for those in self-employment**

The researcher sought to know the business type undertaken by those in self-employment (business).

Table 4.19: type of business

Business type	Frequency	Percent
Service rendering	14	42.4
sale of goods	5	15.2
Both sale and service	14	42.4
Total	33	100.0

Most popular business is service rendering at 42.4% and both service and sale of goods equally at 42.4%. This study did not endeavour to find out why service rendering is popular.

Together with this the researcher sought to know the duration one has been in business. The researcher cross tabulated the type of business with the number of years the business has operated.

Table 4.20: number of years the business operated

Business Type	No. of years in business					Total
	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Over 20	
Service rendering	3	4	5	1	1	14
	9.1%	12.1%	15.2%	3.0%	3.0%	42.4%
sale of goods	5	0	0	0	0	5
	15.2%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	15.2%
Both sale and service	6	4	2	1	1	14
	18.2%	12.1%	6.1%	3.0%	3.0%	42.4%
Total	14	8	7	2	2	33
	42.4%	24.2%	21.2%	6.1%	6.1%	100.0%

Most of the businesses reached by this study are relatively new having been in operation for a period ranging from 1 to 5 years. It is a reflection of what is shown by graph 4.1 where their ages range between 25 years to 34 years.

#### 4.1.16 Reasons for engaging business

The study endeavoured to find out why the respondents decided to engage in business activities. In the literature review, we identified factors that influence one to business as push and pull. push factors were explained to happen when one is unsatisfied with the current situation hence want to try a hand in business, and pull factors is when one is motivated by factors like need to achieve and locus of control.

This was an open ended question where the respondent was expected to freely explain.

Table 4.21: reasons for engaging in business

Type of business		Lack of employment	Being independent	Love of profession	Total
Service rendering		<b>5</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>14</b>
	%	<b>15.2%</b>	<b>27.3%</b>	<b>.0%</b>	<b>42.4%</b>
sale of goods		<b>4</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>5</b>
	%	<b>12.1%</b>	<b>3.0%</b>	<b>.0%</b>	<b>15.2%</b>
Both sale and service		<b>5</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>14</b>
	%	<b>15.2%</b>	<b>24.2%</b>	<b>3.0%</b>	<b>42.4%</b>
Total		<b>14</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>33</b>
	%	<b>42.4%</b>	<b>54.5%</b>	<b>3.0%</b>	<b>100.0%</b>

From the Table 4.21, it is clear a 54.5% joined business because they wanted to be independent. However, there is 42.4% of the respondents who joined business because they could not find paid employment.

Table 4.22: reasons for starting business for TIVET graduates

	Lack of employment	Being independent	Love of profession	Total
Trained entrepreneurship	4	7	1	12
Did not train entrepreneurship	7	2	0	9
Total	11	9	1	21

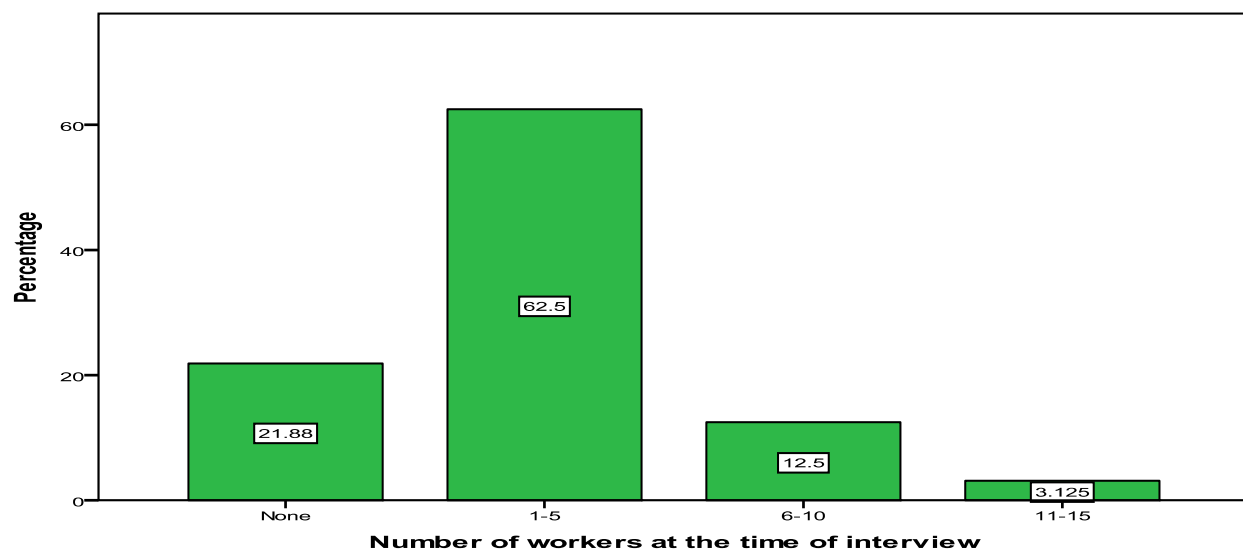
The situation does not change much when we compare those who studied entrepreneurship and those who did not study entrepreneurship.

This confirms what Scott and Ahmed, 1997 noted that there are many artisans join self-employment only after they fail to secure a paid employment, hence raising the questions on whether entrepreneurship training really instils the necessary skills and attitude to the trainees.

#### 4.1.17 Number of employees

The number of employees was crucial to establish how the business has grown. Noted above is that most businesses had operated for a period not exceeding five years.

Figure 4.23: number of employees





According to the graph 4.23, 21.88% of the businesses are operated by the owner alone and 62.5% of the businesses have employed not more than 5 people.

The low number of employees could have been because most of the businesses are relatively new having operated for not more than five years, a fact we also noted could be influenced by the age factor.

Table 4.24 shows the relationship between number of workers employed and whether one joined TIVET institution or trained through on-job training.

Table 4.24: number of workers and the mode of training

	None	1-5	6-10	11-15	Total
Trained by	5	13	2	1	21
TIVET	23.8%	61.9%	9.5%	4.8%	100.0%
Trained through	2	7	2	0	11
on-job	18.2%	63.6%	18.2%	.0%	100.0%
Total	7	20	4	1	32
	21.9%	62.5%	12.5%	3.1%	100.0%

In cross comparison between those who attended college and those who did not, it appears that there is no clear indication that going to college influences the number of employees.

#### **4.1.18 Business records**

The respondents were asked to identify the business records they keep. This was meant identify business management skills.

Table 4.25: business records

	N	Percent
No business records	6	6.5%
Work schedule	6	6.5%
Record of employees	5	5.4%
Receipt Book	24	25.8%
Sale records	22	23.7%
Purchase record	23	24.7%
Customer register	7	7.5%

Most respondents who are in the self-employment keep simple records of purchase and sales. Record of employees is among the least kept and although a high number of self-employed is in service rendering, work schedule is among the least kept records. The Table shows 6.5% of the respondents do not keep any records.

Table 4.26: Business records and training mode

	Trained by TIVET	On-job training	Total
No business records	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6</b>
Work schedule	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6</b>
Record of employees	<b>5</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>5</b>
Receipt Book	<b>17</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>24</b>
Sale records	<b>15</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>22</b>
Purchase record	<b>17</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>23</b>
Customer register	<b>6</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>7</b>
Total	<b>21</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>32</b>

As shown by the Table 4.26, receipt book, sales records and purchases records are common for those who trained in TIVET institutions and those who went through on-job training.

#### **4.1.19 Calculating profit**

This study sought to know how often those in business calculate profit.

Table 4.27: frequency of calculating profit

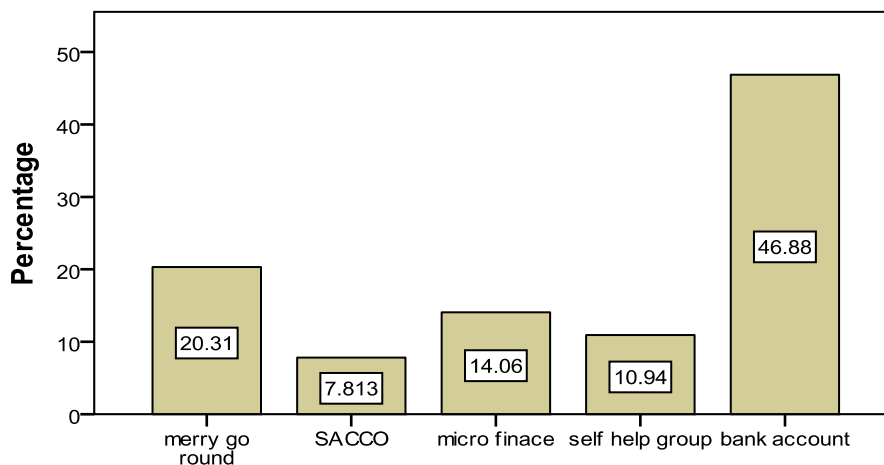
	N	Percent
Daily	10	30.3
monthly	12	36.4
Annually	6	18.2
Quarterly	2	6.1
On job completion	3	9.1
Total	33	100.0

As Table 4.27 shows 30.3% of the respondents prefer to calculate profit on daily bases and annual bases, while the majority at 36.4% do it on monthly basses. The reason for such a short period of time in calculating profit could be because of the size of businesses.

#### 4.1.20 Financial Management

The respondents were also required to disclose how they manage their finances. They were asked to give the organization type that they use in their management of finances in their businesses.

Figure 4.28: financial management

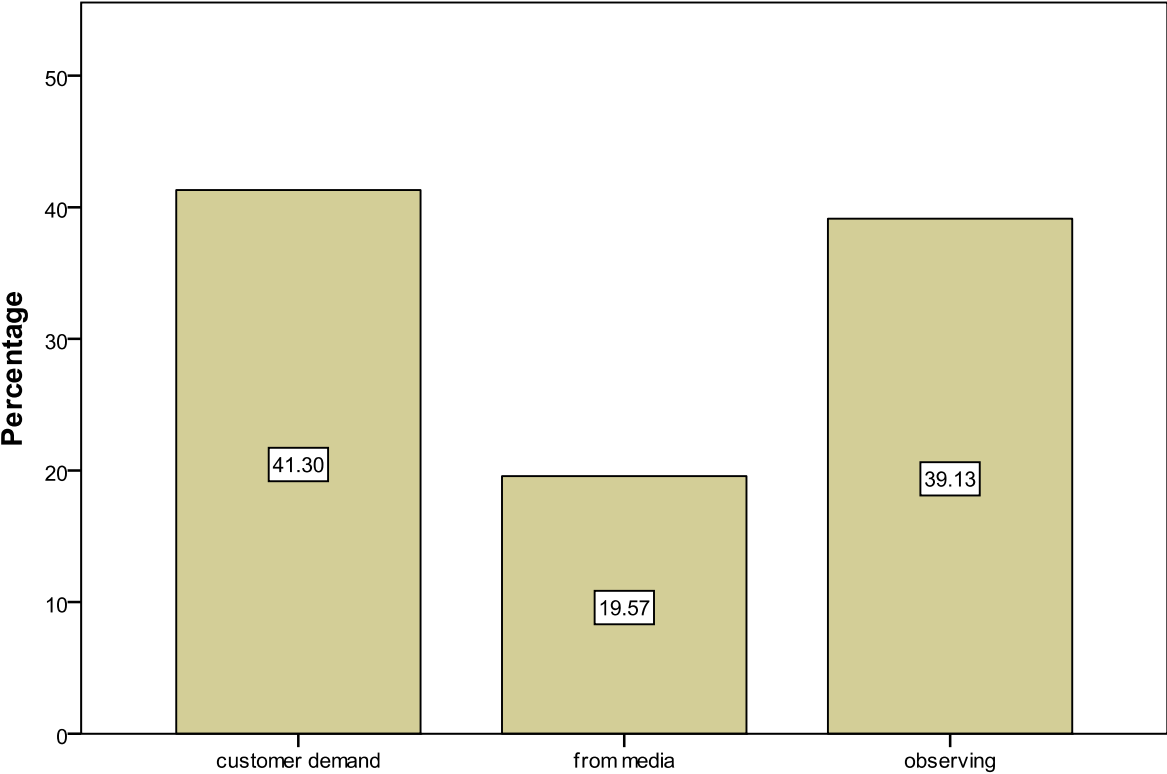


While bank account is the most popular, merry-go-round and self-help groups are also take a big position of ways of saving and planning finances.

**4.1.21 Changes in the market**

The researcher sought to know how those in business know the market changes. This was an open ended question and three main ways were notable.

Figure4.29 :understanding market change



Most of the businesses will understand the market changes depending on what the customers demand. This is followed 39.13% that said they understand the changes in the market by observing. Only 19.57% use the media to understand the market change

#### 4.1.22 Challenges

The respondents were asked the challenges they face in their businesses. This too was an open ended question.

Table 4.30: challenges faced by business owners

	N	Percent
Changing technology	8	11.9%
Lack of guarantee	5	7.5%
customer thinking the business make huge profits	14	20.9%
Market competition	20	29.9%
Demand for cheap product	10	14.9%
thinking high cost means high quality	10	14.9%

The biggest challenge faced by the business is market competition. However, other challenges include customers demanding cheap product. The word cheap means low cost but not necessarily poor quality. Besides, some customers do think that businesses make huge profit, hence demand the cost of commodities to be brought down. This equally happens where the business is for service rendering. The customer imagines that cost of the service rendered include a huge profit margin. Other challenges include changing technology, especially for those dealing with machines and computers.

However, this study did not endeavour to find out how they deal with challenges faced.

## 4.2 Innovation

As earlier stated, this study intended to find out if the TIVET graduate brings innovation to the market as they meet the social need.

Innovation took the Schumpeterian idea which looks at innovation as is the introduction of a new idea or doing something that has been done in the past but in a new way (Humphrey and Schmitz, 2002).

### 4.2.1 Process and product innovation

Together with looking at innovation from the Schumpeterian way, the researcher intended to find whether there is process, product, incremental or radical innovation. The interviewees were asked whether they have ever brought any new ways of doing things, brought any new product, modified an existing product or repackaged for better sale.

Figure4.31: Innovation

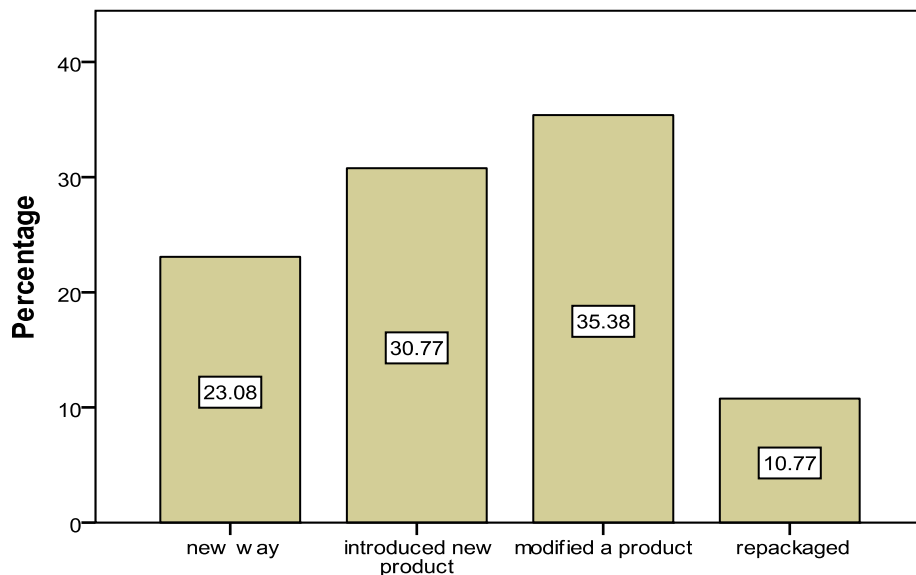


Figure 4.32 represents how the interviewees responded to this set of questions. It is noteworthy that this study did not come across notable product innovation, as well as radical innovation. New ways of doing business was mostly notable paid employment where, for example, those in hospitality industry have come up with arrangement of offering services to patrons. New products that the study came across were goods brought from other markets but not inform of the described product innovation that is captured in the literature review. Modification as well was more to the design, and adding aesthetic value as opposed making a product user friendly, and was common in dress making and design as well as upholstery business.

#### 4.2.2 Innovation and mode of training

This study compared the mode of training and the innovation. The figure below shows the results.

Table 4.32 Innovation and mode of training

	Trained by TIVET	Trained through on-job	Total
new way	15	0	15
introduced new product	14	6	20
modified a product	17	6	23
repackaged	7	0	7
Total	23	8	31

The Table 4.32 shows that the attempt to bring some innovation to the market is higher for those who were trained by the TIVET institution than those who trained through on-job training.

### 4.2.3 Venturing into new market

The researcher wanted to find out if the graduates innovatively venture into new markets in an attempt to satisfy the society. The market was looked at as geographical location, age groups, gender and professionals.

Table 4.33: Venturing into new market

	N	Percent
geographical location	18	40.9%
age group	9	20.5%
gender	7	15.9%
professionals	10	22.7%

Most interviewees look at new market as geographical location only. As shown by the Table 4:34 only a few have made effort to venture into other forms of market

## 4.3 Attitude towards the entrepreneurship training

The purpose of this section was to find out the respondent's attitude towards the entrepreneurship course offered by the TIVET institutions. The study further aimed at understanding what the graduates of TIVET institution thought should be improved on the course work and delivery so that those who are graduating can utilise it further.

### 4.3.1 The adequacy of entrepreneurship training

The interviewees were asked whether they think that the entrepreneurship training they went through was adequate to help them start and run a business.



Table 4.34 adequacy of the training

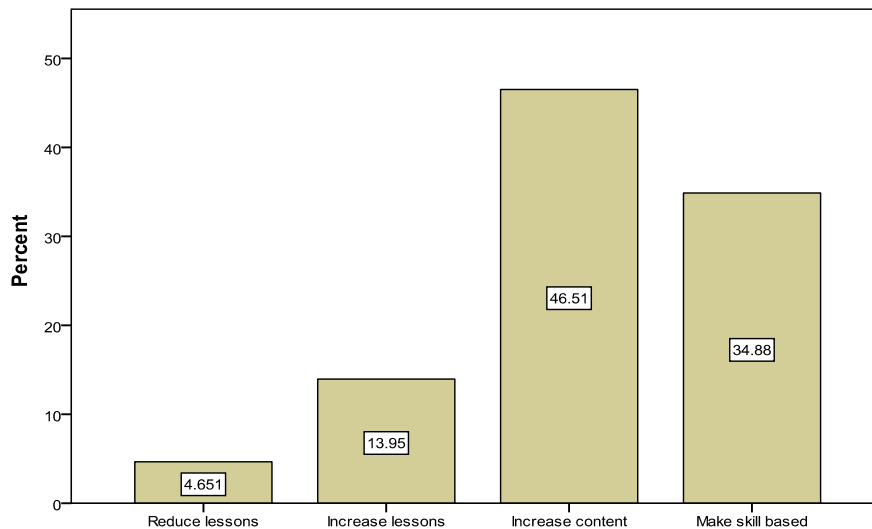
		Percent
The course was adequate	17	70.8
The course was not adequate	7	29.2
Total	24	100.0

Majority of the interviewee; that is 70.8 percentages, thought that the training was enough to help one start a business, and 34.7% think that the training is not adequate.

### 4.3.2 Improving the entrepreneurship training

The respondents were asked to explain the areas they think should be worked on to improve the entrepreneurship training in TIVET institutions so as to make the training more relevant to the job market the graduates are expect to face after the training.

Figure 4.35: improving the training



The majority of the respondents, at 46.51% felt that the content of the training was not enough, hence should be increased to provide enough skills that could be used in the job market; 34% of the respondent thought that the entrepreneurship training offered in TIVET institutions is more theoretical and the practical aspect should be added to prepare the graduates to face the job market with confidence.

## CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### **5.0 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the study that was conducted. Included in this chapter are the summary of the study results, conclusions, recommendations for further research and possible studies concluding this chapter.

### **5.1 Summary**

The research questions that guided this study were: (1) Do the graduates establish businesses or engage in business activities using the knowledge and skills they acquire from the TIVET institutions? (2) Do the graduates bring in new innovation to the market through the work process and production as they meet the societal needs? (3) Do the graduates feel that the entrepreneurship training they received was adequate and gave them the necessary skills they needed

### **5.2 Research Methodology**

This study was in form of interview where respondent were identified, informed and interview schedule put in place. The study undertook descriptive method with the aim of describing how the graduates of TIVET utilise the entrepreneurship skills they get from the institutions. Interview schedule, which included the venue, time and date that the interview was set to take place, was organised with the agreement of the respondent. The respondents were approach in good time and explained the purpose and expected outcome of the interview.

The respondents were those who were in the job market and were in paid employment or self-employment. They were also those who were trained in particular artisan either through formally in colleges or informally through on-job training.

The interview responses were later analysed using the SPSS and descriptive data in form of tables and graphs obtained. In some analysis cross tabulation was obtained to provide a deeper description of the trends.

### **5.3 Results**

#### **5.3.1 Personal Data**

A total of 50 respondents were reached by the study, of whom the majority were male (68%). From the findings it was noted that most of the interviewee fell in the age bracket of 25 to 34 who made 50% of the respondents. However, married people were within the age of 35 to 44. Together with this, more men had been engaged in business venture (50% of the respondent) than women. On the age and business venture, it was noted that the ages of 25 to 34 were more active in business as compared to other ages.

From this study it was observed that there were more married people in the business as compared to the unmarried. This study did not attempt to answer the question why there were more singles in the paid employment.

Of the 37 respondent who had joined training colleges 89.2% had completed their training, majority of whom took two years to graduate. Majority of them were awarded certificates. It was noted that there was no indication showing that qualification influenced the starting and running of business. However, it was noted that the majority of the respondents in business had

completed the fourth form. The study equally noted that those who went through the on job training, the majority had taken two years before they could feel qualified to do their business.

### **5.3.2 Use of entrepreneurship skills to start and run business**

From the figure 4.12 the study found that the majority (42%) of the respondent who had received formal training through the TIVET institutions were in self-employment and those who were in paid employment the majority had worked for not more than five years. Together with this, the study found out that (figure 4.14) majority of those who held leadership duties had studied entrepreneurship. Figure 4.15 show that 29.73% of the graduates who were in paid employment were assigned work that involved managerial duties 16.22% on product development. However, ICT had only 13.5 % which poses the question as to how much ICT training is integrated with entrepreneurship.

As to why the respondent decided to be in paid employment instead of self-employment, 76.5% said it is because they could not get capital to start business. For the hindrance to starting a business, the study found that 31.7% identified lack of capital, 24.4% fear of failure, and 22% unsure of the business to start.

This study was able to reach three types of businesses: One 42.4% in service rendering, two 15.2% sale of goods, and 42.4% in both service rendering and sale of goods. Moreover, 42.4% of the businesses have been in operation for period of not more than 5 years and 24.2% have operated for more than 5 years but not more than 10 years.

This study found out that although 54.5% of the respondent engaged in business venture because they felt they should be independent 42,4% went to business venture because they could not secure paid employment.

The study noted that most the businesses were relatively small with 62.5 % employing not more than five employees. As indicated by figure 4.25, there was no indication that going to college influenced the number of employees.

The purpose of business record was to find out how the respondents manage business. This study found out that here is 6.5% of the respondents do not keep business records. The commonest records kept include receipt, sales and purchases records. Record keeping is better where the respondent were trained by TIVET as compared to on job training.

Majority of the respondent 36.4% prefer to calculate profit on monthly basis while those who do it on daily and annually make 30.3% each.

SACCO and self-help group are the least popular ways of managing finances each being taken by 7.8% and 10.9 respectively. Instead more respondent result to more social organisations; that is, marry-go-round at 20.31%. The majority of the respondents operate bank accounts.

### **5.3.3 Enterprise innovation**

This study found that although 30.8% of respondents brought items that were new to the market they operated; however, product and radical innovations were missing. Again the majority (4.9%) view relocating and locating business geographically as the only way to venture into new market. The study also found out that 41.30% rely on customer demand to understand the dynamism in the market.

### **5.3.4 Graduates' attitude towards the adequacy of entrepreneurship training**

Table 4.35 shows that 70.8% of the respondents who attended college and went through entrepreneurship training think that the training was good enough to help them start business.

However, 46.51% think that the content needs to increase to offer more skills, and 34% thought that the course needs to be skill based.

#### **5.4 Conclusion and recommendations**

1. Graduate use the entrepreneurship skills to start and engage in business, and business records are better kept where one obtained training. The need for business records should be emphasised and students be groomed to identify necessary records. Financial management and calculation of the profit should be given weight during the training. Graduates should view profit calculation as part of business management.
2. There is a sizable group that does not look at business as a job opportunity and are in business because they could not get paid employment. This poses the question as to how the entrepreneurship training prepares graduates to seize the business opportunities that are in our society.
3. The methods of market analysis are basically observation and customers demand. The training needs to offer the graduates better ways of understanding the changes in the market and market analysis.
4. The commonest innovations are introduction of commodities to the market and searching for geographical location of market. Since this study took the opinion that innovation can be attained through study, search and hard work, this study recommends that the provision of innovation skills be revisited to offer graduates skills and attitudes that look at innovation in the perspective of product and radical innovation.
5. While a bigger percent of those who trained entrepreneurship felt that the training was adequate to assist them start and run business, the 29% that felt it was inadequate cannot be ignored. This study recommends that the course work be revisited to offer better skills and

search for methods of making it more practical than theoretical. This study recommends that further study be done to identify specific areas of training content that will better equip the graduates with better entrepreneurship skills.

6. In general there is need for revisiting the whole training process to offer skills that will help graduates seize the business opportunities as the combine entrepreneurship skills with the technical skills acquired.



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## Appendix 1 Work schedule

### Work schedule

	Activity	Expected duration
1	Recruiting and Training	1 week
2	Trail research and analyses	1 week
3	Data collection	3 weeks
4	Data analysis	1 week
5	Report writing	2 weeks



*Appendix 2*

**Interview schedule**

Interview Date.....

Interview time.....

Interview Venue.....

[mungaianthony@yahoo.com](mailto:mungaianthony@yahoo.com) / [mungaianthony86@gmail.com](mailto:mungaianthony86@gmail.com) 0723829571

1.

a. gender? Male  Female

b. How old are you (tick one)

below 18  18 – 24  25 – 34  35 – 44  45 – 54  55 - 64

65 and over

c. What is your marital status?

Single  married  divorced  widowed

2.

b. Did you join any college to train for what you are doing now? Yes  No

**For those who attended college**

c. What was the highest level of education before joining college

Primary but did not do KCPE  KCPE (class 8)  secondary but did not do KCSE

KCSE (form 4)  others  please Specify.....

d. Which college did you train in? .....

e. Did you complete the course? Yes  No

**For those who completed college**

f. How many years did it take you to complete? .....

g. What is your speciality? (Probe).....

h. What were you awarded?

Certificate  Diploma Higher Diploma

Post Graduate Diploma  Degree

**For those who did not complete training**

- i.* If you did not complete, how many years were you in college? .....
- j.* What were you specialising in? (probe) .....
- k.* What are the reasons for not completing?  
.....  
.....
- l.* Do you intend to go back to college? Yes  No

**For those who did not join college**

- m.* Why didn't you join college?  
.....  
.....
- n.* How did you train for the job you do?  
.....  
.....

*o.* How long did it take you to train? .....

*p.* What is your highest level of your education? ( Probe)

Primary but did not do KCPE  KCPE (class 8)  secondary but did not do KCSE

KCSE (form 4)  others  please Specify.....

*q.* In your training, what is your speciality?

.....

*r.* Do you intend to go to college? Yes  No

*s.* If yes, how do you think training would assist you?

.....  
.....

*t.* If no, why wouldn't want to go to college? .....

**Employment**

3.

*a.* Are you in: a paid employed  or Self-employment

**For those in paid employment**

*ai.* How long have you been in paid employment?

Less than 1 year  1-5years  6-10years  11-15years  16-20years  over 20years

iii. How long have you been in the current employment?

Less than 1 year  1-5years  6-10years  11-15years  16-20years  over 20years

iiiii. What is your main duty (duties) in your current employment?

.....  
.....

iv. Are your duties related to your training? Yes  No

v. If yes, how is it related?

.....  
.....  
.....

vi. Do the duties you take involve the following:

	Yes	No	if yes, how
i. Management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	.....
ii. Product development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	.....
iii. Product Value improvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	.....
iv. Advertisement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	.....
v. Financial planning	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	.....
vi. Use of IT	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	.....

vii. If your duties are not related to what you studied, why did you decide to take something different?

.....  
.....

aviii. Why did you choose employment instead of self-employment?

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

avi. Have you ever been self employed? Yes  No

avii. Do you still look forward to being self employed? Yes  No

aviii. What stops you from being self employed?

- i. Lack of enough capital
- ii. Fear of failure
- iii. Unsure of the business to start
- iv. Lack of management skills
- v. Other reasons  please specify.....

**For those who are self employed**

b. does your business involve:

- i. Providing services
- ii. Sale of goods
- iii. Both services and goods

bi. How long have you been in business (self employment)?

Less than 1 year  1-5years  6-10years  11-15years  16-20years  over 20years

bii. Why did you decide to be in self employment instead of paid employment?

.....

biii. When you started, how many employees did you have?

76

None    1-5    6-10    11-15    16-20    over 20

biv. How many employees do you have now?

None  1-5  6-10  11-15  16-20  over 20

bv. Have ever been in paid employment? Yes  No

bvi. If yes, why did you decide to leave it?

.....

bvii. Is your self-employment related to what you trained for? Yes  No

bviii. If no, what made you take something different?

.....

.....

bix. Do you still look forward to exercising what you studied? Yes  No

bx. In your business:

i. Which business records do you keep?

.....

ii. How often do you calculate your profit and loss

Never  daily  weekly  monthly  annually  others  specify.....

iii. How do you set your price?

.....

iv. How do you add value to your product or service to satisfy your customer?

.....  
v. How do you choose your product or services?  
.....

vi. How do you development or improve your product or services?  
.....

vii. How do you know when the Market is changing or your customer want something different?  
.....

viii. Which of these helps you in your financial planning?

Merry-go-round  SACCO  micro finance  self-help group  bank  acc  t  
none  others  specify.....

ix. What technology do you use in your business?  
.....

bxi. What challenges do you face when applying the skills?  
.....  
.....  
.....

**Innovation**

4.

a. Have you ever brought a new way of doing things in your business, or work?

Yes  No

b. If yes, which way?  
.....

c. Have ever introduced a new product to the market? Yes  No



d. If yes, how different is the product?

.....

e. Have you ever modified existing product in your field to be more attractive to customers? Yes  No

f. If yes, what is the modification?

.....

g. Have you ever repackaged your products to look more appealing to buyers? Yes  No

h. If yes, how did you repackage

.....

i. Have you ever ventured into new market in terms of:

	Yes	NO
i. Geographical area	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
ii. Age group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
iii. Gender	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
iv. Profession	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
v. Other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5.

a. In your training, did you study entrepreneurship? Yes  No

b. Do you think the entrepreneurship training is enough to help you start a business? Yes  No

c. How would you rate the content of the entrepreneurship course you went through? ( tick one)

Very Poor  Poor  Fair  Good  Very Good

d. How would you rate the teaching methods?

Very Poor  Poor  Fair  Good  Very Good

e. How would you rate the relevance of the entrepreneurship training in running a business?

Not relevant  somehow relevant  relevant  very relevant

f. For the entrepreneurship course you studied to be more relevant to your training, what do you think should be improved on? (you can tick more than one)

i. none

ii. Increase the number of lessons

iii. Reduce the number of lessons

iv. Increase the content

v. Reduce the content

Others Specify...  .....

