

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CHOICE OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP AS A CAREER AMONG YOUTH POLYTECHNICS STUDENTS IN VIHIGA COUNTY, KENYA

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Abstract

The Government of Kenya through the Ministry of Education has initiated the teaching of entrepreneurship education in tertiary colleges under Technical Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training program since 1990. Despite a lot of research having been done on the effect of youth programmes in relation to youth entrepreneurship in Kenya, need arises for research on factors influencing the choice of Entrepreneurship among students. This study covered Vihiga County with a total polytechnic student's population of 1,208. A sample of 120 students was used for survey. A self-administered structured questionnaire was used to collect primary data. Data was analyzed by descriptive statistics. The findings present three main issues. One, that most students would prefer regular trainings and mentorship on career programmes and provision of more e-learning and training materials to the students. Two, that there is need to incorporate more business skills training, guidance and Counseling sessions to the youth in an effort to spur entrepreneurship. Three, there is a strong students confidence in the current entrepreneurship training programmes in our youth polytechnics. Finally, the research emphasized the need for a policy shift towards Internet based Entrepreneurship education programme. This study could also serve as guidelines for directing and challenging efforts and activities to strengthen the teaching of entrepreneurship in Youth Polytechnics.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Career, Training, Youth Polytechnic, Vihiga County-Kenya

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is a major source of employment, economic growth, and innovation, promoting product and service quality, competition, and economic flexibility. It is also a mechanism by which many people enter the society's economic and social mainstream, aiding culture formation, population integration, and social mobility (Hisrich, Langan-Fox, & Grant, 2007). Entrepreneurship education may take the form of an academic program, entrepreneurship training, and individual or peer coaching (Katz, 2007). Entrepreneurship education is currently a hot topic, and there has been a substantial increase in the number of courses offered in the past 20 years - over 2,000 courses, 1,500 schools, and 100 funded centers in the United States alone (Kuratko, 2003). A similar trend has emerged in Europe and China. For example, the German government recently funded 25 chairs in entrepreneurship, and in China courses are taught in many higher education institutions (Hisrich, 2005). Hisrich et al, (2007) have suggested that a dominant trend in the 21st century is likely to be ethnic entrepreneurship, with entrepreneurial activity in the developing world increasing because of free trade, the availability of venture capital, and the development of infrastructure.

Entrepreneurship education can be used to make a person a more competent and a more professionalized business owner. However, all entrepreneurs are business people but not all business people are entrepreneurs. An entrepreneur applies his managerial efficiency to produce profit. According to Bwisa (2011) an entrepreneur is an individual who creates something new with value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic and social risks and receiving the rewards of monetary and personal satisfaction and independence. The Government of the Republic of Kenya (2005) recognizes the strategic importance of improving the overall education level of Kenyans within the context of poverty reduction and economic growth. According to the Government of the Republic of Kenya (2011), Science, Technology and Innovation sector seeks to achieve key objectives of enhanced access, equity relevance and quality of outcomes in higher education, science, technology and innovation.

As Kenya entered the twenty first century a lot of emphasis was put on youth entrepreneurship since majority of youths leaving school had no regular stable source of earning livelihood. The Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports was created and department of training under the ministry was mandated to address the youth agenda in regard to imparting employable skills and attitudes (MOYA,2005). To ensure the institutions meets the set targets in training and developing youth entrepreneurs the department embarked on new curriculum development that is industry approved (Mwinzi,2007). The government and other partners had to support the institutions through infrastructure development, provision of tools and equipment,

hiring of qualified instructors and subsidizing tuition fees to make it affordable for all the Kenyan youths (MOYAS, 2007). With the plan in place it was believed the trained young people would get into self-employment thus creating employment and opening avenues for other unemployed youths.

Kenyan youth polytechnics are institutions aimed at equipping the youths with entrepreneurial and employable skills (MOYAS, ROK, 2008). The institutions equip the young people with the relevant skills that earn them employment easily as opposed to the academic education system that has seen many young people remain unemployed due to poor performance of the country's economy (GoK, 2007). The first medium-Term Plan 2008-2012 of Vision 2030, aimed at significantly reducing the number of Kenyans living in poverty from 46% to 28% while raising average annual incomes from an estimated US\$ 650 to US\$992 by 2012. Vision 2030 appreciates the necessity of dealing with the informal economy that employs 75% of the country's workers.

The ministry of youth affairs and sports developed new youth polytechnic curriculum designed in modules to allow easy access to the youths, the curriculum is to be examined by Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC), qualified trained teachers are engaged to train the trainees while entrepreneurship education is introduced as a compulsory subject (MOYAS, 2009). Introduction of entrepreneurship education is aimed at equipping the trainees with entrepreneurial skills that would enable them engage in self-employment based on the technical skills acquired hence earn their livelihood while they create jobs for their colleagues. Not much research has been done on the effect of youth polytechnic programmes in relation to youth entrepreneurship in Kenya but it is evidenced that youth polytechnic graduates are still suffering unemployment despite the efforts being put in place. Thus need arises for the researchers to research on how the entrepreneurship education is being implemented in the Kenyan youth polytechnics, in regard to influencing the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students.

Statement of the Problem

One of the most pressing problems facing the Kenyan economy is unemployment. This is due to low economic growth, corruption, nepotism and the negative attitude towards entrepreneurship. Approximately 503,500 graduates from a pool of 1,374,360 graduates enter the job market annually. More than 870,860 graduates remain unemployed because of the weak economic performance and the public sector reforms, which have adversely affected employment in Kenya (Nelson & Johnson, 1997). One approach to enhancing entrepreneurial activity and

enterprise growth in Kenya is to create an enterprise culture among the youth (Nelson & Mburugu, 1991).

This is important because by focusing on youth while they are still in schools and colleges, this approach may provide a long – term solution to the problem of job creation in Kenya. Bwisa (2011) argues that to achieve a wide spread enterprise culture in the long run; entrepreneurship education, training, research and development programme in Kenya must integrate self – employment and entrepreneurship into the curriculum at all levels of learning. He further postulate that there has been an increased interest in entrepreneurship within the education system and the society in general with an increase in courses, incubators and other activities oriented to promote the topic of entrepreneurship.

Even with all these concerted efforts we still find most of our graduates languishing in poverty due to unemployment. There was therefore need to examine the factors influencing the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth Polytechnics students in Kenya, and especially in Vihiga County as a long – term solution to the problem of job creation.

General Research Objective

The general objective of this research proposal is to investigate the factors influencing the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among the youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County.

Specific Research Objectives

1. To investigate the role of culture in promoting the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County.
2. To establish the role of individual preferences in the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County.
3. To find out whether individual capabilities enhance the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among the youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County.

Justification of the Study

The findings of this study will be beneficial to the following stakeholders:-

- The policy makers – the findings of this study will help the central government through the ministry of education science and technology and the County Government of Vihiga to have a better understanding of how the youth in polytechnics perceive the whole issue of entrepreneurship. based on this better understanding, the two levels of government will be in a better position to come up with more supportive policies towards promoting entrepreneurship among the youth.

- Relevant Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) – NGOs that work to promote youth development in close collaboration with education sector players will benefit from the findings of this study as they will be better informed on the factors affecting choice of entrepreneurship among the youth.
- The general public – when the interests of the youth are looked after and researched on so as to ensure they have a better chance at social and economic progress, then the society as a whole benefits. This is particularly considering that the youth are the majority in Kenya.
- Other researchers – this study will provide a source of literature to be reviewed by others in their studies. The study will contribute to scholarship as it will advance the work of other researchers in this field and also make recommendations on areas that other researchers can focus on.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview of Entrepreneurship Education

The understanding of the concept of entrepreneurship is fundamental for defining entrepreneurship education. So far there is no agreement of any single theory of entrepreneurship (e.g. Shane & Venkataraman 2000; Davidsson, Low & Wright, 2001) and many notions of many different approaches to conduct research on the subject (e.g. Grebel et al; Grant & Perren 2002). Hunting the Heffalump as theorizing entrepreneurship was launched by Kilby (1971) and after that more seriously pushed forward e.g. by Bygrave and Hofer (1991) as they introduced Potential theoretical bases for entrepreneurship. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) reviewed previous writings and defined entrepreneurship as study of sources of opportunities, the processes of discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities and those individuals who discover, evaluate and exploit them. Sarason, Dean and Dillard (2006) continued from that and stated, that, despite entrepreneurship is treated as nexus of individual and opportunity,

Entrepreneurship is a social undertaking and must therefore be studied within a context of social system. The proposition is that the entrepreneur and social systems co-evolve (Sarason et al. 2006).The contemporary views on entrepreneurship emphasize alternative approaches such as narrative (Hytti 2003; Fletcher 2006) and prosaic (Steyaert 2004) entrepreneurship which carry the idea of entrepreneur as a socially constructed, creative human being. Whereas managerial processes are processes mainly of control, normality, and standardization, the entrepreneurial is about play, anomaly, and movement (Hjorth 2003, 260). According to Johannisson (1997) entrepreneurship is represented by individuals (inter)acting as complete human beings with their own ambitions in the (inter)organizational setting. Thus

Entrepreneurship may be defined as the visualization and realization of new ideas by insightful individuals, who are able to use information and mobilize resources to implement their visions. The emphasis is not on the idea generation but more on the promotion and implementation of change. (Nyström 1995). Seeing the everydayness of entrepreneurship means to us that it is constantly present in the actions and talk. Entrepreneurs personify “action” in its intrinsic sense (that is, intentional conduct), and engage in genuine interaction (that is, in voluntary exchange for mutual benefit and learning) (Johannisson 1997). As Johannisson, Landström and Rosenberg (1998) define it, “entrepreneuring is thinking and acting differently, moving things”, which suggests the action dimension to be inherent to entrepreneuring. It is not merely analysing but also being intuitive and then putting things on the move”

To define entrepreneurship education we may consider terms such as enterprising and entrepreneurial. The only major distinction between these two is that entrepreneurial traditionally refers to business activity, whereas enterprising can be used in any context (Gibb 2005). Teaching younger students’ entrepreneurship education is more about enterprise education. The purpose is for students to take more responsibility for themselves and their learning, to try to achieve their goals, be creative, discover existing opportunities and in general to cope in our complicated society. Moreover, the aim is for them to take an active role in job markets and consider entrepreneurship as a natural career choice. This education involves developing behaviours, skills and attributes applied individually and/or collectively to help individuals and organizations of all kinds to create, cope with and enjoy change and innovation. This involves higher levels of uncertainty and complexity as a means of achieving personal fulfilment and organizational effectiveness. Enterprising education is the process by which such behaviour is practised and supported. These skills, behaviours, and attributes are exhibited in organizations of all kinds ranging from within the family to the wider community context. It may embody elements of learning for the pursuit of some task. Moreover, it involves learning through a particular pedagogy and learning about, which then refers to cognitive learning (e.g. Gibb 2006). According to Kyrö (1997), entrepreneurship education deals with three main components; self-oriented, internal and external entrepreneurship. Self orientated entrepreneurship refers to an individual’s self-oriented behaviour. Self oriented entrepreneurship is the basis for developing internal and external entrepreneurship (Remes 2004). Internal entrepreneurship deals with entrepreneurial and enterprising behaviour. External entrepreneurship is about doing business (Ristimäki 2003). Even though self-orientated and internal entrepreneurship resemble each other, the difference between them is in the collectivistic sense which emerges in internal entrepreneurship development and which could be developed in organizations (Remes 2001). If an organization possesses internal entrepreneurship, it realizes its opportunities, makes use of

them and demonstrates self-trust (Heinonen 2001). Self-orientated entrepreneurship is basically only about an individual's development. Kyrö (2005:89) argues concerning self-orientated entrepreneurship: 'In general, entrepreneurial and enterprising behaviour involves the idea that the human being, looking around him and combining different elements, creates holistic realities, which have their consequences in action. Even when the environment is full of paradoxes and events, the entrepreneur chooses what is suitable for him and his ideas. He does not select his elements from a single environment; on the contrary, his ideas can spring from anywhere and this combines different elements and this enhances the creation of something new"

As in basic education, self-orientated entrepreneurship should be emphasized (Remes 2001). As a consequence, the focus is not only on developing factors related to motivation, self-awareness and creativity (Menzies and Paradi, 2003), and responsibility for learning (Heinonen, 2004), but also on co-operation and interaction, which refer to internal entrepreneurship development. In comparison, in the school context, external entrepreneurship education is about developing innovation and business ideas as well as strengthening co-operation between schools and work life, including such activities as work experience and study tours. In traditional teaching, the teaching is structured so that one content is studied at one time (Gibb 2005).

As Gibb (2005) argues, the pedagogy of entrepreneurship education is focused on students' activity in learning, and this approach could be considered as a non-traditional teaching method. The learning situations are flexible, interactive and based on multidimensional knowledge development. Knowledge is built together and mistakes are regarded as a part of the learning process. Therefore we may assume that the pedagogy of entrepreneurship education is based on socio-constructivism. Learning communities have a major role in these processes (Blenker et al. 2006, and Jack & Anderson 1999), and experiences are crucial in learning.

As a summary of definitions, entrepreneurship education is seen here through three aims that are: learn to understand entrepreneurship, learn to become entrepreneurial and learn to become an entrepreneur (Hytti 2002). Like Gibb (2001, 2005) has stated, entrepreneurship education is about learning for entrepreneurship, learning about entrepreneurship and learning through entrepreneurship. Therefore entrepreneurship education should be considered both as a method of learning as well as a content of learning (Remes 2003).

Objectives of Entrepreneurship Education

As Brockhaus (1992) points out, objectives are the fundamental question, under which all other elements should be placed. In this sense, Curran & Stanworth (1989) try to define the main types of objectives that can be pursued by entrepreneurship education.

Entrepreneurial Awareness Education

Entrepreneurial awareness education purpose would be to increase the number of people having enough knowledge about small enterprises, self-employment and entrepreneurship, so that they consider that alternative as a rational and viable option. Thus, this educational category would not directly pursue the creation of more entrepreneurs. According to intention models, it would be acting on one or more of the elements that determine intention (entrepreneurial knowledge, desirability or feasibility), but not directly on intention. Any of the start-up or self employment courses -especially shorter ones- would be really working as awareness programmes (Curran & Stanworth, 1989).

Education for Start-Up

Education for start-ups would consist of the preparation to be the owner of a small conventional business, as are the great majority of all new firms. It would be centered on the specific practical aspects related to the start-up phase: how to obtain financing; legal regulations; taxation; and so on (Curran & Stanworth, 1989). Participants in this type of courses are usually highly-motivated about the project. So, they tend to show much interest in course contents. Frequently, the selection criteria rely excessively on already having a viable business idea. In this sense, these courses should try to develop the entrepreneurial intention of the participants. However, in practice, it is very common for them to select persons showing a high previous level of intention, and concentrate on the practical questions for start-up (self-selection bias).

Education for Entrepreneurial Dynamism

Education for Entrepreneurial dynamism would try to promote dynamic entrepreneurial behaviours after the start-up phase. Therefore, their objective would not only be to increase the intention of becoming an entrepreneur, but also the intention of developing dynamic behaviours when the enterprise is already in operation. However, the conventional forms of education do not allow for the development of entrepreneurial quality (Guzmán & Santos, 2001), thus it would be necessary to use alternative educational models (Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994).

Continuing Education for Entrepreneurs

This would be the fourth and last type of entrepreneurship education. It would be a specialized version of adult education in general, designed to allow improvement of the existing entrepreneur's abilities (Weinrauch, 1984). In particular, it is difficult to attract these entrepreneurs towards this type of programmes, since they tend to consider these initiatives as too general for the particular needs of their firms. A possible way to overcome this difficulty

could be linking this category with the above-mentioned modalities. In this sense, participation in some start-up or dynamism programme could make entrepreneurs more receptive to continuous training.

These four objectives of entrepreneurship education still need a lot of research to enlarge their knowledge-base, to perfect their teaching techniques, to improve their effectiveness and to advance towards the achievement of all their potential (Curran & Stanworth, 1989). In any event, there is some agreement in considering education for entrepreneurial dynamism as the most relevant category (Garavan & O'Cinneide, 1994; Liñán, 2004).

Theoretical Framework

A theory is a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting phenomena (Camp, 2010). This section therefore aims to bring to the spot light, theories regarding the concept of entrepreneurship education and its relation to choice of entrepreneurship as a career.

Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy theory is an important component of Bandura's (1986) more general social cognitive theory, which suggests that an individual's behavior, environment, and cognitive factors (i.e., outcome expectations and self-efficacy) are all highly interrelated. Bandura (1978) defined self-efficacy as "a judgment of one's ability to execute a particular behavior pattern." Wood and Bandura (1989) expanded on this definition by suggesting that self-efficacy beliefs form a central role in the regulatory process through which an individual's motivation and performance attainments are governed. Self-efficacy judgments also determine how much effort people will spend on a task and how long they will persist with it. People with strong self-efficacy beliefs exert greater efforts to master a challenge while those with weak self-efficacy beliefs are likely to reduce their efforts or even quit (Bandura and Schunk 1981, Brown and Inouye 1978).

Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977) suggests that there are four major sources of information used by individuals when forming self-efficacy judgments). In order of strength, the first is performance accomplishments, which refers to personal assessment information that is based on an individual's personal mastery accomplishments (i.e., past experiences with the specific task being investigated). Previous successes raise mastery expectations, while repeated failures lower them (Gist and Mitchell 1992). The second is vicarious experience, which is gained by observing others perform activities successfully. This is often referred to as

modelling, and it can generate expectations in observers that they can improve their own performance by learning from what they have observed (Bandura 1978, Gist and Mitchell 1992). Social persuasion is the third, and it refers to activities where people are led, through suggestion, into believing that they can cope successfully with specific tasks. Coaching and giving evaluate feedback on performance are common types of social persuasion (Bandura 1977, Bandura and Cervone 1986). The final source of information is physiological and emotional states. The individual's physiological or emotional states influence self-efficacy judgments with respect to specific tasks. Emotional reactions to such tasks (e.g., anxiety) can lead to negative judgments of one's ability to complete the tasks (Bandura 1988). Bandura (1982) reviewed a variety of different lines of self-efficacy research and concluded that self-efficacy theory has considerable potential explanatory power. His review found that perceived self-efficacy helps to account for a wide variety of individual behaviors, including: changes in coping behavior produced by different modes of influence, levels of physiological stress reactions, self-regulation, achievement strivings, growth of intrinsic interest, and choice of career pursuits.

Self-efficacy has been shown to apply across a wide range of situations and is a good predictor of subsequent performance and behavior (Bandura 1978, Gist and Mitchell 1992). From his observation of the results from various experiments, Bandura (1982) concluded that "perceived efficacy is often a better predictor of behavior in generalization tests than in past performance.... Behavior is raw data that must be cognitively appraised for its efficacy value." Other authors (Gist 1989, Gist et al. 1989, Locke 1991) have also concluded that the empirical evidence supporting self-efficacy theory is very strong.

The theory appears to be particularly well suited to studying entrepreneurship career choice. It can be construed from this theory that people with a high level of self-efficacy judgment towards entrepreneurship are likely to put in more effort to succeed in it. For students technical and vocational institutes, the first source of information may not apply as they do not have the experience of success in entrepreneurship. However, the other sources of information perfectly apply for them. Social persuasion especially from their trainers will certainly contribute to choice of career in entrepreneurship and so will having role models who have themselves succeeded in entrepreneurship.

Self-efficacy has been linked theoretically and empirically with managerial and entrepreneurial phenomena (Markman and Baronb, 2003). Self-efficacy, and particularly entrepreneurial self-efficacy (McGee, Peterson, Muller & Sequira, 2009), appears to be an important antecedent to new venture intentions and creation (Chen et al. 1988; Townsend et al. 2010). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy is a context-specific measure of self-efficacy.

Entrepreneurial self-efficacy focuses on the belief of individuals in their ability to perform entrepreneurship-related tasks. For example, Chen et al.(1988) created a measure of entrepreneurial self-efficacy comprised of dimensions related to marketing, innovation, management, risk-taking, and financial control. Using this measure, Chen et al. (1988) found entrepreneurial self-efficacy to significantly differentiate entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs. In addition to its effect on entrepreneurial intent and immediate venture creation, entrepreneurial self-efficacy of the founder has even been found to influence performance outcomes on the firm level (e.g., Baum and Locke 2004; Hmieleski and Baron 2008).

Hofsteds Cultural Values Theory

Hofstede's cultural values consist of four dimensions: individualism–collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity–femininity (Hofstede, 1980). Individualism–collectivism is defined as the degree to which people in a country prefer to act as individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose where everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family (Hofstede 1980). Collectivism, as it's opposite, pertains to societies in which people from birth are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede 1994). Individualism–collectivism is an important component of Hofstede's cultural values. For instance, in collectivist societies, the interests of the group prevail over the interests of the individual; harmony with the social environment is a key virtue. People are expected to give allegiance to the groups to which they belong. People from collectivist cultures tend to have more favorable attitudes toward teamwork, and they prefer reward systems that provide incentives for group achievement. However, people from individualistic cultures tend to work individually as they commit to their personal goals. In an individualistic society the various spheres of life, e.g., family, business, and leisure, tend to be separated. To collectivist mindsets, relations are more important than business – and so, business tends to be done among friends and family. The term “in-group” is often used to denote this kind of self-evident unit of social life. Individualistic cultures have been found to support entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation (Hofsted, Catholijn, Jonker & Verwaart, 2013).

Power distance is defined as the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally (Hofstede 1980). Specifically, power distance refers to the extent to which the members of institutions such as family, school and community and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede 1994). In general, increase in power distance lead to increase in cultural

values. This is because power distance explains the way a society handles inequality among its members. In a culture with high power distance, there exists an established hierarchy of power based on status, wealth, intellectual capacity, or other factors. A culture with low power distance, on the other hand, considers every individual as equal, despite differences in power, status or wealth.

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise (Hofstede 1980). Literatures convince uncertainty avoidance influence on cultural value. For example, a society with a high ranking in uncertainty may rely upon strict, detailed rules and procedures in order to mitigate uncertainty. A society with low uncertainty avoidance is more comfortable handling unknown events and thus relies less upon rules. According to Hofstede (2001), in the culture of a society that was low in uncertainty avoidance, community of the society were relatively comfortable with risk taking and nonconformist behavior, which in turn helped promote creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship.

Masculinity is defined as the extent to which the dominant values in society are assertiveness, the acquisition of money and things, and not caring for each other, the quality of life and people (Hofstede 1980). Meanwhile, femininity is defined as the opposite of masculinity. Previous studies suggest masculinity–femininity influence on cultural value. For instance, men were supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women were supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Therefore, in a masculine society, individuals are more aggressive, ambitious, and competitive whereas individuals in a feminine society are more modest, humble and nurturing. In essence, the dimensions of individualism–collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity–femininity shape the cultural of a society by contributing unique measures of Hofstede’s cultural values. Combining the indicators capture the entire concept of Hofstede’s cultural values which defined as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. According to this theory a masculine society tends to encourage entrepreneurship compared to a feminine society. In masculine societies people are expected to place value on measurable performance criteria such as size, speed and quantity. Big is beautiful. Money is good. Rich people are admired. Life is conceptualized as a series of contests and winning is paramount while losing is a disaster. Implicit trust is low; if you get cheated it is your own fault and you are a loser. If you do good, you do it in the large. If you commit crimes, they are large, not petty ones. Feminine societies are the opposite. Winners are

at risk of awakening feelings of jealousy. Small is beautiful, implicit trust is high, and cheaters are looked down upon. Yet small-scale cheating occurs a lot because society is permissive and, in the case of small misdemeanors, forgiving. Penalties are mild. Good intentions are more important than good performance (Hofsted et al., 2013).

Expectancy Theory

Even though expectancy theory has mainly been a topic of research in the field of work motivation and organizational behavior (Kanfer 1990; Ambrose and Kulik 1999), some recent studies talk about expectancy theory in the context of entrepreneurial behavior. Shaver et al. (2001) found that entrepreneurs, who believe in their skills and abilities, are motivated to exert necessary effort. Based on Gatewood (1993) and Gatewood et al. (2002), Manolova et al. (2008) conceptualize new venture creation as a process based on an effort–performance–outcome model, and find that the model explains differences between men and women with respect to their motivations in starting new businesses.

Douglas and Shepherd (2000) offer a model where the choice to pursue entrepreneurship is based on a person's utility function, which reflects perceptions about anticipated income, the anticipated amount of work effort to achieve this income, the risk involved, plus other factors such as the person's desired attitudes for independence and perceptions of the anticipated work environment. As pointed out by

Gatewood et al. (2002), Douglas and Shepherd (2000) implicitly suggest that perceived utility is a function of an individual's perception of the likelihood that personal abilities and efforts in entrepreneurial activity will be successful (expectancy) and that the outcomes will be of value (instrumentality and valence).

Krueger et al. (2000) suggest that an individual's expected values will influence the perceived desirability of the intention to pursue entrepreneurship. They found that measures of perceived desirability and expected utility were significantly correlated with intentions for entrepreneurship. Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behavior, which inspired the Krueger et al. (2000) study, is closely related to expectancy theory (Gatewood et al. 2002). Feasibility is related to expectancy, while desirability is a form of value (Steel and Konig 2006).

Growth motivation studies among entrepreneurs have focused on how specific cognitive beliefs about the consequences of growth (Wiklund et al. 2003), and entrepreneur's human capital and social networks (Manolova et al. 2007) influence the entrepreneur's attitudes toward expanding a business. Wiklund et al. (2003) show that small-business managers' feelings about whether the growth of their business is good or bad can, to a reasonable extent, be explained on the basis of the consequences that they expect from growth. Overall, these studies show that

entrepreneurs are motivated by various outcomes that they expect will follow from starting up a business or growing it.

Entrepreneurial Learning Theory

According to Wing Yan Man (2005), entrepreneurial learning can be classified under three theoretical foundations: experiential, cognitive/affective, and networking approaches, which are discussed in details as follows.

Experiential Approach

The experiential approach suggests that learning is a process whereby concepts are derived from and continuously modified by experience; thus experience is seen as a major source of learning for the entrepreneur (Politis, 2005), and various types of experience from which the entrepreneur learns have been identified (Lans et al., 2004). According it, entrepreneurial learning not only means repeating what have been successfully done in the past and by others and avoiding what have failed, but also an active interpretation of experience by the learner.

Cognitive/Affective Approach

In this approach, learning is considered as a self-reinforcing process (Ravasi and Turati, 2005), being affected by the entrepreneur's level of confidence in prior action. Thus, the focus of this approach is to consider learning as a mind work of acquiring and structuring knowledge, and it includes different attempts to demystify the process of entrepreneurial learning by focusing on different cognitive, attitudinal, emotional and personality factors affecting learning (Wing Man Young, 2006). This mental process is affected by a number of attitudinal factors such as self-efficacy, confidence, motivation to achieve and determination (Fenwick, 2003).

Networking approach

According to this approach, the skills and knowledge of the small to medium-sized enterprise owner managers are largely acquired through their social relationship within and outside their organizations, which is extended beyond the small and micro-enterprise and towards a broader spectrum including suppliers, customers, bank managers, university education, professional membership, parents and mentors (Sullivan, 2000).

The Theory of the Entrepreneurial Event

According to Shapero & Sokol's (1982), the theory of the entrepreneurial event considers firm creation as the result of the interaction among contextual factors, which would act through their

influence on the individual's perceptions. The consideration of the entrepreneurial option would take place as a consequence of some external change -a precipitating event- (Peterman & Kennedy, 2003). People's answers to that external event will depend on their perceptions about the available alternatives. There are two basic kinds of perceptions: perceived Desirability and Perceived feasibility. Perceived desirability refers to the degree to which a person feels an attraction towards a given behaviour (to become an entrepreneur). Similarly, Perceived feasibility is defined as the degree to which people consider themselves personally able to carry out that behaviour. The presence of role models, mentors or partners would be a decisive element in establishing the individual's feasibility level.

In turn, both types of perceptions are determined by cultural and social factors through their influence on the individual's value system (Shapiro & Sokol, 1982). Therefore, external circumstances would not determine behaviours directly, but rather they would be the result of (conscious or unconscious) analysis carried out by the person about the desirability and feasibility of the different possible alternatives in that situation.

Intention-Based Theories of Entrepreneurship

Over the years, the decision to become an entrepreneur has been analyzed using very different methodologies. Authors began looking for the existence of certain personality traits that could be associated with the entrepreneurial activity (McClelland, 1961). Later on, other studies have pointed to the importance of different characteristics such as age, gender, origin, religion, level of studies, labour experience, and so on (Reynolds et al., 1994; Storey, 1994). These are usually called "demographic" variables (Robinson et al., 1991). Both lines of analysis have allowed the identification of significant relationships among certain traits or demographic characteristics of the person, and the fulfillment of entrepreneurial behaviors. However, the predictive capacity has been very limited (Reynolds, 1997).

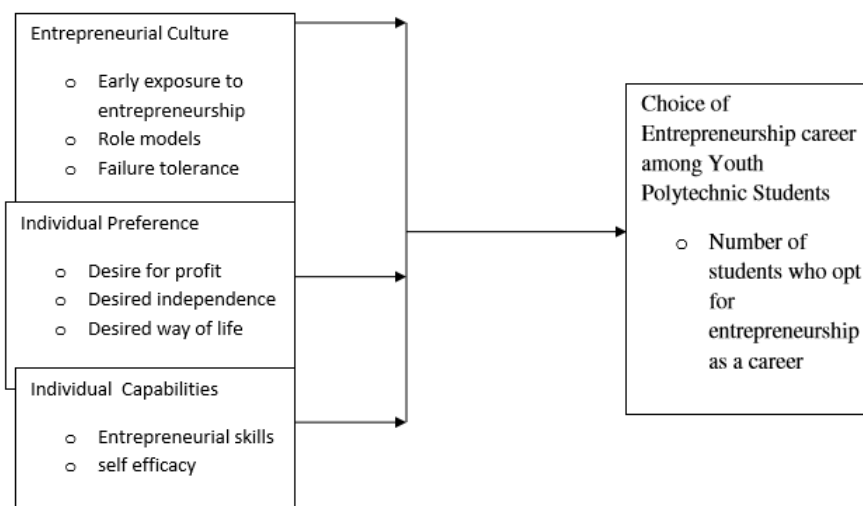
From the theoretical point of view, those approaches have been criticized (Liñán et al., 2002), both for their methodological and conceptual problems and for their low explanatory capacity. From a third perspective, since the decision to become an entrepreneur may be plausibly considered as voluntary and conscious (Krueger et al., 2000), it seems reasonable to analyze how that decision is taken. In this sense, entrepreneurial intention would be a previous and determinant element towards performing entrepreneurial behaviors (Fayolle & Gailly, 2004). In turn, the intention to carry out a given behaviour will depend on the person's attitudes towards that behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). A more favorable attitude would increase the intention of carrying it out. In this manner, this "attitude approach" would be preferable to those traditionally used, such as the trait or the demographic approaches (Krueger et al., 2000). Thus attitudes would

measure the extent to which an individual positively or negatively evaluates something. Attitudes are relatively stable, but they change according to time and situation.

Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework comprises of independent variables and dependent variables (Kothari, 2004). On the basis of this setting, these independent variables are presumed to have an effect on entrepreneurship growth, which is the study's dependent variable (Figure 1). Each of these variables is explained below in the context of this study.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework



Culture

Education plays an essential role in shaping attitudes, skills and culture – from the primary level up. Entrepreneurship education provides a mix of experiential learning, skill building and, most importantly, mindset shift. Certainly the earlier and more widespread the exposure to entrepreneurship and innovation, the more likely it is that students will consider entrepreneurial careers at some point in the future. When assessing entrepreneurship education practices around the world, it is important to understand not only what works but also why. It is not simply a matter of building the infrastructure. The programmes must be market-driven and adapted to the local ecosystem. The World needs a greater focus on entrepreneurship and innovation to help spur competitiveness, growth and job creation, and to achieve the goals set out in the Lisbon Agenda (European Commission, 2000).

Despite numerous initiatives and programmes, Entrepreneurship is still lagging behind (Rok, 2004). Underlying issues include the mindset and skills of young people (European

Commission, 2002). The low exposure to entrepreneurship combined with the lack of role models and the repercussions for failure. Entrepreneurship education can help promote an entrepreneurial and innovative culture by changing mindsets and providing the necessary skills. Meanwhile globalization, the rapid development of technology and the lower cost of travel have completely changed the nature of work. It is no longer enough to train students for a career. Universities and other educational Institutions must prepare students to work in a dynamic, rapidly changing entrepreneurial and global environment.

For entrepreneurship to thrive, it must operate in a well-functioning business and regulatory environment. According to Schramm (2004), without the proper framework conditions, even potential entrepreneurs wanting to start companies will not do so. In the United States, business innovation is fuelled by highly competitive markets, advanced financial and university infrastructure, property rights, labour flexibility, and government support of R&D, directly and through procurement (Dennis, 2006). Entrepreneurship is viewed as a major driver of innovation, competitiveness and growth. These courses are structured to be as experiential as possible, incorporating real-life cases, projects, internships and business plan competitions. Case studies also provide role models for students considering an entrepreneurial career path. This is an important part of creating entrepreneurial drive: if students see that people “like themselves” were able to successfully create companies, it helps to demystify the process and make that option more feasible.

While interactive approaches, usually project-based, are also used to teach Entrepreneurship, case studies, featuring successful entrepreneurs, need to be developed and shared broadly through schools. More could also be done to profile these entrepreneurs in the media to create a broader exposure to such role models. In the United States, the university is seen as playing a key role in the local ecosystem, in which links between academia and business operate both formally and informally (Twaalfhoven and Wilson, 2004). US universities foster networks with entrepreneurs, business practitioners, venture capital firms and business angels as part of a mutually reinforcing learning and sharing process. More needs to be done however, particularly in the following areas: curriculum development, creation of a critical mass of entrepreneurship teachers, funding of entrepreneurship, cross-border faculty and research collaborations, and facilitation of spin-outs from technical and scientific institutions. According to Birch(2002), Europe’s competitiveness, innovation and economic growth depend on being able to produce future leaders with the skills and attitudes to be entrepreneurial in their professional lives, whether by creating their own companies or innovating in larger organizations. Entrepreneurship education is the first and arguably the most important step for embedding an innovative culture in Europe.

Individual preferences

Brice et al, (2008) research indicate that individuals who perceive entrepreneurship as advantageous based on their attraction for independence and profits form stronger intentions to pursue entrepreneurial careers than others. However, those who are attracted to entrepreneurship solely based on their perceived notions of a satisfying entrepreneurial lifestyle did not form stronger intentions to start a business than others. The results did, however, affirm the moderating effect of the reward of profit, which indicates that individuals who seek challenge and excitement in their occupational endeavors (a satisfying way of life) form robust entrepreneurial intentions only when they perceive that they can earn potentially limitless, financial rewards (profits). A controversial issue in the research of entrepreneurs is what cognitive factor(s) significantly impact the decision to pursue the vocation of entrepreneurship over safer, more traditional, employment alternatives. In entrepreneurship, this approach attempts to understand how the perceptions (Cooper, Woo, & Dunkleberg, 1988), cognitive and decision-making styles (Kaish & Gilad, 1991), Heuristics (Manimala, 1992), biases (Busenitz and Barney, 1997), and intentions (Bird, 1988) of prospective entrepreneurs affect their behavior. The mere presence of appropriate personality traits that render an individual intrinsically suited for venturing does not guarantee entrepreneurial behavior (Shaver & Scott, 1991). Kirzner (1973) stressed that entrepreneurs are not only those that discover market opportunities, but also that they must act upon these prospects whenever possible. Based on Kirzner's rationale, it may be reasoned that a defining factor for prospective entrepreneurs is likely the willingness to pursue favorable opportunities once they are exposed. In this context, only those individuals who are motivated enough to pursue entrepreneurial careers, in deference to other possible choices (e.g., traditional employment), can be considered entrepreneurs.

According to the expectancy theory of motivation, individuals are rational, they understand the possible consequences of their actions, and make selections among options based on a merger of the value of the outcomes and the probability that the outcomes will be achieved (Gatewood, 1993). What can be assumed, in a general context, is that an individual, who is attracted to the perceived outcomes of an entrepreneurial career, will be motivated to initiate entrepreneurial behavior if such effort is reasonably expected to result in their acquiring these valuable second-order rewards. There are three potential reward categories that are posited to influence individuals to pursue entrepreneurial careers-the rewards of profit, independence, and a satisfying way of life (Reynolds, P, 1988; Longenecker, Moore, & Petty, 2000). First, the reward of profit is the entrepreneur's expectation of earning a yield that will recompense them for the time and capital that they have devoted as well as for the risks and

initiative they take in running the business. This reward is deemed the primary basis for initiating any profit-making enterprise. Without the hope of profit, there is no entrepreneurial opportunity (Kirzner, 1973). Second, the reward of independence is the expectation of freedom from supervision, rules, and bureaucracy (Reynolds, P, 1988; Longenecker, Moore, & Petty, 2000). This reward is symptomatic of an entrepreneur's desire to be one's own boss and experience the autonomy of pursuing whatever course holds personal interest. The reward of independence is attained and sustained as a result of profitable venturing. Lastly, the reward of a satisfying way of life is the expectation of freedom from routine, boring, and unchallenging jobs (Reynolds, P, 1988; Longenecker, Moore, & Petty, 2000).

Individual Capabilities

The heart of entrepreneurship research is studying entrepreneurial activity and its antecedents. Drawing on Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (1991), many researchers have acknowledged the role of entrepreneurial intention as the most effective predictor of entrepreneurial activity (Krueger et al.2000). To study precursors of entrepreneurial intention at individual level researchers have largely focused on two main factors namely, desirability (degree to which one finds starting a business an attractive career choice) and feasibility (one's perception of being skillful to do so) (Krueger and Brazeal1994; Shapero and Sokol 1982). Furthermore, at national level, from a demand-supply perspective, two factors perceived opportunities and perceived capabilities have been introduced as antecedents of entrepreneurial intention (Wennekers et al. 2002; Bosma 2008). We theorize that entrepreneurial intention is formed directly by individual perceptions, which are shaped by aggregate conditions. The mostly researched and acknowledged antecedent of entrepreneurial intention is 'perceived capabilities', also known as self-efficacy. Since its introduction by Bandura in 1977, many researchers in the field of entrepreneurship have adopted this factor to explain formation of entrepreneurial intention (Krueger and Day 2010).

Individuals develop and strengthen beliefs about their efficacy in four ways; One, by mastery experiences (or enactive mastery); two, modeling (observational learning); three, social persuasion; and four, judgments of their own physiological states (Wood & Bandura, 1989). An individual's performance judgments result from an integration and assimilation of efficacy information derived from all four of these sources (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The formation of self-efficacy is also influenced by the individual's assessment of the availability of resources and constraints, both personal and situational, that may affect future performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The most effective way for individuals to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy is through mastery experiences or repeated performance accomplishments (Wood & Bandura,

1989). Enactive mastery provides confirming experiences that contribute to positive estimations of future performance (Lent & Hackett, 1987). However, when people experience only easy successes, they become quickly discouraged by failure when it occurs. In order to gain a more stable and resilient sense of self-efficacy, it is necessary to have direct experience in overcoming obstacles through effort and perseverance (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Performance setbacks serve the useful purpose of teaching that sustained effort is usually necessary for success. In addition, if people develop a sense of confidence in their capabilities through experiencing success, failures and setbacks may be more effectively managed (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Vicarious experience, or observational learning through modeling, provides a slightly less-effective method of strengthening self-efficacy (Gist, 1987; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Proficient role models convey effective strategies for managing situations and they affect self-efficacy through a social comparison process (Wood & Bandura, 1989). That is, people form judgments of their own capabilities by comparing themselves to others. Through observational learning, an individual estimates the relevant skills and behavior used by a role model in performing a task, approximates the extent to which those skills are similar to his or her own, and infers the amount of effort versus skill that would be required to reach the same results (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The effects of modeling are enhanced when there is a perceived similarity between the subject and model in terms of personal characteristics and capabilities and when the modeled behavior produces obvious consequences or results (Gist, 1987; Bandura, 1977).

The third way in which self-efficacy may be strengthened is through social persuasion. Both persuasive discussions and specific performance feedback may be used to provide information regarding a person's ability to perform a task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). If people receive positive feedback and realistic encouragement directed at convincing them that they are capable of performing a task, they may be more likely to exert greater effort (Gist, 1987; Wood & Bandura, 1989). The danger in the use of this method is that beliefs of self-efficacy may be increased to unrealistic levels. Therefore, social persuasion should incorporate the assignment of tasks that develop self-improvement (mastery experiences) in order to insure success. In addition, it is important to consider such factors as the credibility, expertise, trustworthiness, and prestige of the persuading person when evaluating the usefulness of persuasive information (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). This method, when considered alone, is usually less effective in increasing perceptions of self-efficacy than mastery experiences and modeling (Bandura 1982; Gist, 1987).

Finally, in assessing personal capabilities, people often rely partly on their own perceptions of their physiological states. That is, they may interpret their emotional arousal and

tension as indications of vulnerability to poor performance. For example, anxiety may be viewed as debilitating fear that will increase the likelihood of failure and lower self-efficacy expectations (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Such factors as general physical condition, personality factors, and mood may affect self-efficacy by influencing the arousal a person experiences when confronted with a task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Empirical support exists for a negative relationship between anxiety level and self-efficacy expectations. That is. Heightened anxiety levels contribute to low self-efficacy expectations (Stumpf, Brief,&Hartman,1987). Thus, in order to strengthen perceptions of self-efficacy, people should take steps to enhance their emotional and physical status and reduce stress levels (Gist 1987).

Empirical Studies

It can be clearly understood from the above review of entrepreneurship that, it relates to creating new opportunities and managing the elusiveness even the unknown (Neck-Greene, 2011). When we look at education from this perspective, it is essential to review the current approaches in the entrepreneurship education and the relevant innovation. In the following four main approaches are reviewed: the Entrepreneur Approach, the Duration Approach, the Cognitive Approach and the Method Approach.

Entrepreneur Approach

The research relating to the characteristics of an entrepreneur has an important place in relevant literature. In early studies, the entrepreneurs' four basic characteristics were listed as the need for success, internal control, tendency to take high risks and tolerance against elusiveness (Brockhaus-Horwitz, 1986). Another research has analyzed the topic in terms of psychological motives and has classified entrepreneurs into four categories as personal consultants, super sales persons with a strong attention on developing empathy, real managers and professional idea finders. The problem about this character traces' approach is the difficulty of recognizing, separating and predicting them in people. For instance, the criteria for answering questions such as "who is an entrepreneur?", "who will be successful?" and "which character traces are necessary to be qualified as successful entrepreneurs?" is ambiguous. Another questioning for this study is that the studies were generally made on white males. The methodology was giving seminars experienced speakers and most of the speakers were white males who have succeeded in business life. Although during the recent years the diversity has increased, this subject remains on agenda (Neck- Greene, 2011).

Process Approach

This school of thought covers the whole process of a company; starting from the first day until it enters the market. This is why the topics such as financial markets, resource management, performance and growth are over-emphasized. The education method of process education is giving lectures in classrooms with the support of textbooks. The process is taught as a linear timeline so it starts from idea creation, concept development, resource management and ends with business practices and company exit. The educational tools of this approach are the business plan writing and case studies. This approach is the most capable one to be taken as a structure in terms of education since it is open to improvements and innovations. This is the reason behind the sales of the business plan education and taking “business plan” as the essential piece for entrepreneurs. However, even the venture capitalists prefer “action and evidence” instead of impressive business plans. The complementary to the planning studies of the basic entrepreneurship courses are the case studies. Although case studies are powerful tools which improve the decision taking skills in different subjects and positions, it is frequently seen that the educators have not been provided with sufficient training in this regard. This method always requires a significant amount of energy and time. This approach demands serious amounts of energy and lengths of time. The keyword for this approach is prediction. It teaches to predict through focusing on linear lifetime of a company but the phenomenon “entrepreneurship” is neither linear nor predictable (Neck-Greene, 2011).

Cognitive Approach

Neck-Greene (2011) theorize that Cognitive approach has been a topic of discussion for last 15 years and has been applied for 5 years. It aims to teach the thinking process of an entrepreneur. The main question it explores is; “How do people think as an entrepreneur?” Through this questioning a wider understanding can be grasped about the way that entrepreneurs take. The target of education in cognitive world is equipping students with necessary skills and building a high amount of self-esteem during this process because there is not only one type of an entrepreneur. Thus, according to him, the cognitive approach is concerned with how the people take the decision of becoming entrepreneurs. In the games and the simulations played as the education methodology, not only the incorporation of the companies but also the decision taking processes of the individuals is considered. The focus is the studies which make up the entrepreneurship mindset. The challenge faced by the cognitive world is that the challenges, entrepreneurial motivations, outputs and success definitions being so diverse (Neck- Greene, 2011).

The Method Approach

In this approach, entrepreneurship is considered as a way of thinking, applying and acting based on the techniques emphasizing creativity. Neck-Greene (2011) highlighted the hypothesis beyond these approaches in a number of ways. Neck-Greene argues that the Method Approach may be applied to anyone. In this case it may be applied to all groups of students regardless of the level of experience. The important thing is students' perception of themselves in entrepreneurial world. This is the foundation of the methodological approach. Two, this approach is inclusive; in other words, the company will be evaluated from multiple angles, thus success is a dimension unique to the conditions or the person. Three, it includes constant practices. The focus is on doing followed by learning. This is why the post-action evaluation is of significant importance. And four, this approach is suitable for the environments difficult to predict. The applications of this method are the project starting and implementation, games and simulations, design based learning and reflective evaluation (Neck- Greene, 2011).

Teachers' development and learning processes

The success of education and desired implementation is centrally focused on teachers' learning and reflection processes. Shulman & Shulman (2004) have created a model for teachers' development and learning processes. They say an accomplished teacher should be a member of a professional community and be ready, willing, and able to teach and to learn from his or her teaching experiences. According to Shulman & Shulman (2004), a teacher must be ready to teach. That means she or he is dissatisfied with the status quo and is thinking teaching as a process other than telling, and of learning as a process other than repeating or restating. In fact, Schwartz (2006) stresses that educational change, like curriculum reform, is more about educating teachers than students. Thus, we may assume, realizing entrepreneurship education is based on the idea of teachers' learning and their reflection.

Historical Perspective in Kenya

In Kenya, a variety of policies and programs have been enacted to facilitate the growth of the small enterprise sector. The small enterprise sector in Kenya is defined as being all of those businesses that employ 1-19 people. It is estimated that 2.1 million of Kenya's workforce are employed in the sector's 912,000 enterprises. The sector is growing at an impressive rate. In 1993, for example, it increased by 20 %, (Onyango & Tomecko, 1995). On the other hand, the large-enterprise sector recorded only a 2.3% growth in the same year. These growth rates indicate that, in the foreseeable future, small enterprises will employ three out of every four people looking for jobs in the nonagricultural sector of the economy. This is a primary reason

why the Government of Kenya should take an active interest in the continued growth and expansion of the small business sector emphasized the need for small enterprises to be nurtured as beacons for future growth. These enterprises were looked upon to provide the bulk of 400,000 new jobs the country aspired to generate annually from 1986 to the year 2000 (Pratt, 1996). Given the need for new job creation by the private enterprise sector, cooperation and interaction between government agencies, educational institutions, and the private sector are critical if these ambitious employment goals are to be achieved by the year 2000.

Like many developing countries in Africa, Kenya is facing a serious unemployment problem coupled with a declining standard of living, increasing disparity between the urban and rural regions of the country, and inadequate social and physical infrastructures to meet the needs of a rapidly growing population (Ferej, 1994). In the past, a widespread approach to the problem of limited job opportunities was through the establishment of large industrial complexes that were expected to provide many jobs and enhance the economic situation of the local area, (Charmes, 1990). This approach has been largely unsuccessful because it was overly capital-intensive in countries that had limited capital. It actually provided few new employment opportunities and exacerbated the gap between the rich and poor. Because of the failures of this approach, formal development efforts are now emphasizing the creation of small enterprises in the informal sector that are operated by self-employed individuals. While much of the job growth potential in developing countries seems to exist through the creation of small enterprises, the ultimate impact of new job creation through the informal sector may be limited for numerous reasons. First, much of the growth of private enterprise in the informal sector in Kenya has been spontaneous rather than a result of deliberate strategies within an overall government policy framework. Second, although large numbers of small enterprises may be created, their prospects for growth into medium-sized enterprises are limited (House, Ikiara, & McCormick, 1990; McCormick, 1988; Mwaura, 1994). Reasons for this lack of growth include 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). In addition, many of these small enterprises are owned by "first generation" entrepreneurs who have limited experience and are unwilling to take the necessary risks to expand their businesses. Third, while technology is a primary factor in economic development (Sherer & Perlman, 1992), it has had a limited impact on the growth of small enterprises because of political conflicts, economic restrictions, limited educational capabilities, and weak technological infrastructures (Githeko, 1996).

One approach to enhancing entrepreneurial activity and enterprise growth in developing Countries is to create an "enterprise culture" among the youth of the country (Nelson & Mburugu, 1991).By focusing on youth while they are still in school, this approach may provide a

long-term solution to the problem of job growth. To achieve a widespread "enterprise culture" in the long run, education and training programs in Kenya must integrate business, technology, self-employment, and entrepreneurship into the curriculum. This idea was supported by the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond (1988), which recommended that entrepreneurship training be taught in all technical training institutions. With its history firmly entrenched in the technical and occupational aspects of work, technical education is an ideal vehicle through which to create an "enterprise culture."

The Government of Kenya has recognized the potential of small enterprises to support the job growth requirements of the country by establishing an inter-ministerial unit on Small Enterprise Development (SED) within the Ministry of Planning and National Development (King, 1990). In a report developed collaboratively with the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and the International Labor Organization (ILO), Kenya was encouraged to develop a training capacity in entrepreneurship that could lead to the creation of an "enterprise culture" in the country (Republic of Kenya, 1990).

Entrepreneurship Education Project

One of the first efforts to move in the new direction to entrepreneurial development in Kenya involved introducing entrepreneurship education into all technical training institutions in the country. In 1990, the Ministry of Research, Technical Training and Technology (MRTT&T) initiated a four-year project to implement a new policy requiring all vocational and technical students to complete a Course in entrepreneurship education. The UNDP provided the funding and the ILO executed the project.

Creation of Organizational Units Within Institutions

A Department of Entrepreneurship Education has been initiated in most technical training institutions in Kenya. In addition, each institution was encouraged to develop a *Small Business Center* (SBC) whose mission (as described by the Ministry of Research, Technical Training and Technology) was to "facilitate the development of small and 'Jua Kali' enterprises [small artisan-run manufacturing and service enterprises] and promote an entrepreneurial culture within the institution and the local community" (Republic of Kenya, 1993). Initially, Small Business Centers were attached to seven technical training institutions to promote linkages between education and business and to facilitate entrepreneurship development at the local community level.

Curriculum development

An entrepreneurship education curriculum framework was created and syllabi were prepared for the artisan, craft, and technician levels of training. The entrepreneurship education program focuses on the pre- start level in vocational institutions where positive business and entrepreneurial attitudes need to be developed in trainees before they initiate the process of becoming self-employed. In addition, all trainees gain experience with business planning and are required to prepare a business plan before graduation.

Institutional Support for Entrepreneurship Education

The entrepreneurship education program was designed to develop the vast human potential for entrepreneurship that exists in Kenya. The development of proper attitudes toward self-employment and entrepreneurship is essential, and these concepts need to complement instruction in specific vocational and technical skill areas. More graduates could become self-employed if they understood the attitudes and skills needed to own and operate a business. They will also be able to make better informed decisions regarding self-employment as a potential career. Entrepreneurship education is now a required course (154 hours of instruction) in technical training institutions that are supported through the MRTT&T. These institutions include Youth Polytechnics, Technical Training Institutes, Institutes of Technology, and National Polytechnics, and Kenya Technical Teachers College. There are over 325 government-assisted Youth Polytechnics with enrollments of approximately 35,000 students. Entrepreneurship education is taught in the Youth Polytechnics for trainees in artisan and craft level courses. The Ministry's goal is to develop training programs in Youth Polytechnics that will encourage and facilitate trainees to become self-employed in the small enterprise sector after graduation, especially in the rural areas of Kenya.

Critique of Existing Literature and Research Gaps

There are numerous studies conducted on entrepreneurial education and its role to promoting entrepreneurship as a career choice particularly among the youth (Neck- Greene, 2011; Shulman & Shulman, 2004). The studies differ not only in their objectives, scope and methodology but also on their findings and recommendations. While as there are many such studies conducted of the literature is based outside of Africa particularly in Europe and United States of America.

Though there are certainly lessons that can be borrowed from such studies, the researcher recognizes that the economic and social context in these countries is significantly different from the African and particularly Kenyan context. Given the increasing attention given

to entrepreneurship education in Kenya as earlier noted in this study, and the fact that most of the current body of research is based in developed countries, this study seeks to contribute to a body of knowledge particularly on entrepreneurship education in Kenya.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The study used a survey design to assess the factors influencing the choice of Entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnics students in Vihiga County. This design has been defined by Gay, (1981) as a process of collecting data in order to test hypothesis or to answer questions concerning the subject under study.

Target Population

Cooper and Schindler (2008) observe that a population is the total collection of elements about which one wants to make inferences. Kothari (2004) defines population as the researcher's 'universe.' The study targeted 17 youth polytechnics namely Chanzweye, Kitulu, Karandini, South Maragoli, Boyani, Ebusiralo, Emmukunzi, Ematete, Givogi, St. Peters Hambale, Kaimosi, Keveye, Lotego, Maseno, Solongo, Gimomoi and Nzalwa with a final year student population of 1,208 students (KNBS, 2014). The students were considered for the study. These category of respondents was chosen because they are the major sources of information required under the study.

Sampling Design

Orodho and Kombo (2002) define a research sample as a finite and representative number of individuals or objects in a population to be studied. To obtain the sample, the study first sought the sampling frame. Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) define a sampling frame as a list of all the items from where a representative sample is drawn for the purpose of a study. In this study, it was a list of all the 1,208 students spread across the 17 youth polytechnics in the county.

According to Kothari (2002) as a rule of thumb the sample size should be at least 30 respondents though it will also be determined by target population size. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) a sample size of 10% could be considered as adequate. From the population of 1,208 students, 120 students was selected using stratified random sampling technique as indicated below.

Table 1. Sampling Design

NAME OF THE INSTITUTION	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	SAMPLE (10%)
Kitulu Youth Polytechnic	42	38	80	8
Keveye Youth Polytechnic	95	20	115	11
Boyani Youth Polytechnic	64	33	97	10
Ematete Youth Polytechnic	35	19	54	5
Solongo Youth Polytechnic	43	16	59	6
Emmukunzi Youth Polytechnic	58	22	80	8
Karandini Youth Polytechnic	35	26	61	6
Ebusiralo Youth Polytechnic	38	23	61	6
Nzalwa Youth Polytechnic	59	26	85	8
Gimomoi Youth Polytechnic	33	16	49	5
South Maragoli Youth Polytechnic	12	33	45	4
Chanzeywe Youth Polytechnic	32	16	48	4
Lotego Youth Polytechnic	33	18	51	5
Kaimosi Youth Polytechnic	68	41	109	11
Maseno Youth Polytechnic	76	24	100	10
Givigoi Youth Polytechnic	35	28	63	6
Hambale Youth polytechnic	56	21	77	7
Grand Total	808	400	1,208	120

Data Collection Instrument

A self-designed structured questionnaire was used to collect primary quantitative data. Part A was used to collect general information about the respondents like demographics. Part B was suitable for collecting information about the role of culture in influencing the choice of Entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students. Part C was suitable for collecting information about individual preference and how they influence the Choice of Entrepreneurship. Part D was suitable for collecting information about the role of individual capabilities in the choice of Entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County.

Pilot Study

Pilot study are used to ensure validity and reliability of the research instruments (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Van-Teijlingen & Hundley (2001) note that pre-testing is useful since it helps to establish whether the study techniques are effective and helps to uncover internal variabilities, hence making the instrument more objective. Muus and Baker-Demaray (2007) note that a pilot test should draw subjects from the target population.

Validity and Reliability of Questionnaire

Content validity of the questionnaire was tested by giving it to the Supervisor who identified items that are inadequate and suggest necessary corrections. Recommendations from the

Supervisor were incorporated in the final questionnaire. For face validity, the questionnaire was piloted on 10% of the potential respondents who were randomly picked. Insight obtained from the pilot survey was analyzed and used to make adjustments in the questionnaire.

Reliability of the questionnaire items was determined by using split-half method whereby the items of Part A will be correlated with items in Part B using spearman's Rank Correlation Co-efficient.

Data Collection Procedure

The questionnaires were administered to the respondents by the researcher himself and two other research assistants. The research assistants were briefed on the content of the questionnaire and on how to handle difficult queries from respondents.

Data Analysis and Presentation

Quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS 21 through descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Thematic analysis was used for qualitative data. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) qualitative data analysis seeks to make statements on how categories or themes of data are related. The study, therefore, grouped and analysed qualitative data in themes along the lines of the predetermined research objectives.

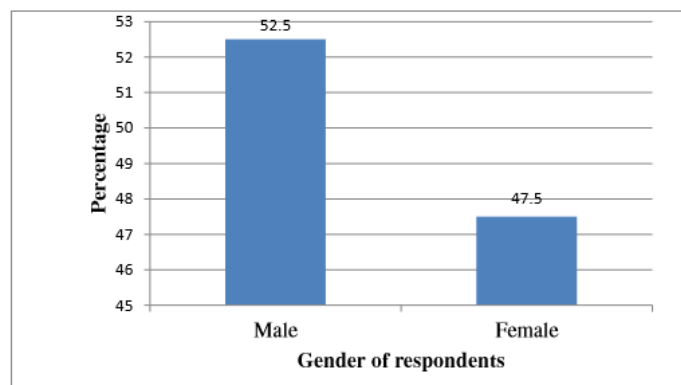
ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Demographic Profile

Gender of respondents

The male respondents were the majority with 52.5% (63) followed by the female respondents at 47.5% (57) as shown in figure 2 below. This implies a balanced gender in response on the respondents who participated in data collection.

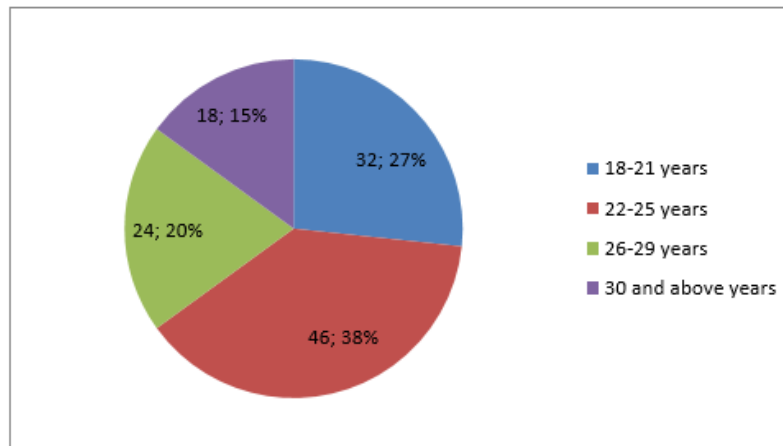
Figure 2: Gender of respondents



Age of respondents

The study findings shown in figure below show that 32% (27) of the respondents were aged between 18 to 21 years, 38% (46) were aged between 22 to 25 years representing the highest frequency of the respondents, 20% (24) were aged between 26-29 years and 15% (18) were aged above 30 years. This represents a good number in participation by all age groups.

Figure 3: Age of respondents



Course being pursued by the student in the polytechnic

From the findings on the courses studied by the students in the polytechnic, table below presents results that were obtained. Most students pursued Food and Beverages courses at 34%, (41) those who pursued business courses were at 29%, and Building and Construction courses students were 23% (27) while those pursuing Hair & Beauty courses were at 14% (17). The findings represent a good representation from all courses participated.

Table 2: Course pursued by student

Course pursued by student	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Business Courses	35	29
Building/Construction	27	23
Food & Beverage	41	34
Hair & Beauty	17	14

Training on entrepreneurship as part of the course

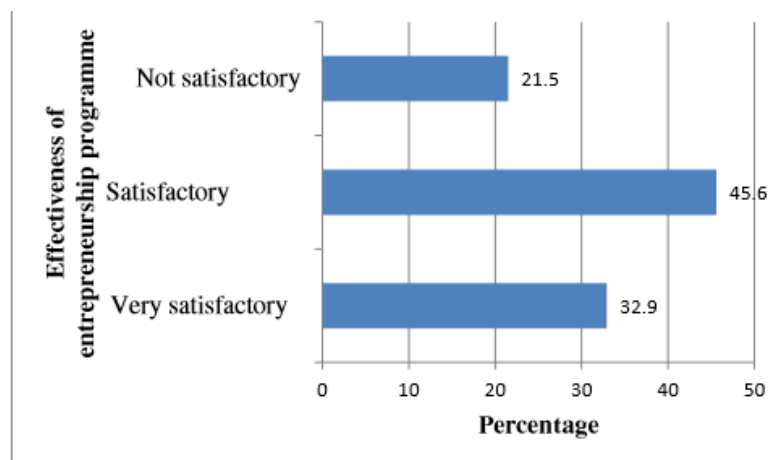
The research findings on training on entrepreneurship as part of the course in the study found out that most students were being trained forming 67% (80) of the total responses while the rest

were not being trained, equivalent to 33% (40) of the students. This shows the importance of training on entrepreneurship in the polytechnic schools of Vihiga County.

Effectiveness of the entrepreneurship programme

Results presented on Figure 4 below show study findings on effectiveness of entrepreneurship programme, where 45.6% (55) of the respondents were satisfied while 32.9% (40) were very satisfied. Those who were not satisfied were the least comprising of 21.5 %.(25). This shows that the effectiveness of the entrepreneurship programme was high in the region.

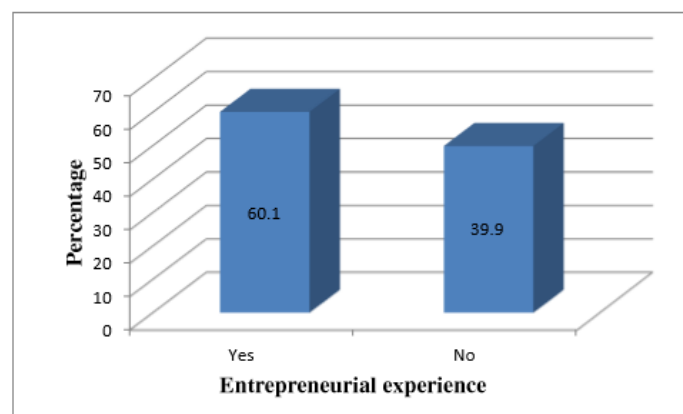
Figure 4: Effectiveness of the entrepreneurship programme



Entrepreneurial experience during the study

The research findings obtained show that the majority of the respondents at 60.1% (72) had a hands on experience on entrepreneurship while 39.9% (48) didn't have entrepreneurial experience as shown in the figure 5 below.

Figure 5: Entrepreneurial experience



Experience description

The research findings on the experience of students on entrepreneurial issues found out that most students were involved in assisting in financial management at 36% (43) while general running of the business was at 34% (43) as shown in table below. This shows that a good number of students were involved in entrepreneurial works.

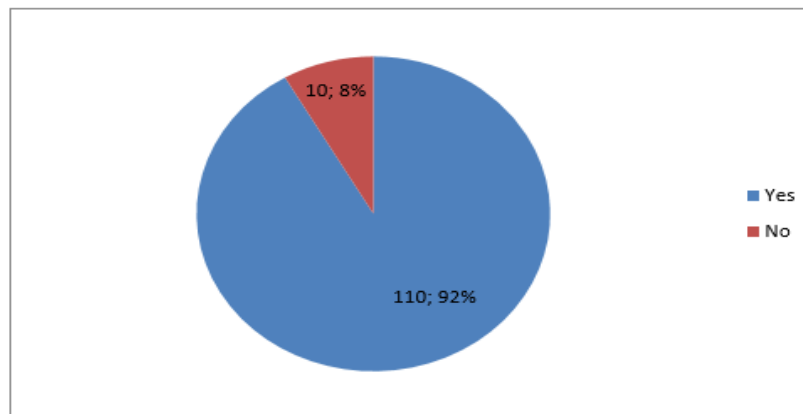
Table 3: Experience Description

Experience description	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Running of business	41	34
Accounts	43	36
Assistants	36	30
Total	120	100

Knowledge on business owners within locality

The study findings obtained students' knowledge on business owners within the respondents' locality; most students had knowledge on business owners forming 92% (110) of the total responses. The rest 8% (10) had no knowledge on business ownership within their locality. This represents a good number of students who had knowledge on business ownership.

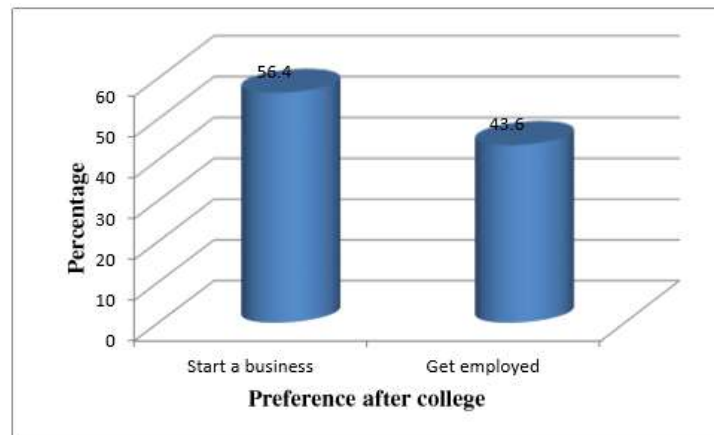
Figure 6: Knowledge on business owners within locality



Preference after college

Findings from the study shown in figure below found out that the majority would prefer to start their own businesses forming 56.4% (68) of the respondents. The rest 43.6% (52) would prefer to get employed first.

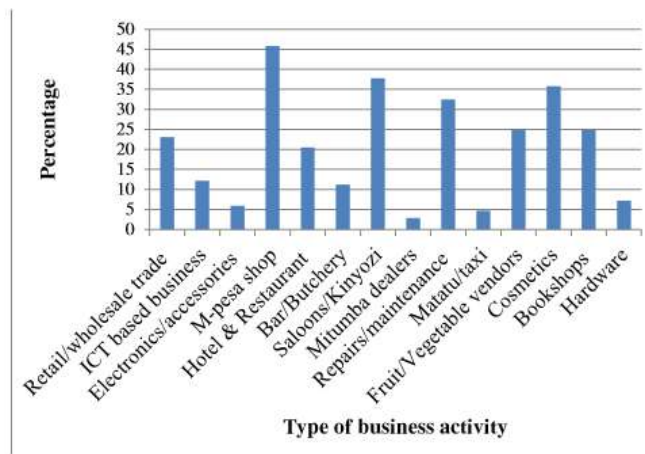
Figure 7: Preference after college



Type of business activity engaged in after college

The findings obtained from the study on the type of activity the students would like to engage after college, the majority would prefer matatu business forming 42.8% while the least would prefer Mitumba dealing as shown the figure below. 12.1% would prefer ICT based business, while cosmetics at 35.8% were also among the most preferred businesses.

Figure 8: Type of business activity engaged in after college

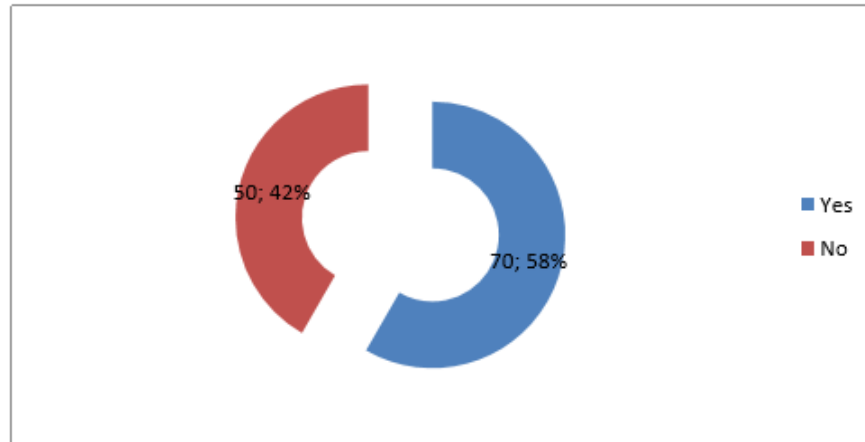


The role of culture in promoting the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County

Family business ownership

The study findings obtained from the study on family business ownership, most respondents said their families has/ had owned businesses before representing 58% (70) while the rest 42% (50) have never owned a business before.

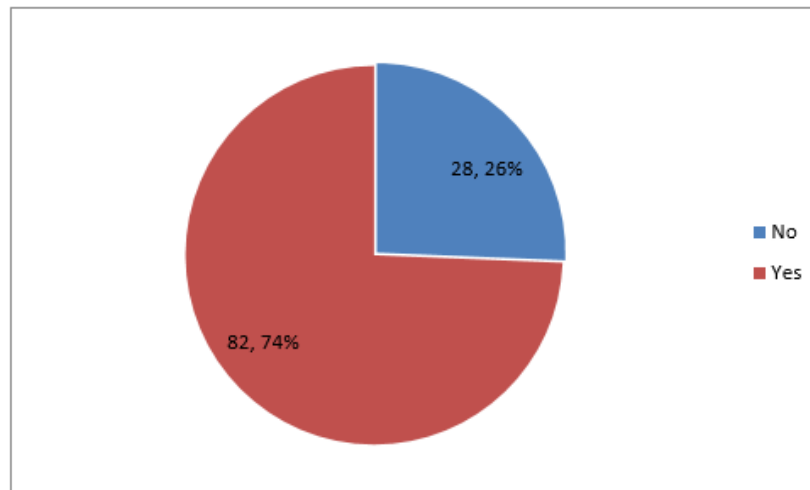
Figure 9: Family business ownership



Involvement in the running of the business

The results shown in figure below show that majority of the students have been involved in direct running of the businesses, representing 74% (82) of the responses. The remaining 26% (28) have never involved in running the businesses before. This shows desires in entrepreneurial skills by the students in Vihiga County.

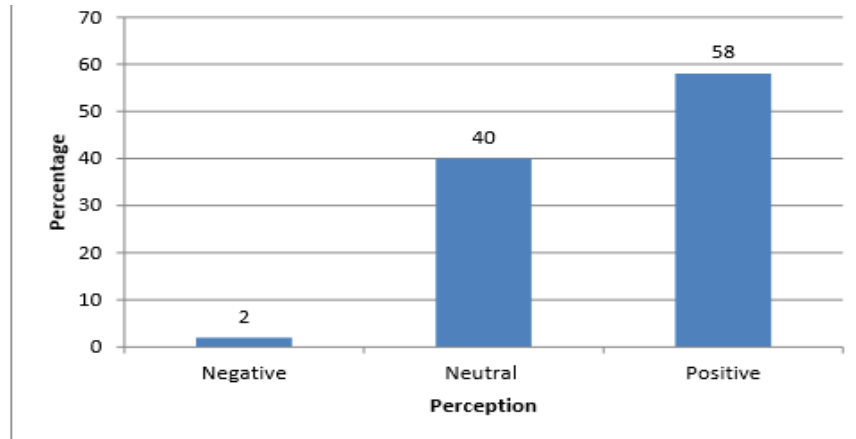
Figure 10: Involvement in the running of the business



Perception towards people who are successful in business

The study findings on perception towards people who are successful in business, most students had a positive perception making 58% (70), 40% (48) had a neutral perception while only 2% (2) had a negative perception toward successful people in business.

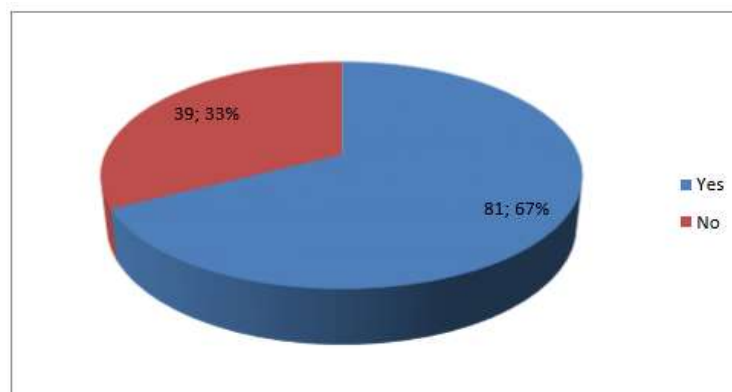
Figure 11: Perception towards people who are successful in business



Role models who are engaged in entrepreneurship full time

Figure below shows study findings on having role models who are actively engaged in entrepreneurship full time, where most students had role models (67%) (81) while 33% (39) did not have role models.

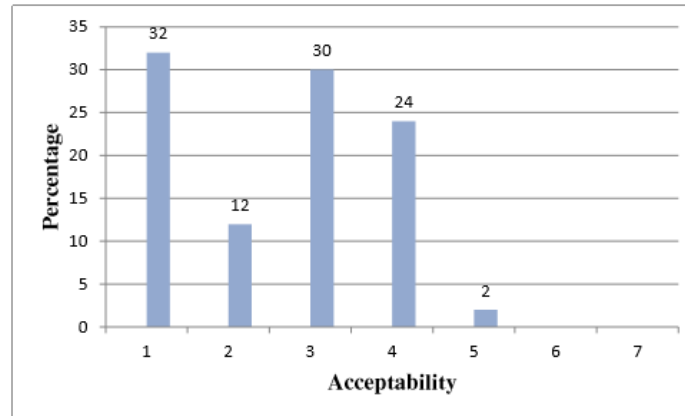
Figure 12: Role models who are engaged in entrepreneurship full time



Acceptability of the rich and poor in the same society

Figure below shows ratings on acceptability of the rich and poor in the same society where 1 represents (total disagreement), 2 (slightly agree), 3 (Neutral), 4 (Agree) and 5 (Strongly agree). Most students were in total disagreement that its acceptable forming 32% of the responses, followed by those who had a neutral view while those who slightly agreed were the minimum making 12% of the responses as shown in the figure below.

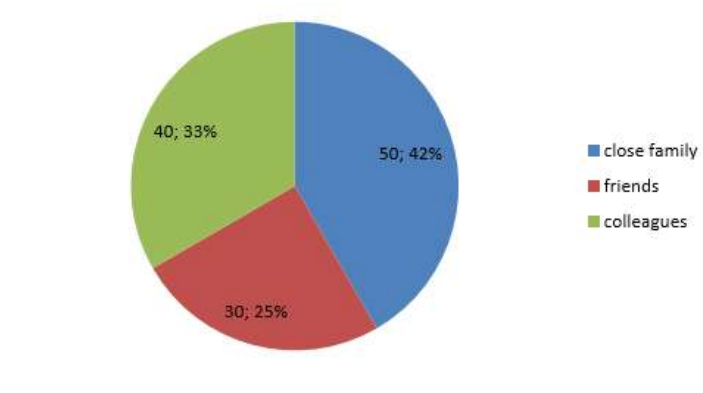
Figure 13: Acceptability of the rich and poor in the same society



Approval of own firm

Results obtained on approval of own firm if the student decided to start their own business, most respondents said their close family would approve of the firm forming 42% (50) of the responses, followed by colleagues at 33% (40) and friends formed the least respondents equivalent to 25% (30) as shown in the figure below.

Figure 14: Approval of own firm

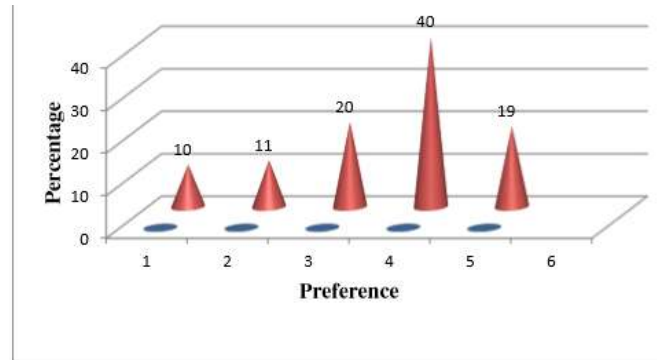


The role of individual preferences in the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County

Preference to be own boss before graduation

Study findings obtained on preference to be own boss before graduation, most students will prefer to be their own bosses at 40% (48) while the least number was in total disagreement with being own bosses before graduation as shown below. 1 represents (total disagreement) 2 (slightly agree) 3 (Neutral) 4 (Agree) 5 (Strongly agree).

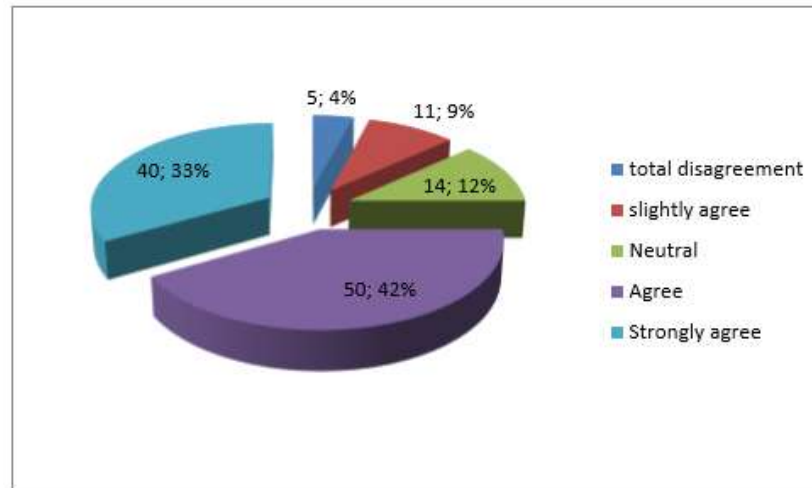
Figure 15: Preference to be own boss before graduation



Making more money

Figure below shows findings on responses from students on whether they are inclined to making more money for themselves. Those who strongly agreed formed the majority with 42% (50) of the responses while those who totally disagreed were the least with 4% (5) as shown in the figure below. This brings out the relationship between their preferences to be their own bosses with expectations of making profits from it.

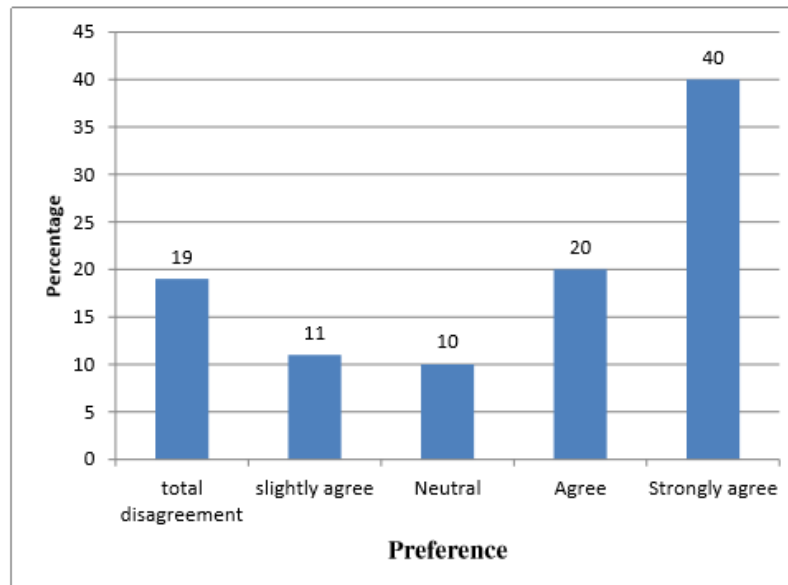
Figure 16: Making more money



Preference of flexible working hours to a pre-arranged work programme

Figure below shows results on preferences of flexible working hours to a pre-arranged work programme. Most students neutrally agreed forming 40% (48) of the responses, those who agreed were 20% (24), 19% (23) were in total disagreement while 10% (12) strongly agreed.

Figure 17: Preference of flexible working hours to a pre-arranged work programme



Adaption to new ideas

Research findings on adoption to new ideas, most students agreed that they would adapt to new ideas in running of businesses making 42.5% (50) of the responses, 24% (29) strongly agreed, 17% (20) had no idea while there were no respondents on total disagreement. Table 4 below shows the summary of the results on adoptability to new ideas.

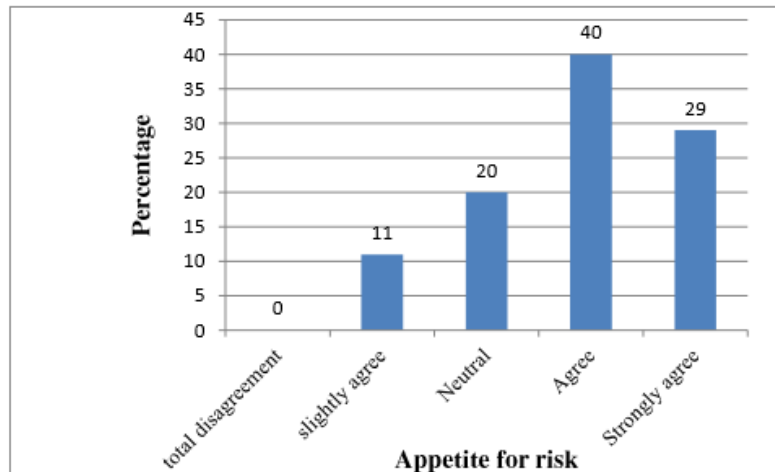
Table 4: Adaption to new ideas

I adapt quickly to new ideas	Frequency	Percentage
total disagreement	0	0
slightly agree	21	17.5
Neutral	20	17
Agree	50	42.5
Strongly agree	29	24

Appetite for risk

The study findings on appetite for risk show that most students agreed that they had an appetite for risk (40%) (48), 29% (35) strongly agreed, 20% (24) had a no idea while those who slightly agreed were 11% as shown below.

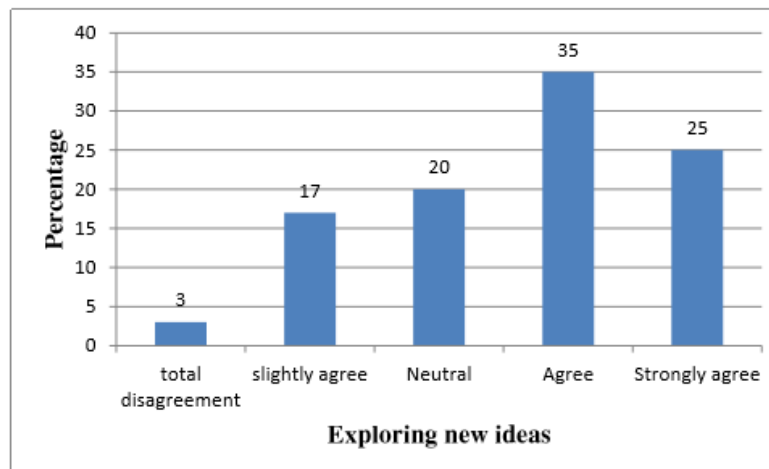
Figure 18: Appetite for risk



Exploring new ideas

On exploring new ideas, the research found out that most students agreed that they would explore new ideas forming 35% (42) of the total responses, followed by those who agreed at 25% (30) while those who were in total disagreement were the least with 3%.

Figure 19: Exploring new ideas

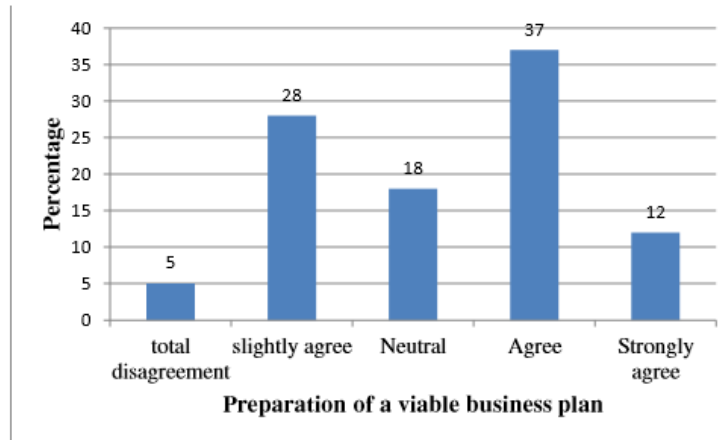


Individual capabilities and how they enhance the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among the youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County

Preparation of a viable business plan

Figure below shows results on responses on whether students could prepare a viable business plan. 37% (44) agreed that could prepare the plan, 28% (34) slightly agree, 18% (22) no idea on how it's prepared, 12% (14) strongly agreed while 5% (6) were in total disagreement.

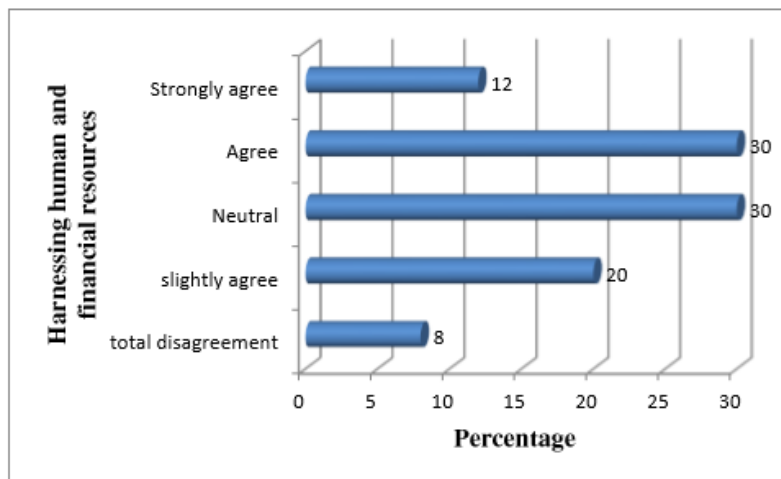
Figure 20: Preparation of a viable business plan



Harnessing the human and financial resources required to start a business

Study findings on harnessing the human and financial resources required to start a business show that those who were neutral and those who agreed formed the majority with 30% (36) each, while those who were in total disagreement were the least with 8% (10).

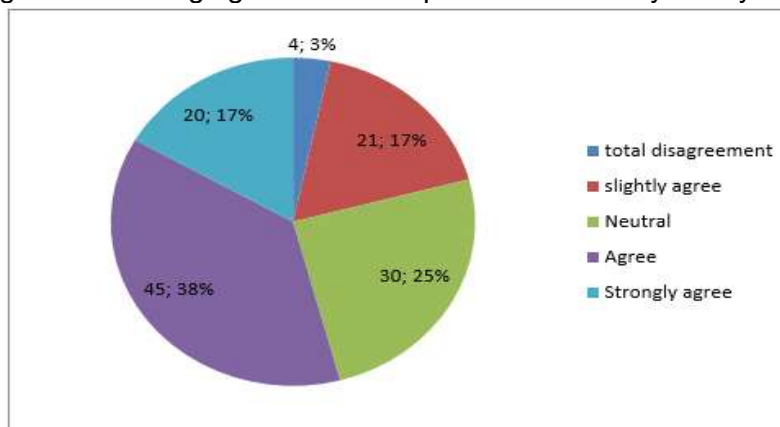
Figure 21: Harnessing the human and financial resources required to start a business



Managing a business' operations on a day to day basis

Research findings from the study shown in figure below indicate responses on managing a business on a day to day basis. Those who agreed were the majority with 38% (45) followed by those who strongly agreed at 25% (30), those who slightly agreed at 17% (21) as well as those who had no idea while total disagreement responses formed least responses at 3% (4).

Figure 22: Managing a business' operations on a day to day basis



Solving business challenges as they arise

Findings from the study on solving business challenges indicate that 34% (41) agreed they would solve them; the neutral and slightly agreement were both at 25% (30) while those who strongly agreed were at 16% (19). There were no responses on total disagreement.

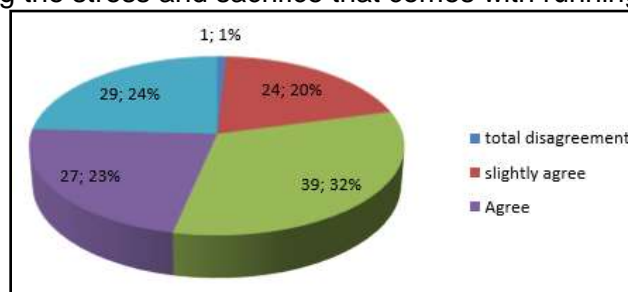
Table 5: Solving business challenges as they arise

Solving business challenges as they arise	Frequency	Percentage
Total disagreement	0	0
Slightly agree	30	25
Neutral	30	25
Agree	41	34
Strongly agree	19	16

Handling the stress and sacrifice that comes with running my own enterprise

Study findings on handling the stress and sacrifice that comes with running businesses show that 32% (39) strongly agreed, 23% (27) agreed, 24% (29) had a no idea, 20% (24) slightly agreed while 1% (1) totally disagreed as shown in the figure below.

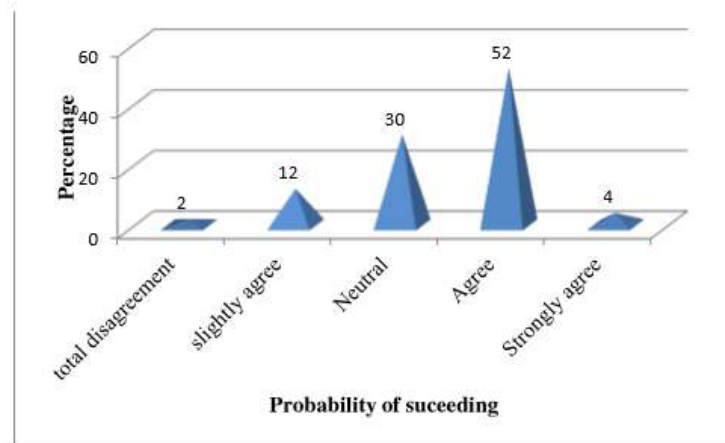
Figure 23: Handling the stress and sacrifice that comes with running my own enterprise



Probability of succeeding in a started firm

Figure below shows results on responses on if the students will succeed if they started their own firms. 52% (63) agreed they would succeed, 30% (37) were doubtful, 12% (14) slightly agreed, 4% (5) strongly agreed while 2% (3) totally disagreed.

Figure 24: Probability of succeeding in a started firm



Correlation Analysis

The study sought to establish correlation between the dependent variable and each of the independent variable. Correlation which is a statistical technique employed in this study to show the strength of pairs of variable is used to examine the association between Entrepreneurial Culture, Individual Preference and Individual Capabilities with Choice of Entrepreneurship career. The correlation test was conducted at the 5% level of significance with a 2-tailed test.

Correlation between entrepreneur culture and choice of Entrepreneurship career

The findings illustrated in table 6 show that, entrepreneur culture and entrepreneurship have a positive and significant association. The correlation coefficient for early exposure to entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship is 0.624 with a significance value of 0.000 which is less than 0.025 at the 5% level. The coefficient for the association between failure to tolerance and entrepreneurship was 0.599 with a p-value of 0.014 which is also less than 0.025. From the table also, the correlation coefficient for the association between role models and entrepreneurship is 0.694 with a p-value of 0.019 less than 0.025 depicting a significant correlation between the variables.

Table 6: Correlation between entrepreneur culture and choice of Entrepreneurship career

		Individual preference	Failure to tolerance	Role models	Entrepreneurship career
Individual preference	Pearson Correlation	1	.770**	-.230	.624**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.056	.000
Failure to tolerance	Pearson Correlation	.770**	1	-.028	.599*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.820	.014
Role models	Pearson Correlation	-.230	-.028	1	.694*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	.820		.019
Entrepreneurship career	Pearson Correlation	.624**	.599*	.694*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.014	.019	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation between Individual Preference and choice of Entrepreneurship career

According to the research findings in table 7, individual preference and entrepreneurship career have a positive and significant association. The correlation coefficient for the association between desire for profit and entrepreneurship career is 0.644 with a significance value of 0.015 which is less than 0.025 at the 5% level. Desired way of life indicated a significant association with entrepreneurship career with a correlation coefficient of 0.548 with a p-value of 0.023, less than 0.025. Findings as well shows that desired independence and entrepreneurship career are significantly associated with a correlation coefficient of 0.661 and a p-value of 0.018 which is less than 0.025 indicating the significance of the association.

Table 7: Correlation between Individual Preference and choice of Entrepreneurship career

		Desire for profit	Desired way of life	Desired independence	Entrepreneurship career
Desire for profit	Pearson Correlation	1	.770**	.230	.644*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.056	.015
Desired way of life	Pearson Correlation	.770**	1	.028	.548*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.820	.023
Desired independence	Pearson Correlation	-.230	-.028	1	.661*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	.820		.018
Entrepreneurship career	Pearson Correlation	.644*	.548*	.661*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.023	.018	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation between Individual Capabilities and choice of Entrepreneurship career

Findings in table 8 indicate that individual capabilities have a strong association with entrepreneurship career. Entrepreneurial skills and entrepreneurship career had a correlation coefficient of 0.704 and a significant value of 0.020. Self-efficacy and Entrepreneurship career had a correlation co-efficient of 0.685 and a p-value of 0.024. The association is therefore statistically significant at the 5% level with 0.024 and 0.003 respectively, since these values are less than 0.025.

Table 8: Correlation between Individual Capabilities and choice of Career

		Entrepreneurial skills	Self-efficacy	Entrepreneurship career
Entrepreneurial skills	Pearson Correlation	1	.770**	.704
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.020
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.770**	1	.685
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.024
Entrepreneurship career	Pearson Correlation	.704	.685	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020	.024	

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Qualitative Data Results

Other factors considered having an influence on choice of Entrepreneurship as a career

Most of the respondents from all youth polytechnics noted their gender, childhood fantasies and their abilities as having a major role to play when they are choosing their careers. None expressed a feeling of what their parents want them to be in future as a factor in the choice of careers. The following were the response given by some of the respondents on other factors considered to have influence on the choice of their careers.

-Obviously I can't do construction jobs, those are careers that require execution and use of a lot of energy. Those jobs should be left to the men to handle. We girls are fragile and can't do that.

-I choose what to do because that is what I like. I have loved to be an engineer since I was a young boy. I could make toy cars and often wire our house with fake wires, and claim electricity was now in our home. My parents could laugh. I am glad am now taking an electrical engineering course and my dream is finally coming true.

-Career choice depends on what you can actually do. U can't imagine somebody like who can't even inject a rat to be a doctor. No, I can't do that. I am an eloquent speaker, and I think I can make a very good marketer in any industry, or rather a journalist.

Generally, the views of the respondents on the other factors influencing the choice of Entrepreneurship as a career were recorded and analyzed in the tables below.

Table 9: Other factors

Response Statement	Low influence		High influence		Very high influence	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Lack of affordable capital	15	15	30	31	53	54
Availability of training	13	14	36	37	49	50
Poor Infrastructure	16	17	39	40	43	44

From table above, it's evident that most of the participants (85%) respondent to the fact that in deed lack of affordable capital influences the choice of entrepreneurship as a carrier among most of the people in the county of Vihiga. A higher percentage (87%) alluded to the fact that lack of customized training is also another factor that affects the choice of entrepreneurship as a carrier among most of the people in Vihiga County. More of the participants (84%) were of the view that, poor state of roads and other infrastructure like irregular electricity and water supply was a factor to look into while choosing entrepreneurship as a carrier among many of the people in the region.

- **Recommendations to the polytechnic on promoting entrepreneurship culture among students**

The researcher asked the respondents to recommend to the polytechnic on ways to promote entrepreneurship culture among its students. The responses obtained show that most students would prefer regular trainings and mentorship on career programmes and provision of more e-learning and training materials to the students as a way of enhancing entrepreneurship culture. The Role of business incubation, business clubs, exchange programmes and membership to online entrepreneurship fora was also emphasized. It can therefore be presumed that if the various polytechnics enhance the above aspects in the delivery of Entrepreneurship training, then there is a high probability of most students venturing into self-employment.

Some of the respondents had the following concerning entrepreneurship culture enhancement among students

-Most students come here without a clear picture of what course they are going to do. This is because they lack information on what these courses entail, their benefits and how they can be applied in life. So they end up choosing any course without proper information. I think the polytechnic should conduct more career counselling and offer regular mentorship programmes to curb this.

-Actually I chose this course because I realized it had more learning materials than the others especially on the Internet. I think the polytechnic should provide more-learning materials so that there can be a balance in all courses. This will reduce bias in course selection.

- **How attendance of Business skills training, guidance and Counselling session on Entrepreneurship affects career choice**

The respondents were asked on whether they have attended any business skills training, guidance and Counseling sessions before and how they affected their career choice. Those who responded said these sessions had an impact on their career choice. Here are some of the responses by respondents.

Respondent I: There is a business training programme I attended in Masinde Muliro University which was organized by the university to educate the area youths. The speaker who was giving the speech actually made me have an interest in doing a business course that's why I am majoring in accounting. To me, these training programmes shape a person and make him to realize a potential one has never imagined before.

Respondent II: My parents wanted me to be a Teacher, but I wanted to be a Beauty expert. So we decided to go and see the guidance and counselling master together. It is that session that actually made them realize how important becoming a beautician was to me. Am proud of guidance and counselling sectors in shaping career choice by students.

- **Membership in clubs and how it affects career choice**

The students were asked if they have ever been a member of any business club and or a trade association. Most of those who gave a positive response said that the clubs had an impact on career choice. Some of the respondents reported that:

-I am in a club that relates to my career. Like now I am in the young incubators club because I am doing a Construction course. I think it fits me in my career field in future.

-I think clubs are meant to improve on our understanding of our careers. Like now, we really learn more about our career in addition to what we learn in class from the clubs.

However, some respondents did not reflect club membership in affecting career choice. This respondent reported that:

-Am doing a Construction/Building course. But I love nature too. So am also a member of the environmental club and I enjoy going to clean ups, as well as nature conservation trips organized by the environmental club.

- **Participation in online business networks and virtual meeting places that promote entrepreneurship among young people**

The researcher sought to know whether the respondents were participating in online business networks and virtual meeting places that promote entrepreneurship among young people. However, most students did not participate in the online networks properly because of they lack access to Internet as most polytechnics does not have Internet enabled computer facilities . Only one respondent was participating and this was her response.

-I participate in Biznik online platform. It is actually important to me because it promotes entrepreneurs and small businesses with the main aim of helping each other in being successful.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The role of culture in promoting the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County

This study found out that entrepreneurial programmes are market-driven and adapted to the local ecosystem. This study is supported by European Commission (2000), which found out that the world needs a greater focus on entrepreneurship and innovation to help spur competitiveness, growth and job creation. However, those who are attracted to entrepreneurship solely based on their perceived notions of a satisfying entrepreneurial lifestyle did not form stronger intentions to start a business than others. The results did, however, affirm the moderating effect of the reward of profit, which indicates that individuals who seek challenge and excitement in their occupational endeavors (a satisfying way of life) form robust entrepreneurial intentions only when they perceive that they can earn potentially limitless, financial rewards (profits). What can be assumed, in a general context, is that an individual, who is attracted to the perceived outcomes of an entrepreneurial career, will be motivated to initiate entrepreneurial behavior if such effort is reasonably expected to result in their acquiring these valuable second-order rewards.

Also most students were interested in entrepreneurship as supported by Rok (2004). Underlying issues include the mindset and skills of young people and this is in line with the European Commission, (2002) and low exposure to entrepreneurship combined with the lack of role models and the repercussions for failure can affect the choice for entrepreneurship. Therefore, Entrepreneurship education can help promote an entrepreneurial and innovative culture by improving mindsets and providing the necessary skills.

The role of individual preferences in the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County

Most students would prefer to start their own businesses before finishing college. Individuals who perceive entrepreneurship as advantageous based on their attraction for independence and profits form stronger intentions to pursue entrepreneurial careers than others as supported by Brice et al, (2008).As well, most students had a high appetite for risks. Gatewood (1993) supports this study. In his study *"Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice"*, individuals are rational, they understand the possible consequences of their actions, and make selections among options based on a merger of the value of the outcomes and the probability that the outcomes will be achieved. There are three potential reward categories that are posited to influence individuals to pursue entrepreneurial careers-the rewards of profit, independence, and a satisfying way of life as Reynolds, P (1988; Longenecker, Moore, & Petty (2000) also found out.

The mere presence of appropriate personality traits that render an individual intrinsically suited for venturing does not guarantee entrepreneurial behavior (Shaver & Scott, 1991). Kirzner (1973) stressed that entrepreneurs are not only those that discover market opportunities, but also that they must act upon these prospects whenever possible. Based on Kirzner's rationale, it may be reasoned that a defining factor for prospective entrepreneurs is likely the willingness to pursue favorable opportunities once they are exposed. In this context, only those individuals who are motivated enough to pursue entrepreneurial careers, in deference to other possible choices can be considered entrepreneurs. According to the expectancy theory of motivation, individuals are rational, they understand the possible consequences of their actions, and make selections among options based on a merger of the value of the outcomes and the probability that the outcomes will be achieved (Gatewood, 1993). What can be assumed, in a general context, is that an individual, who is attracted to the perceived outcomes of an entrepreneurial career, will be motivated to initiate entrepreneurial behavior if such effort is reasonably expected to result in their acquiring these valuable second-order rewards. There are three potential reward categories that are posited to influence

individuals to pursue entrepreneurial careers—the rewards of profit, independence, and a satisfying way of life (Reynolds, P, 1988; Longenecker, Moore, & Petty, 2000). First, the reward of profit is the entrepreneur's expectation of earning a yield that will recompense them for the time and capital that they have devoted as well as for the risks and initiative they take in running the business. This reward is deemed the primary basis for initiating any profit-making enterprise. Without the hope of profit, there is no entrepreneurial opportunity (Kirzner, 1973). Second, the reward of independence is the expectation of freedom from supervision, rules, and bureaucracy (Reynolds, P, 1988; Longenecker, Moore, & Petty, 2000). This reward is symptomatic of an entrepreneur's desire to be one's own boss and experience the autonomy of pursuing whatever course holds personal interest. The reward of independence is attained and sustained as a result of profitable venturing. Lastly, the reward of a satisfying way of life is the expectation of freedom from routine, boring, and unchallenging jobs (Reynolds, P, 1988; Longenecker, Moore, & Petty, 2000).

Individual capabilities and how they enhance the choice of entrepreneurship as a career among the youth polytechnic students in Vihiga County

Most students had capabilities as far as choice of entrepreneurship careers is concerned. Most could prepare business plans, manage business operations, solve business challenges, have a possibility to success, but an average possibility to harness human and financial resources and handle stress. Many researchers have acknowledged the role of entrepreneurial intention as the most effective predictor of entrepreneurial activity as supported Krueger et al. (2000).

It can be theorized that entrepreneurial intention is formed directly by individual perceptions, which are shaped by aggregate conditions. The mostly researched and acknowledged antecedent of entrepreneurial intention is 'perceived capabilities', also known as self-efficacy.

The most effective way for individuals to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy is through mastery experiences or repeated performance accomplishments (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Enactive mastery provides confirming experiences that contribute to positive estimations of future performance (Lent & Hackett, 1987). However, when people experience only easy successes, they become quickly discouraged by failure when it occurs. In order to gain a more stable and resilient sense of self-efficacy, it is necessary to have direct experience in overcoming obstacles through effort and perseverance (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

Proficient role models convey effective strategies for managing situations and they affect self-efficacy through a social comparison process (Wood & Bandura, 1989). That is, people form judgments of their own capabilities by comparing themselves to others. Through

observational learning, an individual estimates the relevant skills and behavior used by a role model in performing a task, approximates the extent to which those skills are similar to his or her own, and infers the amount of effort versus skill that would be required to reach the same results (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The effects of modeling are enhanced when there is a perceived similarity between the subject and model in terms of personal characteristics and capabilities and when the modeled behavior produces obvious consequences or results (Gist, 1987; Bandura, 1977).

The third way in which self-efficacy may be strengthened is through social persuasion. Both persuasive discussions and specific performance feedback may be used to provide information regarding a person's ability to perform a task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). If people receive positive feedback and realistic encouragement directed at convincing them that they are capable of performing a task, they may be more likely to exert greater effort (Gist, 1987; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

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APPENDIX: QUESTIONNAIRE

Please tick in the appropriate box and also fill in the blank spaces provided for those questions where elaborate answers are required. You are requested to complete this questionnaire as honestly and objectively as possible. Use the space at the back of this questionnaire if you need more space for your responses.

PART ONE: RESPONDENT'S PROFILE

-) Age;
 - 18-21 years
 - 22-25 years
 - 26-29 years
 - 30 and above years

- What is your Gender? Male Female
- What course are you pursuing in the polytechnic?
.....
- Have you been trained on entrepreneurship as part of your course in the polytechnic?
Yes No
- If yes, how would you rate the effectiveness of the entrepreneurship programme
Very satisfactory
Satisfactory
Not satisfactory
- Have you had any entrepreneurial experience during your study?
Yes No
- If yes for the above, briefly describe the experience
.....
.....
.....
- Do you know of anybody within your locality who owns/had a business?
Yes No
- What would you prefer to do after college?
a) Start a business b) Get employed
- If a) above what type of business activity would you like to be engaged in after college?
 - a) Retail/wholesale trade
 - b) ICT based business
 - c) Electronics/accessories
 - d) M-pesa shop
 - e) Hotel & Restaurant
 - f) Bar/Butchery
 - g) Saloons/Kinyozi
 - h) Mitumba dealers
 - i) Repairs/maintenance
 - j) Matatu/taxi
 - k) Fruit/Vegetable vendors
 - l) Cosmetics
 - m) Bookshops
 - n) Hardware
 - o) Others.....

PART TWO: CULTURE

- i) Does/did your father/Mother own a business?
Yes No
- ii) If yes, were you/are you involved in the running of the business
Yes No
- iii) If yes, briefly describe the role played in the running of the business
.....
.....
.....
- iv) How would you describe your perception towards people who are successful in business?
Negative
Neutral
Positive
- v) Do you have role models who are engaged in entrepreneurship full time?
Yes No
- vi) How would you describe their influence on your career decision?

.....

vii) Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements - where 1 represents (total disagreement) 2 (slightly agree) 3 (Neutral) 4 (Agree) 5 (Strongly agree).

		1	2	3	4	5
	It is acceptable to me for some people to be poor and others to be rich in the same society					
	If you decided to create a firm, the following people in your close environment would approve of that:					
a	Your close family					
b	Your friends					
c	Your colleagues					

PART THREE: INDIVIDUAL PREFERENCE

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements - where 1 represents (total disagreement) 2 (slightly agree) 3 (Neutral) 4 (Agree) 5 (Strongly agree).

		1	2	3	4	5
1	I prefer to be my own boss after I graduate					
2	I am inclined to making more money for myself					
3	I prefer flexible working hours compared to a pre-arranged work programme					
4	I adapt quickly to new ideas					
5	I have a high appetite for risk					
6	I like exploring new ideas, places and people					

PART FOUR: PERCEIVED CAPABILITIES

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements - where 1 represents (total disagreement) 2 (slightly agree) 3 (Neutral) 4 (Agree) 5 (Strongly agree).

		1	2	3	4	5
1	I can prepare a viable business plan					
2	I can harness the human and financial resources required to start a business					
3	I can manage a business' operations on a day to day basis					
4	I can solve business challenges as they arise					
5	I can balance family and business commitments					
6	I can handle the stress and sacrifice that comes with running my own enterprise					
7	If I tried to start a firm, I would have a high probability of succeeding					

PART FIVE: OTHER FACTORS

i) Apart from above factors, what other factors would you considers to have an influence on your choice of Entrepreneurship as a career?

.....

ii) What would you recommend to your polytechnic to promote entrepreneurship culture among its students?

.....

iii) Have you ever attended any Business skills training, guidance and Counselling session on Entrepreneurship?

Yes No

iv) If yes, how has it influenced your choice of Entrepreneurship as a career?

.....
.....

v) Have you ever been a member of any business club and or a trade association?

Yes No

vi) If yes, how has it affected your choice of Entrepreneurship as a career?

.....
.....

vii) Do you participate in any online business networks and virtual meeting places that promote Entrepreneurship among young people?

Yes No

viii) If so give details of such platforms

.....
.....