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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEDIA PROGRAMMES
AND PROMOTION OF ENTREPRENEURIAL CULTURE
AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN KENYA**

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DECLARATION

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

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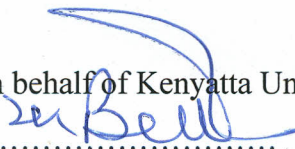
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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my mother Elizabeth Sakyibea and my siblings whose love for education and inspiration has remained my aspiration.

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ABSTRACT

The role of media in the development of entrepreneurship is an emerging research theme. Some studies have concluded that media and specifically the TV promote entrepreneurial intentions, actions and aspirations in the United Kingdom. However, studies that forge these propositions in an African setting and specifically Kenya are scanty. This study investigated the relationship between media programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture among university students in Nairobi, Kenya. The study employed a triangulation of descriptive and explanatory designs. Stratified and multi stage sampling method was used to obtain a cross sectional survey of 320 university students within the ten selected universities used in this study. A self administered questionnaire was used to collect primary data. Data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistical tools with the help of SPSS software. Specifically, correlation was used to determine the association between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture, while regression analysis was used to validate the effect of entrepreneurship education on the media programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture. Results from hypotheses testing indicate that there is significant relationship between TV programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. TV programmes exhibited significant values at ($p < 0.01$), radio programmes ($p < 0.01$) newspaper ($p < 0.01$). Entrepreneurship education has a significant influence on the effect of predictor variables on the entrepreneurial culture, R^2 change was 2.5%. Entrepreneurial culture was measured using entrepreneurial mindset, business start up motives and entrepreneurial orientation. Four dimension were used under entrepreneurial orientation; proactiveness, perseverance, innovativeness and risk taking propensity. All newspaper publications and TV programmes were identified as effective media for the promotion of entrepreneurial culture in terms of entrepreneurial mindset, business start up motives and entrepreneurial orientation. However, each programme has its own strength and degree to which it can promote or influence entrepreneurial culture. It was again found that not all radio programmes can be used as a medium to promote all the indicators of entrepreneurial culture used in this study. For instance there was no relationship between radio news and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. On the whole newspaper publications were identified as the most effective medium for the promotion of entrepreneurial culture. Interesting, among the three forms of media, it was only TV programmes that had a significant positive correlation with innovativeness. This implies that more entrepreneurial programmes that can promote innovativeness among university students in Nairobi Kenya must be embarked upon by the various TV stations in Kenya. If the goal of building and entrepreneurial culture and/or economy in Kenya by 2030 is to be realized, then the government together with other stakeholders must come on board to help promote entrepreneurship and its culture on the various media used in this study. Further research should explore more on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture using experimental research design.

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Articles: A piece of writing on a specific topic by one or more authors that forms an independent part of a periodical publication.

Culture: A set of values, norms, beliefs and attitudes acquired that helps the individual to think, behave or act in a certain manner irrespective of the surrounding difficulties or circumstances.

Documentaries/ Information and Advice programme: These programmes present information about factual topics. They give detailed information about a particular subject. Example of such programme is profile of successful innovative entrepreneurs.

Editorial: This is a reasoned opinion based on fact written and published in the newspapers

Entrepreneurial Culture: These are set of values beliefs and attitudes that support the development of an individual's entrepreneurial behaviour.

Entrepreneurship Education: This is a means of equipping young people with entrepreneurial attitude and skills.

News/Report: These TV and radio programme reports current events mostly on hourly basis.

Reality Shows: This is a TV programme that takes real people (real entrepreneurs), puts them into a situation, and watches how the people handle their surroundings and different situation brought to them. Reality shows can sometimes be in a form of contest or situation where a prize is awarded.

Talk Shows: This is a TV or radio programme where one person (guest) or group of people (panel of guest) talk about various topics put forth by a talk show host. Talk shows can be in the form of a discussion or interview session on the TV or radio. Example of such programmes are; capital talk on K24, pacesetters on KTN, etc

ABBREVIATIONS AND MEANING

GEM:	Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring
LEAP:	Local Employability Access Program
TV:	Television
BIS:	British International Service

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Levels of entrepreneurial activity in countries are used as a yardstick in measuring the entrepreneurial culture and a country's growth and development. Countries with high levels of entrepreneurial activities and culture are economically viable. In America, the level of entrepreneurial activities is high with nearly about 12% of Americans engaging in new ventures each year (Bosma and Harding, 2006). This high level of entrepreneurial activities is on the actuality that Americans have a strong entrepreneurial culture. This has given them the ability to venture into entrepreneurship.

According to Konetzki and Gray (2006), Americans have 'boldness to enterprise', which he referred to as entrepreneurship culture; the process of innovation, which under conditions of risk and uncertainty results in the creation of a new venture. "Americans policy makers would be wise to remember that America's economy is strong today in no small part because of the entrepreneurial culture of the Nation" (Konetzki and Gray, 2006). Today nearly, 61% of America's population prefers being their own bosses and only 37% express a preference for employee status. This is an indication of a country with entrepreneurial culture (Expert Group, 2007).

Europe has a relatively low entrepreneurial culture. Rooney (2011) suggests that the biggest obstacle to European success in the digital economy is lack of entrepreneurial culture, according to a panel of Europeans investors and entrepreneurs. The only way out of this obstacle is to encourage young people to look at entrepreneurialism rather than head for a corporation or a steady job. Germany is Europe's economic powerhouse and yet not aligned with the successful business practices in the new economy. This deficiency of entrepreneurial culture prevents them from having the audacity to enterprise. For example, 50% of Europeans prefer working as dependent employees, and only (45%) would like to be self-employed (Expert Group, 2007).

In Asia, most of the countries have comparatively well developed entrepreneurial culture (BBC World Service Poll, 2010). India has an extremely strong entrepreneurial culture; perhaps the strongest out of any G20 nations (Mumbai, 2011).

In Africa, the level of entrepreneurial culture appears relatively developed, with Nigeria having the highest entrepreneurial culture index followed by Kenya and Ghana (BBC World Service Poll, 2010). Although Kenya has a speck of entrepreneurial culture, it is relatively stumpy to attain industrialization and to achieve middle-income status by 2030 as per Kenya's economic blue print. Lack of an enterprising culture among the youth in Kenya is the possible reason for low entrepreneurial activity in the country. Entrepreneurial culture is pertinent to the

success of small enterprises and as a weapon against poverty and unemployment not only in Kenya but also in Africa generally.

Liikanen (2004) opines that entrepreneurial culture provides benefits to society even beyond their application to business activity. In fact, personal qualities that are relevant to entrepreneurship such as creativity, innovation and spirit of initiative can be useful to everyone in their working activities and in their daily life.

Entrepreneurial culture then means what? It implies a set of values, norms and traits that are conducive to the growth of entrepreneurship. According to Gibbs (1999), entrepreneurial culture is defined as a set of “values, beliefs and attitudes commonly shared in a society which underpins the notion of an entrepreneurial ‘way of life’ as being desirable and in turn support the pursuit of ‘effective’ entrepreneurial behaviour by individuals or groups”. Again, entrepreneurial culture is the societal values, beliefs, philosophies, and actions that encourage and enable members to creatively take calculated risks and play a proactive role in shaping their future (O' Neill & De Coning, 1994).

How can a country like Kenya inculcate entrepreneurial culture among its citizens especially the youth and more specifically university students? The government of Kenya and the Ministry for youth and sport are doing well to create an enabling environment for the youth to generate more businesses. This they carry out through the provision of youth fund facility throughout the provinces to boost entrepreneurial start up. Notwithstanding that, this study opines that when money

is put on the table, when houses are built, when policies are favourable for entrepreneurial activities to thrive, and the people have not developed the culture of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial activities will not materialise.

When people have the entrepreneurial culture, they will be enthused to take opportunity of the favourable conditions to start up something and be successful. The two must work hand-in-hand. Davidsson (1991) has shown that tax and other incentives were important when people had higher motivation to go into business. His studies show that financial and non-financial assistance appears important only if the overall likelihood to enterpreneurship is high. In the words of Deci and Ryan (2000), the more able you are, the more willing you are. Apart from the government, the role of stakeholders' participation in developing entrepreneurial culture is paramount. One such stakeholder is the media.

1.1.1 Media

Media refers to all the organizations, such as television, radio, and newspapers that provide news and information for the public, or the people who do this work (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English). There are various forms of media; the electronic media (example; television, internet, radio) and the print media (examples; magazines, newsprint, journal). The term is a collective noun for the press or news reporting agencies. Media is instrumental when it comes to changing peoples' perception, attitudes and information. A good example of this is the media influence used by politicians. According to Kathy (2007), media can inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial thinking. Media is a tool for communication.

When communication is spread not just between two individuals but rather between tens of millions of people, it is known as mass media. Mass media is as the central nervous system of society and it functions as a medium of exchange of information across the globe. "Mass media has many different purposes, such as providing information, entertaining, persuading and also by carrying a vague general function of culture to millions of people"(Frederick, 2008). Mass media is communication whether written, broadcast, or spoken, that reaches a large audience. The study looks at the relationship between media programmes and the development of entrepreneurial culture.

1.1.2 Media and Entrepreneurship

Media's impact on entrepreneurship can be very helpful to encouraging the entrepreneurial spirit. There is no shortage of evidences for the role of media in influencing political decision-making, the public and individual conception and attitude. From the social and psychological perspective, entrepreneurship as an innovative and creative way of conducting business can be educated, enhanced and affected by the discourse carried by media forms. The message and knowledge conveyed by media are crucial in building the role model, the social-attitudes to the entrepreneurial activity and even the systems to foster or to hinder the entrepreneurship (Levies, Hart, & Karim, 2010).

Global Entrepreneurship Monitoring (GEM) undertook an investigation of the influence of media on entrepreneurial activity. The report, provided that the activities of media eg television and radio, can vary the level of entrepreneurial activity from one country to another (Levie et al., 2010). Therefore, using media

to encourage entrepreneurship can be very instructive. A study commissioned by British International Service (BIS) to gain insight into what effect media's portrayal of entrepreneurs is having on entrepreneurial attitudes, aspirations and activity brought to light a positive relationship between media representations and entrepreneurial activity. For example from the study, it showed that nearly nine out of ten established entrepreneurs surveyed believed that programmes on the media are making people think more positive about entrepreneurs and same proportion feel that the programmes make people feel they want to start their own business (Levie et al. 2010).

The nature of media is the format to store or the carrier to deliver information for the mass people media products have profound effect in influencing public perceptions on entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial phenomenon. The image of what is entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial phenomenon that media present to the mass people may decide people's attitude and affects people's behaviour. For example, for the entrepreneur development, the effect of the role model is significant. The role model could be a member of the family, but mostly, it could also be stories of successful entrepreneurial individuals conveyed by the media.

The positive images of entrepreneurs delivered by the media may promote the development of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial culture in the society. In contrast, the neglect of entrepreneurial phenomenon by mass media may hinder the proliferation of entrepreneurial activities. Media also play an important role in influencing the entrepreneurship phenomenon, by creating a discourse that transmits values and images ascribed to entrepreneurship, by providing a carrier

promoting entrepreneurial practices, and by encouraging an entrepreneurial spirit in the society (Hang and Weezel, 2007).

Awareness of one's own effectiveness can drive the entrepreneurial spirit. This awareness, according to Bandura (1977), includes confidence in one's own ability to make an effort, draw on cognitive resources and do what is to meet the requirements of a situation. Entrepreneurial attitudes and qualities, by their very nature develop through action. Media has promoted entrepreneurial culture in some countries. For example, (2000 to 2009), UK residents experienced a big increase in exposure to entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship in the media, and that this has engendered a more positive attitude to entrepreneurship, and even positively affected entrepreneurial activity rates (Boyle & Magor, 2008).

1.1.3 The Kenya Media Background

Kenya has a plural, sophisticated and robust mass media and communication sector that serve the various competing political, social, economic, cultural and technological needs of diverse interest groups (BBCWST, 2008). The sector has grown rapidly in the past 15 years because of a combination of factors including political and economic liberalization; and Kenya's strategic location as a regional and international economic and communication hub. Before 1992, the media scene was small, urban based and less independent owing to repressive media laws and regulation. Today, the media especially radio and television, reaches all urban centers and almost all rural communities.

The broadcasting sub-sector is diverse, dynamic and competitive with substantial reach (BBCWST, 2008). There are about 14 TV and 63 radio stations in Kenya (Steadman Group, 2008). Radio is the number one source of information reaching almost 90 percent of the entire population followed by television reaching about 40 percent and newspapers (30 percent). There are about 7.5 million radio sets (1.9 million in urban and 5.6 in rural areas) and 3.2 million TV sets in Kenya (1.4 million in urban and 1.8 in rural areas) in the country. There are about 16.7 radio listeners across the country with 12.4 million in rural and 4.4 million in towns (Steadman Group, 2008).

Interesting developments in the broadcasting sector include the proliferation of FM stations broadcasting in over 21 ethnic languages out of 42 (CCK, 2008). The FM stations broadcasting in ethnic languages command about 30 percent of the market share today. These Radio and Television stations as well as the newspapers have diverse programmes all aimed at educating, entertaining and informing listeners. Media in Kenya has helped to promote social activities. Mass media in Kenya also contributed to the post election violence as well as the promotion of peace building in Kenya. For example, media especially the FM radio stations during the 2007 elections encouraged “Hate speeches that elicited ethnic hatred and animosity that burst into open post – election violence (BBCWST, 2008; Mbeke, 2008; ET, 2008). The mainstream media fraternity under the leadership of Media Owners Association (MOA) came together to support peace building initiatives in the country. All media” houses dedicated

airtime and space to carry messages of peace and healing. All these show that media has the power to “break and or make”.

Moving towards an entrepreneurial economy in the 21st century appears to be the goal of most developing countries including Kenya, under the relief that such transition will bring about a healthier national economy and panacea for the unemployment and poverty problems. However, some nations seem to be disadvantaged and are thus slower in developing an enterprise culture. These disparities have led to the intensification of studies in low growth countries, in an attempt to identify and eliminate obstacles that hinder the path to entrepreneurial driven growth.

This study determined the relationship between media programmes and development of entrepreneurial culture among university student in Kenya. Specifically, the question this study addressed is “What role do television and radio programmes, and newspaper publications play on the promotion of entrepreneurial attitudes, aspirations and activities”? Again the aim of this study was to analyze how television, radio and newspaper representations about entrepreneurship in different genres and formats might enhance the entrepreneurial culture in Kenya by influencing the viewers’ perceptions and affecting the choices of self-employment and pursuing an entrepreneurial career.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Promotion of entrepreneurial culture in a country leads to a situation where the majority of population takes up self employment as a career and firmly believes it

is better than wage employment (Gibb, 2003). In the USA where entrepreneurial culture is much promoted, 61% of the population prefers being their own bosses and only 37% express a preference for employee status (Expert Group, 2007).

However promotion of an entrepreneurial culture in many developed and developing countries has been challenging. In Kenya, the situation is not different and calls for all stakeholders in the country to come on board to achieve this course. The government and various institutions have made effort in promoting entrepreneurial culture (Ngosiane, 2010). The media, a stakeholder and seen as an agent of change have not been considered by most countries especially Kenya in this line.

The media however, has promoted entrepreneurial culture in some countries. In the studies carried out by the Expert Group (2007) proves that, when the image of entrepreneurship was portrayed positively on the TV and other audio-visuals, it promoted a lot of entrepreneurial activities in the UK. Again, study by (Levie and et al., 2010) revealed that media can promote entrepreneurial attitudes, aspirations and activities. These studies however, have been carried out in the USA, Europe and Asia. Studies about how the media can promote entrepreneurial culture in Kenya are almost non-existing. It is based on this reason that an in depth investigation on the different media programmes and the development of entrepreneurial culture among Kenyan university students will be a step towards bridging the present gap in research.

1.3 The Research Objectives

1.3.1 General objectives

This study is to investigate the inter-play of different media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture among University Students in Nairobi, Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

1. To establish the relationship between television programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture among University students in Nairobi, Kenya.
2. To determine the relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture among University Students in Nairobi, Kenya.
3. To examine the relationship between newspapers publications and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture among University students in Nairobi, Kenya.
4. To establish the relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education
5. To examine the influence of acquired entrepreneurial education on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture among the youth in the Universities of Nairobi, Kenya.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between television programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture?
2. What is the effect of radio programmes in promoting entrepreneurial

culture?

3. What is the relationship between newspaper publications and promotion entrepreneurial culture?
4. What is the relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education
5. What is the influence of acquired entrepreneurial education on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture in Kenya?

1.5 Justification of the Study

This study is justified on a number of grounds. It will contribute to knowledge and more understanding on positivity of media influence on the viewers.

The study will also prompt media industry to mount more educative shows and or programmes that can help or boost entrepreneurial culture in terms of start-ups and entrepreneurial orientation in Kenya thereby solidifying the role of the media as an agent of change.

Issues about the youth are receiving much attention from government and other sectors in Kenya. The fact is that empowering the youth to be economically sound and strong helps to fight poverty, unemployment and hence economic growth.

This study will help to inculcate entrepreneurial mindset, entrepreneurial orientation and start up motives among University Students, making the youth in Kenya to become job creators rather than depending on the government and other sectors for jobs. This in the long term will reduce the unemployment rate.

Again the results from this study will not only be useful to Nairobi, Kenya but also to all African countries trying to promote entrepreneurial culture among the citizenry especially the youth to achieve economic growth and development like Ghana.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The concept and the determinants of entrepreneurial culture calls for analysis of a large number of factors that includes economic, psychological, political, legal, demographic, technological, social and cultural variables (Manimala, 1999; Wenekers, Uhlaner & Thurik, 2002). It was clearly beyond the scope of this study to analyse all the variables that lead to entrepreneurial culture. Thus, the focus of the study is on the supply side perspective of entrepreneurship where the actions and attitude of the individual remain a key force affecting the development of new ventures and growth of existing ones.

The geographical coverage of this study is limited to Nairobi. The choice of Nairobi as the research area is guided by the fact that it is where a lot of Kenya's public and private universities are situated.

1.7 Limitations

All researches have their limitation and it is no exception on this study.

Inspite of the significant contributions to the development of entrepreneurial culture, this study remains limited in a number of ways. First is that, this study was conducted using only universities based in Nairobi and may therefore be limited in terms of external validity and generalizability. This is because such

generalization requires further in depth studies with larger samples where areas like Mombasa, Kisumu, Eldoret, Nyeri should be included. In a strict sense, the results pertain only to the respondents and generalizations to a wider population must be done with caution.

Second, is the reliability of some of the variables. Some variables did not meet individual Cronbach Alpha reliability due to too few items used. This then requires improvement in future studies. The sample size is not large enough but was adequate for the type of analysis undertaken.

Again the study concentrated on only television, radio and newspapers as forms of media. This was because the three are the most popular forms of media used (traditional forms). However, these three cannot truly represent media. There are several forms of media such as internet, magazines, journals, which the study ignored.

1.8 Organisation of the Project

This project contains five chapters. Chapter one discusses the background to subject matter of entrepreneurial culture, presents the statement of the problem, hypothesis statements, justification of the study, scope of the study and its limitation.

The chapter Two is a review of literature on the subject matter of entrepreneurship, media and entrepreneurial culture. Theoretical and empirical literature linking television and radio programmes as antecedents of

entrepreneurial culture are also discussed. At the end of the chapter, a conceptual framework that serves as a roadmap for the study is presented.

Chapter Three introduces the research approach and provides a discussion on the methodological choices made for the study. Issues relating to research design, target population, sampling design and size, data collection and analytical techniques are explored. Instrument used in data collection, the administration of the instrument and procedure followed in data collection are also looked at in this chapter.

Chapter four is present how the data collected was analysed. Hypotheses were tested in the same chapter together with the discussions on each variable.

Chapter five presents the contribution of this study to existing knowledge, further research opportunities, conclusion based on the findings and the objectives and recommendations the of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature concerning the theoretical and empirical evidence on television, radio and newspaper in promoting entrepreneurial culture. At the outset in section 2.2, a review of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur concepts are presented. Again theories of entrepreneurship and mass media are presented. An empirical review on entrepreneurial culture and mass media are also reviewed. A recast of the 'stages' and process approach to entrepreneurship development in behavioural terms is explained. The three-staged model proposes that entrepreneurship behaviour begins with an entrepreneurial mindset, followed by the motivation to start venture and culminates in entrepreneurial orientations at post start-up stage. Some theoretical underpinnings and empirical studies for each stage are also discussed. The concept of radio, television and newspaper are also talked about in respectively. Entrepreneurship education as an intervening variable has also been reviewed. The conceptual understanding and framework of these antecedents and empirical evidence on their influence on entrepreneurial culture are thus presented.

2.2 The Evolving Concept of Entrepreneurship

One major criticism of research in the field of entrepreneurship is that the researchers have not consistently defined and operationalised what they mean by 'entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs' (Howorth, Tempest & Coupland, 2005). A

working definition and development of entrepreneurship has been a subject of controversy among academics since the late 17th century (Wennekers & Thurik, 1999). For instance, Dollinger (1999) argues that it may be fruitless trying to define entrepreneurship because the term is too vague and imprecise to be useful. This lack of an agreed upon definition of entrepreneurship has made it difficult to compare findings across studies. Understanding the semantic origins of the concept, and how it has evolved over time, however, leads to identification of its key elements (Murphy, Liao & Welsch, 2006).

The word entrepreneurship is derived from the German verb *internehmung*, which means literally means undertaking and from the French verb, *enterprendre*, which means between takings and or to undertake (Dana, 1999). The concept has further been refined from an economic, personal perspective. Specifically, the concept of entrepreneurship from a personal perspective was thoroughly explored in the 20th century and there is a tendency towards electric theories in the 21st century (Stevenson & Lunderstrom, 2002; Timmons & Spinelli, 2003; Verhul et al., 2001). Richard Cantillon, a French economist, is believed to be the first to introduce the term entrepreneurship in the late 17th century (Casson, 1991; Murphy et al., 2006).

Cantillon described an entrepreneur as a person who engaged in market exchanges at theory own risk in order to make a profit. Precisely an entrepreneur is a speculator who transacts purchase at certain prices and sales at uncertain ones and therefore receives uncertain returns. The origin of entrepreneurship therefore

lies in the lack of perfect foresight (Wennekers & Thurik, 1999). However, Knight who distinguished between uncertainties and risk, later refined Cantillon's concept of uncertainty. Risk can be quantified and dealt with by taking an insurance policy while uncertainty is subjective in nature and remain the responsibility of the entrepreneur (Knight, 1921).

In the 18th century, another French economist Jean Baptist Say cited in Blackman, (2003) argued that the role of the entrepreneur in the market place is coordination. He described an entrepreneur as one who shifts economic resources out of an area of lower and into an area of higher productivity and greater yield. Schumpeter (1939; 1961) on the other hand, saw entrepreneurship as innovation. He defined innovation as the setting up of new markets, conquest of a new source of supply of raw materials and carrying out organization of any industry. Herbert and Link (1982; 1989), synthesized these functional roles of an entrepreneur in economics to include; assumption of risk associated with uncertainty, decision making, industrialist, organizer and coordinator of economic resources, contractor, arbitrageur, an allocator resources among alternatives, business start-up, employer of factors of production, owner of an enterprise, a manager or superintended, and financial capitalist.

The 19th and 20th century saw economic reference to entrepreneurship recede and the up rise of the psychological and sociological perspective. The major emphasis of these definitions is the individual trait and behaviour of the entrepreneur as an individual who establishes and manages a business for the principal purpose of

profit and growth. In support of this view, (Casson, 1991) argue that an entrepreneur is a person, not a team, committee or organization. He views that this person, the entrepreneur, has some comparative advantage in decision making either because he or she has better information or different perception of events or opportunities. The managerial school, however, differ for this point of view. They see entrepreneurship from a corporate perspective and define an entrepreneur as a manager who is a visionary team leader and has the ability to scrutinize the environment for threats and opportunities and operate successful entrepreneurial firms. This approach has been referred to as intrapreneurship (Balakrishnan, Gopakumar & Kanungo, 1998; Kuratko & Hodgetts, 1995).

Recently, researchers have suggested multidimensional definitions of entrepreneurship with specific emphasis on the process and outcomes. Bird (1989) for instance defines entrepreneurship as 'the creation of value through creation of organization that is, the process of starting and or growing a new profit making business. Wennekers, Uhlaner and Thurik (2002) distinguishes three types of entrepreneurship that includes; (a) static entrepreneurship defined by self-employed and has come as a result of 'shopkeeper effect or refugee effect', (b) the dynamic entrepreneurship defined by new venture creation (nascent entrepreneurs) which has a 'Schumpeterian effect' and (c) Corporate entrepreneurship defined as entrepreneurial behaviour in large organization.

Although each of the above definitions views entrepreneurship from slightly different perspectives, they contain four common notions or elements that are

crucial this study. Entrepreneurship is considered as that kind of behaviour that includes; opportunity recognition or perception, organizing and reorganizing of social and economic mechanisms to turn resources and situations to practical account, the acceptance of risk or failure and initiative taking. The focus of this study is on entrepreneurs in small enterprises regardless of the nature of their entities.

2.3 Theoretical Review

2.3.1 Theories and of Entrepreneurship

From the preceding section it is apparent that the entrepreneurship construct has evolved and has analysed using a variety of approaches. Kuratko and Hodgetts (1995) describe two major theoretical views entrepreneurship: the macro and micro views. The macro view consist three schools of thought namely; environmental, financial or capital and displacement while the micro view entails the entrepreneurial trait, venture opportunity, and strategy formulation schools of thought. The macro focuses on entrepreneurship in a group or wider societal context while micro perspectives focus on the individual.

Table: 2.1 Schools of Thoughts in Entrepreneurship

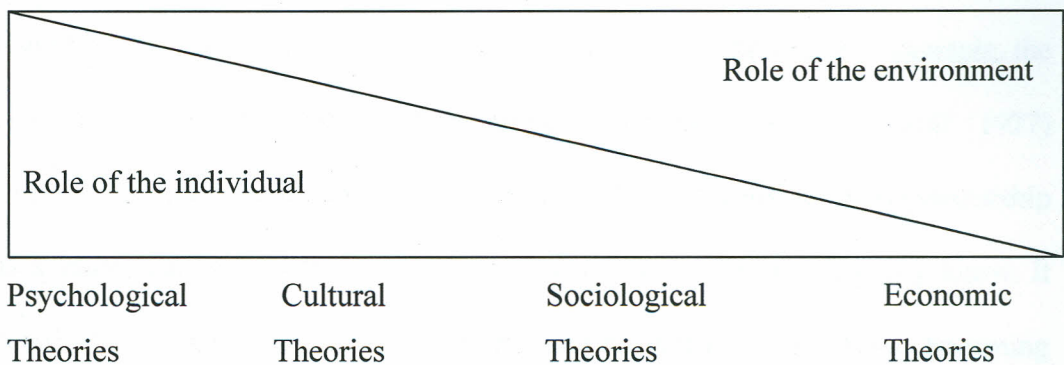
View	Schools of thought	Focus
Macro	Environmental	External factors that affect a potential entrepreneur
	Financial/Capital	Capital seeking process
Micro	Displacement	Group phenomenon and exclusion from political, cultural or economic undertakings
	Entrepreneurial trait	Traits that are common to successful entrepreneurs
	Venture opportunity	Search for sources of ideas, business concept development and implementation of venture opportunities
	Strategy formulation	Planning process in successful venture development

Source: Kuratko and Hodgetts (1995)

Manimala (1999) on the other hand places existing theories of entrepreneurship on a continuum based on the relative role assigned to the entrepreneur and environment. He categories into four groups namely; psychological theories, cultural theories, sociological theories and economic theories as depicted in the Figure 2.1 The psychological theories on the extreme left of the continuum are the micro perspective that place emphasis on the role of the individual. Economic theories placed on the extreme right end of the continuum, gives prominence to entrepreneurial activity in relation to economic performance and role of the environment. Cultural and sociological theories, placed at the centre of the continuum, stress the role of both the individual and environment. The bipolar aspects of the theories of entrepreneurship reflect the much heated debate on whether entrepreneurs are born or made. Burns (2001) and Wickham (2001) points out that the psychological theories holds to the premise that entrepreneurs are born (nature) while the economic theories, places a high significance on the

role of the environment that entrepreneurs are nurtured. Cultural and sociological theories take a middle of the road stand and posit that entrepreneurs are both born and made.

Figure: 2.1 Theories of Entrepreneurship: Relative role of the entrepreneur and the environment.



Source: Adapted from Manimala (1999).

2.3.2 Theories on Mass Media

According to the social cognitive theory of mass communication, media communications have impacts on social attitudes and behavioural intentions (Bandura, 2001). Mass media communication research began with studies of political campaigns in the early 1930s. The classical view of mass communication was that it shaped people's views, enabling the manipulation and control of society through propaganda (Lippmann, 1922; Lasswell, 1927). This view dominated the media communication world until the mid-twentieth century. A second perspective on media communication was that media can 'reinforce' individual and societal opinions. Media cannot change social attitudes; rather it can only reinforce existing views by providing a continuous stream of sympathetic information. A third perspective which posits the notion of mass media as having an agenda setting function was introduced by McCombs & Shaw

(1972). This takes a middle approach between the classical view and the reinforcement view.

According to the agenda setting perspective, media cannot dictate ‘what to think’ rather it can tell us ‘what to think about’. These perspectives generate different hypotheses about how mass media could influence entrepreneurial awareness, attitudes, intentions, values, perception, activity and aspirations. For example, the classical and agenda-setting perspectives (Lippmann, 1922; Lasswell, 1927) suggest that mass media could influence individuals to consider entrepreneurship as a viable career option, either for themselves or for individuals they know. It could also prompt them to take action, such as gathering resources, becoming alert to opportunities or developing relevant skills. The reinforcement perspective could maintain, and reinforce, a desire to continue along the entrepreneurial process, perhaps by lowering fear of failure or highlighting the rewards of successful entrepreneurship.

2.4 Empirical Review

2.4.1 Entrepreneurial Culture

Developed countries tend to have strong entrepreneurial cultures, characterized by environments conducive to business activity where the majority of businesses are small or medium-sized (Orford et al., 2003). South Africa has a poorly developed entrepreneurial culture relative to countries with similar levels of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Driver et al., 2001). South Africa’s GDP as at the 2010 was \$363, 704 and Kenya’s GDP as at 2010 was \$32,160. In order to help address the unemployment problem in the country and contribute to sustainable

economic development, it is important to develop a strong entrepreneurial culture (Nieman, 2003). The development of an entrepreneurial culture is a long-term process where various stakeholders such as government, the private sector, communities, educators and parents have to entrench and develop positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship (Gouws, 2002).

Positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship would, however, only be the beginning of the empowerment process as the long-term ideal would be that an increasing number of individuals would translate their positive attitudes into entrepreneurial activities by starting and running their own businesses.

The concept of “entrepreneurial culture” may also vary, but generally it may refer to the norms, beliefs and shared values of a particular region/community. LEAP defines entrepreneurial culture as “the presence in a given community of attitudes of self reliance, self-advocacy, and perseverance. Entrepreneurial culture differs from classic “lone maverick” entrepreneurship by encouraging local volunteerism, sharing of community resources, collective visioning, goal-setting, and regional advocacy” (LEAP website). Understanding the relationship between entrepreneurial culture and economic success in particular regions can provide insightful lessons for policymakers on how best to implement policies that will motivate entrepreneurial activity in particular regions.

With regard to the definition of an entrepreneurial culture, different people have different definitions. As far as culture is concerned, Kroeber and Parson’s (2003) earlier cross-disciplinary definition of culture included “patterns of values, ideas,

and other symbolic-meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behavior”. Hofstede (1984) refers to culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another...[and] includes systems of values”.

According to Timmons (2008) it is “the ability to create and build something from practically nothing. It is initiating, doing, achieving and building an enterprise or organization, rather than just watching, analyzing or describing one. It is the knack for sensing an opportunity where others see chaos, contradiction and confusion.”

Using the school of entrepreneurial thoughts that are closely linked with entrepreneurial culture, (economic school, strategic management school, and network theory school) they used some parameters to measure entrepreneurial activity and hence definition of entrepreneurial culture. The Table 2.2 shows the different views of the various schools of thought.

Table: 2.2 Different school's views on entrepreneurial activity

Entrepreneurial Activity	Economic School	Strategic management school	Network theory school
Creativity	✓		
Opportunity Recognition	✓	✓	
Innovation	✓	✓	
Uncertainty Bearing	✓		
Decision Making	✓		
Information gathering/process	✓		
Planning including strategic planning		✓	
Proactivity		✓	
Competitive aggression		✓	
Networking			✓

Source: The Sixth Wuhan International Conference on E-Business-Innovation Management Track, 2004

From table 2.2, we can define entrepreneurial culture by the patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems associated with performing entrepreneurial activities. From the economic development perspective, entrepreneurial culture includes the following aspects: (1) Entrepreneurship. The definition of entrepreneurship, however, is a matter of continued debate. As a result, the meaning of entrepreneurship continues to evolve and no commonly accepted definitions of entrepreneurship exist. The 'synthetic' definition of entrepreneurship incorporates (dealing with) risk and uncertainty, perception of profit opportunities as well as innovation and change. (2) Attitude to uncertainty.

Uncertainty is a concept that is central to entrepreneurship, Thinking about a new business ventures means confronting a great deal of uncertainty. Without uncertainty, entrepreneurship would be unnecessary. (3) Innovation.

Values and norms in entrepreneurial culture are powerful forces for controlling and directing human behaviour. (Erez and Easley, 2002) note that cultures shapes the cognitive schemas which ascribe meaning and values to motivational variables and guide choices, commitments, and standards of behaviour. Further, since values are typically determined early in life, they tend to be “programmed” into individuals resulting in behaviour patterns which are consistent with the culture context and endure over time.

Gibb and Lyapunov (1996) suggest that an entrepreneurial culture needs to be nurtured to support SMEs in areas such as values, beliefs, attitudes and behavioural norms. Ha and Swierczek (2003) found that the performance of SMEs in Vietnam was positively related to entrepreneurial culture. This means that the owners of SMEs are not willing to take risky business decisions and the presence of a risk avoidance attitude is prominent among entrepreneurs.

2.4 Culture and Entrepreneurship

Similar to entrepreneurship, the concept of culture has been defined in a variety of ways. For instance, Ralph Linton define culture of a society as ‘a way of life of its members; the collection of ideas and habits which they learn, share and transmit from generation to generation’ (in Harabambos & Holborn, 1995). Ball and McCulloch (1993) defined culture as ‘the sum total of beliefs, rules, techniques,

institutions and artifacts that characterize human population. It consists of learned patterns of behaviour common to members of a given society (unique lifestyle)'.

Casson (1987) looks at culture as collective subjectivity, shared set of values, norms and beliefs, elements are implanted during childhood, religious training and secular education. It is the mystical collective will.

Besides, culture has been defined from a variety of levels or systems in society with potential interaction between them. For example, Morrison (2000), identified five levels of culture namely; national culture, regional culture, business (corporate) culture, professional and individual culture. Despite the differing views o the concept of culture, two fundamental aspects emerge. First is that culture is shared; members of a given community that material and nonmaterial way of life share the set of values, attitudes and meanings. Second is that culture is learned; members of the community learn the shared characteristics through different stages of socialization process of lives in institutions such as family, religion, formal education and society as a whole (Haralambos & Holborn, 1995).

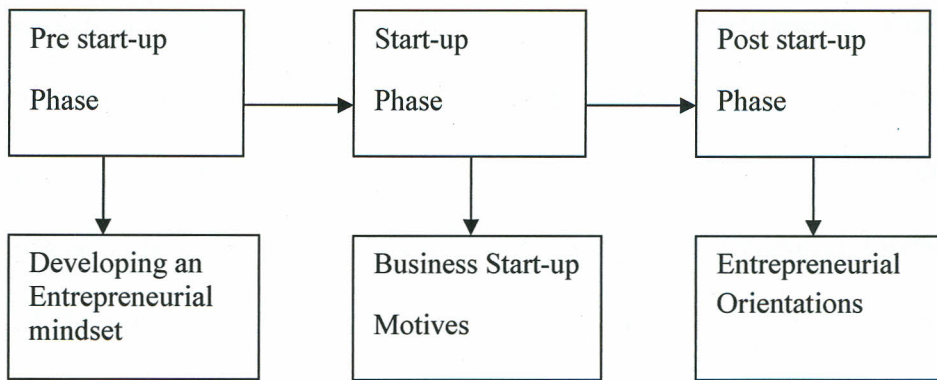
The assertion that there is a greater predisposition or propensity toward entrepreneurship in some societies than in others points to the implicit role of culture in the theory of entrepreneurship (Thomas & Mueller, 2000). Studies that have correlated entrepreneurship and culture have often concluded that entrepreneurship is well-matched with certain culture (Dana, 1998; Igusi, 2002). That culture can be what is termed as entrepreneurial culture. This study looks at

the promotion of entrepreneurial culture leading to an increase in entrepreneurial activities in Kenya.

2.5 An Integrated Model of Entrepreneurial Behaviour Process

For one to recognize that a country has entrepreneurial culture or not, it is important to examine entrepreneurial behaviour of its citizenry. That is, entrepreneurial culture can be measured by entrepreneurial behaviour which transforms to the level of entrepreneurial activity. In Bird's (1989) work, entrepreneurial behaviour is defined as 'opportunistic, value driven, risk accepting activity where ideas take the form of organizational birth, growth or transformation' drawing from the definition three guiding assumptions about entrepreneurial behaviour are developed. First is that, entrepreneurial behaviour is not a series of isolated activities or actions but a process consisting of three critical stages that include (a) development of entrepreneurial mindset stage where business ideas are generated and activities involve building of business concept, (b) business start-up motivation where the individual develops the urge to go into business and (c) developing entrepreneurial orientations where the entrepreneur takes a strategic posture at the post start-up stage.

Figure: 2.2 Three-stage Entrepreneurial Behaviour Process Model



Source: Self Conceptualisation (2012).

The second assumption is that entrepreneurial behaviour is multifaceted. It is an interaction between the individual and the environment, which culminates to venture formation and outcome. The third assumption is that entrepreneurial behaviour is evolutionary in nature. This means that it is not static it progresses from covert behaviour to overt. The next three sub-sections explore literature to further discuss these assumptions.

2.5.1 Development of Entrepreneurial Mindset

New venture creation essentially begins with the building of a business concept out of a perceived opportunity (Pech & Cameron, 2006). That is to say, venture creation begins with the development of a business idea. This is because a critical component of individual behaviour involves ‘thinking before acting’ (Forbes 1999). In this study, business idea formation has been conceptualized as the development of entrepreneurial mindset. Mc and MacMillian (2000) define entrepreneurial mindset as a way of thinking about a business that captures the benefits of uncertainty. They further argue that a business person with an

entrepreneurial mindset is habitual and have five characteristics namely the passion to seek new opportunities, pursuit of opportunities with enormous discipline, pursues only the very best opportunities, focus on adaptive execution of ideas, and engaging the energies of everyone in their domain. This definition has two implications for this study. First, is that entrepreneurial mindset is a way of thinking about a business opportunity and second is that the thoughts are geared towards benefiting from uncertain situations.

Studies have investigated a wide range of issues that include the process of opportunity recognition, cognitive sources of business ideas, business idea maturation and factors that influence entrepreneurs' frame of mind concerning a business idea (Kantis et al., 2002; Pech & Cameron 2006). Other studies have shown the relationship between the way a business idea was conceptualized and business success (Minniti et al., 2005). Whatever approach one takes, there seems to be one agreed thing; that entrepreneurial behaviour starts with a business idea. This study therefore considers development of entrepreneurial mindset as a first step of entrepreneurial behaviour which is a reflection of entrepreneurial culture.

2.5.2 Business Start-Up Motives

What leads people to become entrepreneurs has been a central question throughout history of the formal study of entrepreneurship (Forbes, 1999). In the light of entrepreneurial behaviour process, the expectation is that, once the business concept has been fully developed, the people will have the psyche/spirit to go into business (Alstete, 2002). The motivation to start a business therefore constitutes the second critical phase in the modelling of entrepreneurial behaviour

process for this study. When people have the spirit of going into business, we can say there is an entrepreneurial culture which is a move away from job dependency to job creation.

Studies on business start-up motives are concerned with why behaviour occurs (Jenssen & Kolvereid, 1991; Manimala & Pearson, 1998). Researcher in this field particularly the psychologist seeks to investigate the reasons behind human actions. The underlying argument is that a person's motivation will lead to some satisfying and goal seeking behaviour. There are a lot of things which can motivate a person. These may be the 'push' or the 'pull' entrepreneurial motivation. The present study therefore seeks to understand how business starts up motivations are related to entrepreneurial culture in an African developing economy context.

2.5.3 Start up Motives and Entrepreneurial Environments

In the light of entrepreneurial behaviour process, the expectation is that, once the business concept has been fully developed, the people will have the psyche/spirit to go into business (Alstete, 2002). There are sufficient impediments to successful business start-up to suggest that the process involves actions that are clearly intentional. Indeed, a number of studies of the new venture creation process describe individuals persisting at a variety of activities over a period of months, or years, in order to achieve the creation of a new firm (Reynolds & White, 1997).

Government policies and regulations both directly and indirectly affect business start up motives. In addition to this, "there is sufficient evidence that environmental forces ranging from purely cultural and social currents to ingrained

government bureaucracy go quite a long way towards straining the driving force behind entrepreneurs and start up (El-Namaki, 1988).

The environmental conditions have been discussed in five dimensions (Fogel and Gnyawali, 1994): government policies and procedures, socioeconomic conditions, entrepreneurial and business skills, financial support to businesses, and non financial support to businesses. Governments can influence the market mechanisms and make them function efficiently by removing conditions that create market imperfections and administrative rigidities. They can also create an "enterprise culture" that enables firms to take reasonable risks and seek profits.

Entrepreneurs and non entrepreneurs alike will be discouraged to start a business if they have to follow many rules and procedural requirements, if they have to report to many institutions, and if they have to spend more time and money in fulfilling the procedural requirements (Young and Welsch, 1993). A favourable attitude of the society toward entrepreneurship and a widespread public support for entrepreneurial activities are both needed to motivate people to start a new business. In fact, social factors may be equally important as availability of loans, technical assistance, physical facilities, and information. Certain infrastructural elements seem to make substantial impact on the entrepreneurial environment.

These elements include the existence of universities and research and development programmes, a well-educated and technically skilled labour force, and modern transport and communication facilities that provide easy access to suppliers and customers (Gartner, 1985). Though a single factor may have less

significant impact, the interaction of various factors may considerably increase the impact on entrepreneurial development in a country. Without having some business opportunities in the environment, and without having motivated and capable entrepreneurs in starting a business, any amount of financial assistance or government procurement system may not increase entrepreneurial activity. Without having some opportunities in the environment, entrepreneurs will not be able to start a business; and, even if they start, they are likely to fail (Aruwa, 2006).

One core element of venture creation that have received significant consensus among researchers is the existence of entrepreneurial opportunity. Opportunity refers to the extent to which possibilities for new ventures exist and the extent to which people have the leeway to influence their odds for success through their own actions. An observation that is fundamental to entrepreneurship scholarship suggests that some individuals are more likely to identify and exploit opportunities than are others (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). Entrepreneurial opportunities tend to be higher in economies that are deregulated, where market mechanisms operate freely, and where entrepreneurs have to face very few barriers to entry (El-Namaki, 1988). Thus, government policies and procedures affect the business opportunity. The opportunity will influence a person's propensity to enterprise and ability to enterprise.

A stream of research on entrepreneurship emphasizes on Propensity to Enterprise and the psychological and behavioural characteristics of entrepreneurs. The most

common of these are the high need for achievement (McClelland and Winter, 1969), capacity to innovate (Schumpeter, 1934), internal locus of control (Shapero, 1977), propensity for taking risks (Brockhaus, 1980), and key entrepreneurial characteristics (Management Systems International, 1990).

People that have an urge for excellence, willingness to take moderate risk, and desire to be independent are very likely to become entrepreneurs (McClelland, 1961). A study conducted in various countries (Management Systems International, 1990) found ten behavioural characteristics of successful entrepreneurs. These characteristics are opportunity seeking and initiative, persistence, risk taking, demand for quality and efficiency, commitment to work, goal setting, information seeking, systematic planning and monitoring, persuasion and networking, and independence and self-confidence.

The literature on personal entrepreneurial competencies argues that people with certain behavioural characteristics are able to perceive the opportunities available in the environment, seize such opportunities, and then turn such opportunities into profitable ventures. Yet, a personality or behavioural profile is not a sufficient condition for people to go into business. An individual with high propensity to start a business is more likely to go into business when he or she sees several business opportunities in the environment. Furthermore, the propensity to enterprise will be enhanced when an individual feels confident in his or her ability to enterprise.

Besides entrepreneurial opportunities and propensity to enterprise, ability to enterprise is another factor in venture creation process. Ability to enterprise refers to the sum of technical and business capabilities required to start and manage a business. While "technical capability" refers to the technical skills, "business capability" refers to the knowledge and skills in various functional aspects of business (Vesper, 1990) such as business planning, product development, marketing, personnel management, general management, accounting, and finance. Furthermore, as entrepreneurs face resistance from customers, investors, and several other stakeholders, they require some political and strategic planning skills in order to succeed in their endeavours (MacMillan, 1983). Without having the ability to enterprise, entrepreneurs may not be able to seize the opportunities available to them and successfully go through various start-up activities or manage the on-going business. Individuals with the necessary ability to enterprise, when combined with enhanced propensity to enterprise, will increase their chances of going into business. And, once they are in business, they are most likely to be the winners (Vesper, 1983).

Thus, a high level of opportunity, propensity to enterprise, and ability to enterprise will positively correlate with an individual's likelihood to enterprise.

Fogel and Gnyawali (1994) have opined that the process of developing competent entrepreneurs and increasing their likelihood to enterprise consists of developing plentiful business opportunities in the environment, enhancing people's propensity to enterprise, and developing their capability to enterprise.

2.5.4 Entrepreneurial Orientation

The third stage in the entrepreneurial behaviour process coincides with the survival and growth of the business. The entrepreneurs' therefore have to orient themselves in a strategic manner to grow and survive. The stage includes the formative years of the enterprise life, traditionally viewed as the first three years that are the key to survival and growth. Studies that have examined small enterprises at the survival and growth stage mainly stem from strategic management perspective. Specifically, the construct of entrepreneurial orientations (EO) has been the mainstay of researchers interested in firm performance at this stage (Kumar, 1998; Kollman et al., 2006). Entrepreneurial orientation is a concept that was first coined by Lumpkin and Dess (1996) who argued that entrepreneurial growth or success depended on it.

They defined entrepreneurial orientation (EO) as processes, practices, and decision making activities that lead to new entry and growth. The term "entrepreneurial orientation" has been used to refer to the strategy-making processes and styles of firms that engage in entrepreneurial activities. A popular model of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) suggests that there are five dimensions of EO; autonomy, innovativeness, risk taking, proactiveness, and competitive aggressiveness (Lumpkin and Dess 1996). This study used four out of the five dimensions.

Risk-taking propensity is defined as the perceived probability of receiving rewards associated with the success of a situation (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Early

definitions of entrepreneurship centred on the willingness of entrepreneurs to engage in calculated business related risks. This view has continued to gain support throughout the twentieth century. For instance, in investigating the pioneering innovative entrepreneurs' heuristics in India, Manimala (1999) found that calculated risk taking was a major factor. Reduction of uncertainty through information management and testing of outcomes before venturing out defines this factor.

Schumpeter (1934) is thought to be the scholar to apply the concept of innovation in entrepreneurship and economic growth. He defined innovation as a set of five activities that include introduction of new products, introduction of new methods of production, opening of new market, introduction of new material or sources of supply and developing new organizational structures. Manimala (1999) in his work on pioneering innovative entrepreneurs unveiled ten types of innovation. These are; product innovation, process innovation, management innovation, supply source innovation, personnel innovation, finance innovation, cultural innovation, structural innovation, and government relations innovation. In a similar stand, Drucker (1985) argues that innovation is that main thrust of entrepreneurship.

Innovation as an indicator of entrepreneurial culture is "the can do spirit" where developing new ideas and creativity are the norm and where failure is part of creative process. Hurlock, (1993) Krietner (1998) as cited in Oviawe (2009) defined creativity as the reorganization of experiences into new configuration. Krietner added that creativity is a function of knowledge, imagination and

evaluation. The greater the knowledge an individual possesses, the more ideas, patterns or combination he or she can achieve. But merely having the knowledge does not guarantee the formation of new patterns, the bits and pieces must be shaken up and interrelated in new ways, then the entire ideas must be evaluated and developed into usable ideas. Dalal (2003), said an idea is only an idea until you convert it into something meaningful. That's where innovation starts.

Schumpeter in the 1940s, cited in Wikipedia (2009) describes an entrepreneur is a person who is willing and able to convert a new idea or invention into a successful innovation. It is the successful exploitation of ideas, whether to deliver new or improved products or to do things better or faster or completely differently. Innovation is much of enterprising attitude, skills and behaviours.

Autonomy refers to the independent action of an individual or team in bringing forth an idea or vision and carrying it through to completion (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). This means the ability and will to be self-directed in the pursuit of opportunities.

Proactiveness is defined as acting in anticipation of future problems, needs or changes (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Proactiveness refers to how firms relate to market opportunities by seizing initiative in the marketplace. Competitive aggressiveness refers to how firms react to competitive trends and demands that already exist in the marketplace.

To sum up, this study views entrepreneurial behaviour as a feature of entrepreneurial culture. The entrepreneurial behaviour consists of three stages

process beginning from development of entrepreneurial mindset, start-up and then to post start-up orientation. Entrepreneurial behaviour process is important for this study because it is only when people exhibit these behavioural characteristics then we can say that they have entrepreneurial culture.

2.6 Concept of Media

The essential of media is that it can be used to store or deliver information for the mass usage, so the most common use in this sense is mass media. According to Krippendorff (1986) “mass media is the generic term for newspapers, book publishing, radio and television. Other media include the recording industry, movie industry and theatre. All media are associated with more or less elaborate forms of audience participation.”

Some communication researchers have claimed that the media can only reinforce preexisting styles of behavior but cannot create new ones (Klapper, 1960). Such a view is at variance with a vast body of evidence. Media influences create personal attributes as well as alter pre-existing ones (Bandura, 1986; Williams, 1986).

For the purpose of this study, the term media is understood as a means used in changing peoples' life style, perception, and attitude as well as educate people towards entrepreneurship leading to an entrepreneurial culture being built.

2.6.1 Concept of Media and Entrepreneurship

The ‘Impact of Media on Entrepreneurial Intentions and Actions’ report supports the view that media portrayals of enterprise are promoting more positive social values towards entrepreneurship, with one in five non-entrepreneurs being

motivated to start their own business having watched programmes in the media (Hart, 2011). Some research has been conducted in the UK on images of entrepreneurship presented in the media, particularly print media, but also more recently those presented by television (Boyle, 2008; Boyle & Magor, 2008). Studies have also been published on media images of entrepreneurship in other countries, for example France (Radu & Redien-Collot, 2008) and China (Kong, 2010). The UK-based stream of research shows that the prevailing social attitude has shifted over the 35 years from the early 1970s to 2005 (Boyle & Magor, 2008). Radu & Redien-Collot (2008) conducted a study on the French press to determine whether social representation of entrepreneurs was developing an entrepreneurial cognitive infrastructure in France. They argued that cognitive positive social representation of entrepreneurs is indispensable for stimulating entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour.

2.6.2 Concept of Television

Television is certainly one of the most influential media forces of our time. Through the device called a television set or TV, you are able to receive news, sports, entertainment, information and commercials.

Prior to 1965, film and television research tended to be simple media comparison studies which usually found no significant difference between the effectiveness of a conventionally-delivered lecture and the same instruction delivered via moving image (Wetzel et al., 1994). Since 1965, most television research, particularly that which examines the influence of television on attitudes and behaviours, has focused on incidental learning from mass media rather than on intentional effects

from classroom presentation of instruction via visual media. Much important work has been done on television's socializing effects on children, particularly the relationship between viewing violence and behaving violently.

In 40 years of television research, "the emphasis on negative effects has been more salient than efforts to ensure positive effects through interventions" (Seels et al., 1996) and "media research has generally not been theory based" (Wetzel et al., 1994). Nevertheless, some positive findings have been made. While some theories suggest that viewers are merely passive absorbers of information, the active theory of cognitive processing supports the idea that viewers engage with the material presented to them. Several studies have indicated that viewers attend more carefully to television when guided by an instructor and or told to view it for instructional reasons than when viewing it for fun (Wetzel et al., 1994).

Television research related to portrayals of women, minorities, the elderly, etc. has tended to focus on the negative impact of stereotypes, but other studies have found that "programs that are designed specifically to produce positive images of subgroups appear to be successful" (Seels et al., 1996).

Kenya television services consist of about 8 stations that broadcast a wide array of local and international shows throughout Kenya. During the first 2 decades of Kenyan independence, the government was in strict control. There was only one political party, and the media were held in tight check. Kenya television consisted of a single station which was mainly a tool for the government. With a change of

national leadership in the 1990s, the television industry in Kenya was given more freedom and more stations were founded.

Kenya Television is one of the best media industries among those of the developing countries in Africa. Television in Kenya offers a diverse range of programmes about a range of subjects that cater to the tastes of the middle-class public in general. Some television station broadcast programmes through satellite network and people can watch all their programmes on the internet. The language used is mostly English. Some channels also broadcast programmes in the regional language like Swahili.

The government of Kenya is not in control of the whole television broadcasting network now. But it keeps a strict watch over all that happens. Kenya Television has emerged as a role model for the media industries of other African countries.

2.6.2.1 Television and Attitude Change

A 1994 research review titled *Instructional Effectiveness of Video Media* by Wetzel et al. discusses attitudes only in terms of the way attitude towards the delivery medium may enhance or impede learning of the content presented. A 1980 literature review by Simonson examined over 140 media or attitude studies, dividing them by medium (film, television, still images). Of these studies, twelve were found in which televised treatments successfully changed learner attitudes in the desired direction. Of the twelve, one (Kraus, 2000) dealt with black-white relations and another (Evans, 1992) focused on prejudice.

In the aggregate, the studies demonstrated that televised messages could produce desired affective outcomes, provided that they were designed to do so and that the design was based on a theory of attitude change. Simonson, (1992) also found thirty studies that reported significant attitude change in viewers of persuasive motion pictures and almost as many that reported no significant change. His conclusions suggest that the context in which viewing occurs is important, that variations in the media presentation (e.g., color v. black-and-white, alterations in the soundtrack) are important reinforcers for the content message and those viewers are more likely than not to experience attitude change after viewing persuasive programmes.

A study conducted by the Expert Group (2007) came up with some television programmes which can promote entrepreneurial culture when featured with entrepreneurial issues. Each Television programme has different strength in the promotion of entrepreneurship and its culture. Some of the programmes include:

Table: 2.3 Different types of programmes and their possibility of promoting entrepreneurial culture

Programmes types	Flexibility	Focus	Cost	Information	Entertainment	Attitudes	Legal constraints	Audience
News	very high	high	low	high	Low	low	high	medium
Reports	High	high	low	high	Low	low	high	Low
Documentaries	medium	high	medium	high	Low	Medium high	high	Low
Advice Progra	High	high	medium	Very high	Low	medium	medium	Low
Docu – Soap	medium	low	medium	Very low	High	high	medium	High
Series/Reality	medium	low	high	Very low	High	high	medium	High
Movies	very low	low	high	Very low	high	high	medium	High
Contest/Game	Low	medium	Medium high	medium	High	medium	medium	High
Talk Show	High	high	medium	high	Medium	high	medium	medium
Advertising	High	high	medium	medium	Low	medium	low	Low
	Possibility to react quickly to new topics and trends	Proportion of a programmes that can be contracted	Production cost for individual stories	Degree to which factual information can be conveyed	How entertaining is the programme for a broad audience	Possibility to influence attitudes towards entrepreneurship	Constraints on editorial influence for external parties (e.g. government)	Potential size of the audience

Source: Report from Expert Group, 2007.

2.6.3 Concept of Radio

While television is nowadays probably the most popular and far-reaching medium, other media e.g. the radio and newspaper could also make important contributions to developing entrepreneurship. Radiotelegraphy is an important means of communication. It enables people to send words, music, codes, and other signals to every part of the world and even into deep space. Radio works by creating communication signals and changing them into radio waves, a type of electromagnetic wave. These radio waves are then transmitted through the air and space at the speed of light (186,282 miles per second). They can even get through some solid objects, like building walls. A radio receiver changes the waves back into their original sounds thus transmitting to the listener (Ogutu, Ngunjiri, and Chege 2003).

Today, many people wake up to clock radios, drive to work listening to car radios, and also spend some of their leisure time hearing their favorite radio programs. Some telephone messages are carried by radio. Radio broadcasts feature music, news, discussions, interviews, descriptions of sports events, and advertising. The study looked at how radio can disseminate entrepreneurial values, norms, beliefs and attitude in promoting entrepreneurial culture.

2.6.4 Newspapers

In 1982, Gumpert published an article in the Harvard Business Review describing the emergent market of publications directed toward entrepreneurs, including a classification of the existent magazines and books. Garnier and Gasse (1990),

documented a training program which took place in Quebec, Canada through a newspaper, resulting in the creation of 32 new businesses by the participants in the course.

The key independent print media in Kenya are the Nation Media Group, the Standard Group, People Limited, and the Times Media Group. The Nation Media Group publications, which include the Daily Nation, the Sunday Nation, the Business Daily, the weekly East African, and the only Swahili publications, Taifa Leo and Taifa Jumapili, have the largest circulations. The Standard and the Sunday Standard, published by the Standard Group, are also popular newspapers, although with smaller circulations. This study investigated entrepreneurial publication and their effect on promoting entrepreneurial culture among university students in Kenya.

2.7 Entrepreneurship Education

The history of entrepreneurship education could be dated back in 1938 when Shigeru Fijii, who was the teaching pioneer at Kobe University, Japan, had initiated education in entrepreneurship (Alberti, Sciascia et al. 2004). Despite that, most of the entrepreneurship courses and programmes were pioneered and introduced in American universities. Many American universities have comparatively long tradition as entrepreneurship education providers through its business schools and have well documented entrepreneurship courses, paving the way for entrepreneurship studies as a legitimate area of academic programmes (Franke and Luthje 2004; Raichaudhuri 2005).

If entrepreneurial and enterprising behaviour among young people is to emerge, more focus must be put on entrepreneurship education (Blokker and Dallago 2008) and methodologies that encourage 'learning by doing' and 'just in time learning' (Gibb, A. 2002; 2006). Thus entrepreneurship education is not only a means to foster Youth Entrepreneurship but at the same time to equip young people with entrepreneurial attitude and skills (Schoof 2006).

"Entrepreneurship Education" is described as "the teaching of knowledge and skills that enables the students to plan, start and run their own business." Therefore the role of entrepreneurship education is mainly to build an entrepreneurial culture among young people that, in turn, would improve their career choices towards entrepreneurship (Deakins & Glancey 2005).

In other words, the objectives of entrepreneurship education are aimed in changing students' state of behaviours and even intention that makes them to understand entrepreneurship, to become entrepreneurial and to become an entrepreneur that finally resulted in the formation of new businesses as well as new job opportunities (Fayolle and Gailly 2005; Hannon 2005; Venkatachalam and Waqif 2005). In achieving this, the design of entrepreneurship education curriculum need to be creative, innovative and imaginative and most importantly is 'tying academic learning to the real world' (Robinson and Haynes 1991). For the purpose of this study, entrepreneurship education is employed as an intervening variable on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

2.8 Summary

Research in the area of entrepreneurship has attracted scholars from a number of disciplines that includes economics, marketing, sociology, cultural anthropology, psychology, and management. These varieties of approaches have made studies in entrepreneurship incomparable and led to definitional problem. However, recent efforts have advocated for integrated paradigms that emphasize process and outcomes to resolve differing views of entrepreneurship (Kumar, 1998; Nair et. al., 1998). While substantial work has been done in Europe, U.S.A, Asia, little is known about entrepreneurship in Africa (Reynolds et. al., 2003).

Again comparing the studies conducted on entrepreneurship in media industries, much less efforts have been made in investigating media's role in promoting entrepreneurship culture. Quite a number of articles can be identified as relevant, implying that there is a big gap which needs to be filled in order to further reveal media's impact on entrepreneurship.

In particular, studies that correlate media activities and entrepreneurial culture in Kenya are almost non-existent. The study therefore fills the existing knowledge gap in the following ways: It introduces an integrative approach to entrepreneurship research in Kenya. Applying the relationship between media programmes and entrepreneurial culture in investigating university students is a way of achieving this. In addition this research will be a wake-up call for all stakeholders in promoting entrepreneurship culture and not the responsibility of the government alone.

Again, studies on impact of media activities on entrepreneurship have been extensively applied in U.S.A, Europe and Asia. However, no study has tested the replicability of these constructs in Africa and in Kenya specifically (Hartwick, 1999). The study therefore looked at the validation of these models specifically to tests their replicability in an African context.

Table: 2.4 Summaries of Past Studies and their Findings, Comments and Gaps

Researchers	Focus	Findings	Comments/research gap
Expert Group(2007)	Possibility that TV and other audio-visual media offer for improving the image of entrepreneurship in Europe	The audiovisual media offer a broad range of opportunities for promoting Entrepreneurship. Different types of programmes have different strength in promoting entrepreneurship	The study concentrated on only electronic media and not the print media
Hang and Weezel, (2007)	Media and Entrepreneurship: A survey of the literature relating both concepts	There is a reciprocal relationship between media and entrepreneurship	The study did not look at how the activities of the media can promote entrepreneurial culture
Kathy, (2007)	The effect of media on American society	The media will always be an influence, but it can't control us unless we hand it over control. In essence, there's a vast difference between influence and control. The media can be a good thing - it's your choice in how you use it.	This study looked at media and it influence on society but did not specify the type of media under consideration.
Levie; Hart and Karim, (2010)	Impact of media on entrepreneurial attitudes, aspirations and activities	Overall, leading enterprise campaigns and TV business reality programmes provide useful input to the generation of an entrepreneur-friendly culture, but have an immediate effect on the entrepreneurial activity	Their study looked at only TV programmes alone.

		of relatively few participating individuals.	
Media Management and Transformation centre (2010)	The promotion of entrepreneurship in the audio-visual media (TV)	As many of our attitudes, values, beliefs, opinions and dreams for our future are formed doing the youthful years, it is important to show positive entrepreneurial role models on TV	The researcher did not consider radio and newspaper publications as other mediums of shaping attitudes and life style
Ngosiane (2010)	Role of entrepreneurship in the economy and society: promoting and entrepreneurial culture in Kenya	Creating clubs that are entrepreneurial in nature and content in higher institutions can promote entrepreneurial culture. Again various stakeholders in the country must help in promoting	The study concentrated on schools and government as stakeholders to help in the promotion of entrepreneurial culture and did not mention media.
Ogotu; Ngunjiri and Chege, (2003)	The potential of radio broadcasting as a medium for disseminating agricultural information and technologies	entrepreneurial culture. Radio can be a superb intermediary, one that easily reaches rural communities, sending out knowledge, and is also able to profit from new technologies. Radio is a powerful communication tool. Experience with rural radio	The study looked at only radio as a medium of disseminating agricultural information and not television and the others.

Source: Modified from past studies (Expert group 2007, Ngosiane 2010, Levie; Hart and Karim 2010, Hang and Weezel, 2007, Ogotu; Ngunjiri and Chege, 2003, Kathy 2007).

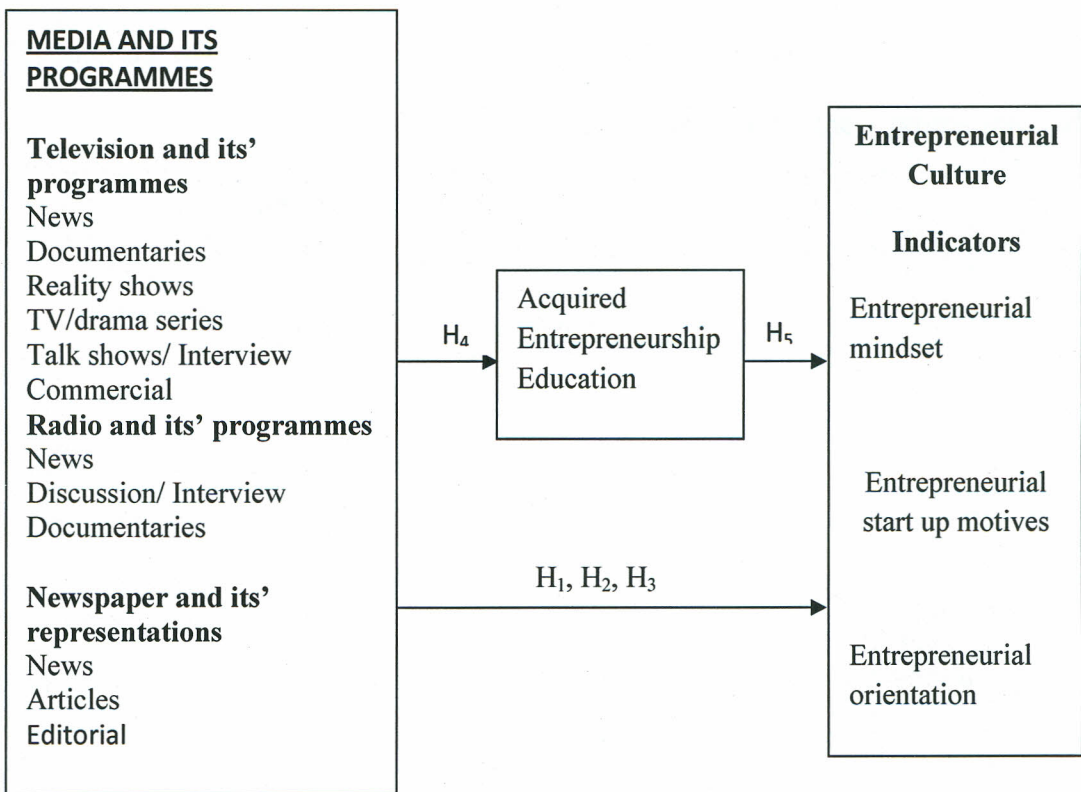
2.9 Conceptual Framework

This study conceives entrepreneurial culture as the dependent construct. Entrepreneurial culture is operationalised as a dynamic process that involves three critical stages namely entrepreneurial mindset, business start-up motives and entrepreneurial orientation. Concerning the independent variable, literature reviewed reveal that media programmes that are entrepreneurial in content is

critical in determining entrepreneurial perception, intentions and actions likely to stir-up business start-ups motives and post start-up orientation.

Entrepreneurship education is conceived as an intervening variable. Entrepreneurship education is a carefully planned process that eventuates into the acquisition of entrepreneurial competencies. The education is a set of very valuable skills needed by the entrepreneurs to avoid future trial and errors (Osuala, 2004). Student who have acquired entrepreneurship education and have the chance of watching media programmes that are entrepreneurial in content can lead to start-up and entrepreneurial orientation.

2.9.1 Conceptual Framework



Independent variables

Intervening Variable

Dependent Variable

Source: Self Actualised for the study (2012)

From the conceptual framework, the following hypotheses were drawn;

Hypothesis one, (H₀₁) there is no significant statistical relationship between TV programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

Hypothesis two, (H₀₂) there is no significant statistical relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

Hypothesis three, (H₀₃) there is no significant statistical relationship between newspaper publications and promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

Hypothesis four, (H₀₄) there is no significant statistical relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education.

Hypothesis five, (H₀₅) entrepreneurship education has no significant statistical effect on media programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter described the methodology of the study. Section 3.2 begins by discussing the overall research designs and the justification for its choice. Section 3.3 presents an overview of Nairobi as the study area and discussed the reasons why it was preferred. Section 3.4 described the target population and the sampling techniques used to arrive at the appropriate sample size. The sampling design and technique have been discussed in section 3.5. Section 3.6 discussed the determination of the sample. Section 3.7 is a discussion on how respondents were selected. Section 3.8 is a discussion on data collection tools. Preparation and Data Collection Procedures are discussed in section 3.9. Section 3.10 is a discussion on how reliability and validity was ensured in this study. Section 3.11 is a discussion on how data was prepared for analyses and section 3.12 is a discussion on the methods used for analysing the data. Section 3.13 is a discussion on what this study expected to see at the end.

3.2 The Research Design

There are varied definitions and classifications of research design. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) a research design is a plan and structure of investigation so conceived so as to obtain answers to research question or problem. The research design therefore constitutes a blue print for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. The research design chosen for this study was

descriptive survey though some elements of explanatory design were used. This is in recognition of the fact that no single design exists in isolation and can be mixed and matched to achieve optimal results of the study.

The employment of multi-designs in the same study enables triangulation to take place and thus increases the validity of the findings (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2003). Descriptive study seeks to portray accurate profile of person, events or situations. "It tries to discover answers to questions of whom, what, when, why, and sometimes how" (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Quantitative data would be collected to enable the measurements of both the independent and dependent variable.

3.3 The Study Area

The name Kenya appears to have come from the Kamba word Kinyaa, meaning "ostrich." The word "Nairobi" came from the Masai word enairobe, which literally means "stream of cold water" Nairobi was founded in 1899. Nairobi is the capital city of Kenya and is situated at an elevation of about 1660m in the highlands of the southern part of the country. It is the principal economic, administrative, and cultural center and is one of the largest and fastest growing cities in Africa. It grew up around a railway line constructed by the British colonial officials from Mombasa on the Indian Ocean coast to Uganda.

The present site of Nairobi was selected as a stores depot, shunting yard (place where trains are shifted from one track to another), and camping ground for the thousands of Indian laborers (also British colonials, who came to Kenya seeking

work) employed by the British to work on the line. From this point, Nairobi developed slowly, unplanned and unexpectedly. The outbreak of plague and the burning down of the original compound necessitated the town's rebuilding. Nairobi was chosen as the area of study because that is where most of Kenyan's universities are established.

3.4 The Target Population

The population of interest in this study was final year University Students in ten of the Universities selected. This is because the final year students are those who will be completing the Universities and will be looking for jobs. Five public and five private universities located in Nairobi, as well as those operating outside Nairobi but have campuses in the Nairobi city were targeted for the study. The reason for the choice is that, the scope of this research work is limited to only Nairobi province. The total target population for the study is 21,110 students.

3.5 Sampling Design and Techniques

Sampling is a procedure of using a small number of items or part of the whole population to make conclusion regarding the population. Apart from the pragmatic reason of reduced cost and time saving, sampling enables a researcher to estimate some unknown characteristics of the population and make generalizations (Zikmund, 2003). This study employed probability sampling designs. Each final year student had equal chance of being picked as respondent. Probability sampling ensures the law of Statistical Regularity which states that if on an average the sample chosen is a random one, the sample will have the same composition and characteristics as the universe (Kothari, 2010).

3.6 Determination of Sample Size

A crucial decision in research is the determination of the sample size. This is because the size of the sample dictates the level of sampling error that could lead to wrong conclusion about the population. Some general guidelines in choosing the sample size include the degree of variance within the population and the desired level of precision. A large sample size is usually required when the population is heterogeneous and desired level of precision is high (Zikmund, 2003, Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

In this study a sample of 320 was statistically obtained using a precision of 5% and a confidence level of 95% (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). This sample size was distributed proportionately to the 10 Universities based on the number of schools/faculties in that particular University.

$$N_c = \frac{Z^2 \cdot p \cdot q \cdot N}{d^2 (N - 1) + Z^2 \cdot p \cdot q}$$

Where: N_c is the cluster sample size

Z is the confidence level (95%); that is, $Z = 1.96$

p is the proportion of the of the strata population for entire population
(0.7)

q ($1-P$) is the proportion to total population of other strata (0.3)

d is the desired precision (0.05 level).

(Appendix iii) shows how the sample size was calculated using the formula.

Table 3.1 Determination of Sample Size

Strata	Population Size	Number of School per University	Sample Size per School	Total Sample Size
PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES				
Kenyatta University	2500	14	2.7 (3)	37
University of Nairobi	3500	27	1.9 (2)	53
Moi University	2600	15	2.6 (3)	39
Egerton University	1600	7	3.4 (3)	21
Jomo Kenyatta University	3000	8	5.7 (6)	48
PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES				
Inoorero University	1250	5	3.8 (4)	20
Day Star University	980	7	2.1 (2)	15
Strathmore University	1230	8	2.3 (2)	18
Kemu University	1200	5	6.7 (7)	35
Catholic University of East Africa	2250	17	2	34
Total	21110	113		320

Source: Self Actualized for the Study (2012)

3.7 Selection of Respondents

The study used several or multi-stage sampling to randomly select the respondent for the study. First, each selected University was stratified according to schools/faculties. Second, the list of final year students was also identified. Third, the researcher applied random sampling method to select each sample size calculated in Table 3.1 per school/faculty.

3.8 Data Collection Tools

In every study, appropriate instruments need to be developed. These will serve as a tool for collection of information. In social science research, according to (Mugenda & Mugenda 2003), the most commonly used instruments are;

questionnaires, interview schedules, observational forms and standardised test. This study used questionnaire and interview schedule to collect the primary data.

3.8.1 Survey Questionnaire

A self-structured questionnaire was used to collect data relating to the variables of the study from the sampled 320 University students in Nairobi province. Structured or close ended questionnaire, are an effective method of collecting data especially on large samples and can easily be analysed (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The questionnaire will be divided three main parts. (Appendix ii) Part A contains general questions about the respondent. Part B of the questionnaire contains questions that capture the independent variables television and its' programmes, radio and its' programmes and newspaper and its' publications. Part C would be centred on the intervening variable: entrepreneurship education and the entrepreneurial culture as a dependent variable. Questions were measured using the 5-point Likert scale type.

3.9 Preparation and Data Collection Procedures

In preparing for actual data collection, the following steps were used. First, the researcher ensured that the questionnaire are properly designed and constructed to meet the intended aim of the study, according to Kothari (2010) questionnaire is considered the heart of any survey operation. The length of the questionnaire was long enough to cover the essentials but short enough to minimize errors associated with the instruments. The construction of the questions was drawn from the objectives, literature review, and discussion with academicians. When the questions were ready a pilot test was conducted. Pilot testing was conducted in an

attempt to test the reliability of the research tool. Response from the pilot test aided in perfecting the instrument.

Second step, a research team was identified and research assistants trained for data collection. The research assistants were briefed on key protocols and ethics to be observed during data collection.

3.10 Reliability and Validity

These sub sections describe the procedures and design that was used in this study to ensure validity and reliability. Reliability refers to the measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. Reliability measure demonstrates that the operations of the study, such as data collection procedures could be repeated, with the same results (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Validity on the other hand refers to the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which are based on the research results. Validity of the instruments which is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences was measured using content validity. Content validity measures the degree to which data collected using particular instruments represent a specific domain of indicators or content of particular concept.

To ensure reliability, this study used the internal consistency technique by employing Cronbach Coefficient Alpha test for testing the research tool. Internal consistency of data was determined by correlating the scores obtained with scores obtained from other research instruments. Cronbach Coefficient Alpha test is commonly used as a measure of the internal consistency or reliability of a psychometric test score for a sample of examinees. It was first named Alpha by

Lee Cronbach. The result of correlation is Cronbach Coefficient Alpha which is valued between -1 and 1. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), the coefficient is high when its absolute value is greater than or equal 0.7 otherwise it is low. A high coefficient implies high correlation between variables indicating a high consistency among the variables.

3.11. Preparing Data for Analysis

Ahead of performing statistical analysis, it was discreet to prepare and examine data collected for possible blunders. Hair (2006), identified four issues that were addressed in preparing and cleaning data for analysis namely; coding of data, accommodation of missing data, identifying outliers that might disproportionately affect the results and the assurance of meeting the underlying statistical assumptions. Data coding for this study followed the SPSS interface procedure. This enabled quick data entry with minimisation of errors and made subsequent analyses especially data transformation and re-coding more simple.

Missing data is a situation where valid values on one or more variables and cases are not available for analysis (Gall, 2003; Cooper and Schindler, 2001). The problem of missing data was solved using the 'hot deck' method of imputation where the missing value was substituted from another observation in the sample that was deemed similar.

Outliers are observations with unique combination of characteristics identified as distinctly different from the other observations. In the present study outliers were either assumed when they formed part of the defining criteria of the study and others were checked by exploring data using stem-and-leaf displays in the SPSS

programme. The use of large sample size also diminished the effects of outliers (Gall, 2003).

The final step in preparing and examining the data involved testing for assumptions underlying the statistical base for analysis. The most important of all the assumption is the assumption of normality which many a times is the indication that other statistical assumptions have also been met (Kline, 2005).

Multicollinearity test was also performed on the variables as a way of eliminating any correlation between two or more independent variables which may cause error with the research finding. This was done by scanning a correlation matrix of all the predictor variables and see if any correlate very highly. Very highly correlated means correlation of above 0.8 or 0.9 (Field (2005). With the help of SPSS, various collinearity diagnostics were produce. One of such is the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). The VIF indicates whether a predictor has strong linear relationship with other predictors. Myers (1990) suggests that a value of 10 is a good value at which to worry. Bowerman & O'Connell (1990) suggest that if the average VIF is greater than 1, then multicollinearity may be biasing.

3.12. Methods of Data Analysis

The researcher used quantitative approach in the analysis. According to Creswell (1994), quantitative research focuses on examining a problem based on testing a theory and analysing it using statistical techniques. The data collected was analysed using univariate, bivariate and multivariate.

The first step was to prepare and examine data for possible errors of omission and commission. In addition a reliability assessment of internal consistency of the items was to perform using Cronbach Alpha coefficient. Second was to inspect the data using univariate data analysis and come out with descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution, percentages, mean and standard deviation. Third, step was to determine and validate whether data collected is in congruence with the theoretical underpinnings of the study. Fourth step involved testing the hypothesis postulated for this study. To achieve this end, inferential statistics that include correlation was performed in order to examine the bivariate associations between the independent and the dependent variables and as a precursor to regression analysis. Pearson's correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two continuous variables and has the advantage of yielding to a small standard error (Gall and Saunders, 2003).

The coefficient of correlation (r), determine the degree (strength) of relationship and its value is between -1 and 1. A value 0 implies no relationship, 1 implies a perfect positive relationship, -1 means a negative relationship. An absolute value of r between 0.5 and less than 1 implies a strong relationship between variables. If the value r is greater than 0.3 and less than 0.5 then the relationship is moderate. The relationship is weak if the value of r is less than 0.3.

Specifically, correlation was used to test research hypotheses one (H_{01}), two (H_{02}), three (H_{03}) and four (H_{04}). Again, regression was used to carry out multivariate analysis to determine the effect of entrepreneurship education on the

relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. This was to test hypothesis five (H_{05}). Results were presented in both textual and tabular form.

Table: 3.2 Measurements and Operationalisation of Variables

Objective	Research question	Statistical Approach	Questions to answer objective	Interpretation
Examine the effect of television programmes in promoting entrepreneurial culture among young people.	To what extent do television programmes promote entrepreneurial culture?	Karl Pearson Correlation analysis	12-21	Value of r ranges from 0-1 values 0-0.3 weak relationship 0.4-0.6 moderate relationship 0.7above strong relationship
Determine the relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture.	What is the effect of radio programmes in promoting entrepreneurial culture?	Karl Pearson Correlation analysis	22-28	Value of r ranges from 0-1 values 0-0.3 weak relationship 0.4-0.6 moderate relationship 0.7above strong relationship
Examine the relationship between newspapers publications and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture.	To what extent do newspaper publications promote entrepreneurial culture?	Karl Pearson Correlation analysis	29-32	Value of r ranges from 0-1 values 0-0.3 weak relationship 0.4-0.6 moderate relationship 0.7above strong relationship
Establish the relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education	What is the relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education	Karl Pearson Correlation analysis	29-32	Value of r ranges from 0-1 values 0-0.3 weak relationship 0.4-0.6 moderate relationship 0.7above strong relationship
Examine the relationship between acquired entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial culture	What is the influence of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture	Regression analysis	40-45	R^2 Adj r^2 t value F value Level of significance 0.05

Source: Author, 2012

3.13 Expected Outcome

This study investigated media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture using fourth year students in the selected universities. This will give an insight into media programmes that should be broadcasted to enhance the promotion of entrepreneurial culture. Copies of the research report are available at Kenyatta University and University of Cape Coast library for use by all stakeholders.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings that emerged from the study and contain 6 sections. Section 4.2 presents reliability analysis result for the whole study, 4.3 presents the sample characteristics of the study in terms of respondents' age, gender, choice of media. Section 4.4 is a discussion on sample characteristics. Descriptive statistics on the variables are presented in section 4.5. Section 4.6 presents findings of correlation analysis and regression analysis on all the variables.

4.2 Test of Reliability

To test reliability of this study, SPSS was used to run a reliability test on all the questionnaire items. A Cronbach's Alpha of 0.70 was obtained as shown in Table 4.1. This is a strong indication of reliability. According to Mugenda & Mugenda (2003), reliability of 0.7 and above is strong and reliable.

Table 4.1 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Number of Items
0.70	0.80	45

Source: Survey Data (2012)

4.3 Sample Characteristics

Out of the targeted 320 respondents, 318 filled the questionnaire thus yielding a response rate of 99.4% which according to Kothari (2004) is large enough to undertake such a study. This high response rate reflects a keen interest by the respondents to support entrepreneurship research with high hopes that the challenges they face are now being dealt with. To obtain the profile of the students who participated in this study, information concerning age, gender, programmed pursued, favourite media, favourite programme broadcasted as well as the frequency of watching TV, listening to radio or reading News papers and the convenient days and time for broadcasting entrepreneurial programmes were collected.

4.3.1 Demographic Characteristics

Respondents' demographic features are described in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Demographic Characteristics

Bio Data	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative percent
Gender	Male	153	48.1	48.1
	Female	165	51.9	100.0
Age	17-21	33	10.4	10.4
	22-25	240	75.5	85.8
	26-30	30	9.4	95.3
	31-35	15	4.7	100.0
Total		318	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2012).

Table 4.2 indicates that out of the 318 respondents, 165 (51.9%) were females while 153 (48.1%) were males. With respects to age of respondents, those within

the age group of 22-25 were in the majority 240 (75%), the least were in the 31-35 year group with only 15 (4.7%). Those in the age brackets of 17-21 and 26-30 scored 33 (10.4%) and 30 (9.4%) respectively.

4.3.2 Entrepreneurship Education

The researcher intended to know how respondents think entrepreneurship should be studied in the various universities. The result is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Entrepreneurship Education

Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative %
Core for Undergraduates	192	60.4	60.4
Specialization for Postgraduates	18	5.7	66.0
Specialization for Both Under And Post Graduates	100	31.4	97.5
Specialization for Undergraduates	8	2.5	100.0
Total	318	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2012)

Table 4.3 shows that 192 (60.4%) respondents opined that entrepreneurship should be studied as a core for undergraduates, 100 (31.4%) respondents were of the view that it should be an area specialisation for both postgraduate and undergraduate students. For entrepreneurship to be a specialization unit for postgraduate students and as a specialisation for undergraduates, the scores stood at 18 (5.7%) and 8 (2.5%) respectively.

4.3.3 Respondents' Choice of Media

Respondents were asked on their favourite media. Their views are shown in Table 4.4

Table 4.4 Distribution of Respondents' Choice of Media

Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative%
Newspaper	36	11.3	11.3
Radio	16	5.0	16.4
Television	143	44.9	61.3
All the above	123	38.7	100.0
Total	318	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2012)

As seen in Table 4.5, among the media outlined, most respondents chose television as their favourite media 143 (44.9%). Newspaper came next 36 (11.3%). Radio on the other hand had the least 16 (5%). Nevertheless, 123 (38.7%) respondents preferred all forms of media provided in the question.

4.3.4 Respondents' Favourite Programme

Apart from respondents' favourite media, their choice of programmes were also investigated, its outcome is indicated in Table 4.5

Table 4.5 Distribution of Respondents' Favourite Programme

Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative%
News	80	25.2	25.2
Reality shows	100	31.4	56.6
Interviewing Session	35	11.0	67.6
Talk shows/Discussion	70	22.0	89.6
Documentary	22	6.9	96.5
All the above	11	3.5	100.0
Total	318	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2012)

In Table 4.5, reality shows topped as the most favourite programme for respondents 100 (31.4%). The least favourite programme was documentary 22 (3.5%). The rest are news 80 (25.2%), talk shows 70 (22%), and interviewing session 35 (11%). However, it is important to mention that 11 (3.5%) respondents chose all the media programmes provided in the question.

4.3.5 Respondents View on Convenient Days for Broadcasting Entrepreneurial Programmes

On the convenient days to broadcast entrepreneurial programmes, Table 4.6 depicts the outcome.

Table 4.6 Distribution of Respondents View on Convenient Days for Broadcasting Entrepreneurial Programmes

Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative %
Sunday	65	20.4	20.4
Wednesday	2	0.6	21.1
Friday	60	18.9	39.9
Saturday	191	60.1	100.0
Total	318	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2012)

As seen in Table 4.6, majority of respondents 191(60.1%) opted Saturdays while only 2 (0.6%) respondents chose Wednesdays. 65 (20.4%) respondents chose Sunday and Fridays 60 (18.9%) accordingly.

4.3.6 Respondents View on Convenient Time for Broadcasting

Entrepreneurial Programmes

Timing of programme broadcasting is of importance to the viewer. Table 4.7 shows respondents' view on programme timing.

Table 4.7 Distribution of Respondents View on Convenient Time for Broadcasting Entrepreneurial Programmes

Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative%
Morning	142	44.7	44.7
Afternoon	101	31.8	76.4
Evening	75	23.6	100.0
Total	318	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2012)

From table 4.7, 142 (44.7%) opted for morning hours, 101 (31.8%) were in favour of afternoon hours whilst only 75 (23%) decided on the evening.

4.4 Discussion on Sample Characteristics

In terms of demographic characteristics of the sample, there were various findings. The females were a little more than the males. This indicates that females are gradually developing the interest for entrepreneurship. As all the respondents were studying at the undergraduate level, they were mostly aged between 22 to 25 years old 75% (240). Only 4.7% (15) were within 31 to 35 years old. This finding is in agreement with Ronstadt 1995 (cited in Bird, 1989) that, there are milestone years when individuals are inclined to consider starting or having interest in entrepreneurial activity.

In terms of entrepreneurship education, 60.4% (192) suggested that entrepreneurship should be studied as a core for all undergraduates and not only business students. As many as 31.4% also wished that entrepreneurship should not only be studied as a core, but in addition as an area of specialisation for both undergraduates and post graduates. This indicates the willingness and readiness of students to learn entrepreneurship in the various universities in Kenya. The GEM (2004) highlights entrepreneurship education as one of the key elements in building a strong innovation capacity.

Descriptive findings indicate that lots of the students 44.9% (143) have a preference for TV and 38.7% (123) having preference for all three form of media. This implies that TV continues to be the most popular form of media around the

world and remains the top media platform. It is also in agreement with the study done by Levie, Hart and Karim (2010) where TV was chosen by respondents as their most popular medium for listening to entrepreneurial issues. Students preferred reality shows 31.4% (100) to news, interviewing of role models, talk shows/discussions and documentaries.

In terms of convenient days and time to broadcast entrepreneurial programmes, students preferred Saturdays 60% (191) and in the morning hours 44.7% (142) respectively. This goes to show that the days and times at which media programmes are transmitted or published is of importance to the viewers.

4.5 Descriptive Statistics on the All Variables: Independent, Mediating and Independent Variables

Respondents' views on the various independent variables are presented in subsequent discussions with respect to measures of central tendencies, frequencies and percentages.

4.5.1 Television Programmes

A reliability check on the variable produced Cronbach's Alpha reliability of 0.70 and their descriptive statistics are shown in Tables 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10

Table 4.8 Descriptive Statistics on Television Programmes

Categories	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
a) Content of:				
TV news	1.00	5.00	2.92	1.25
TV talk shows/discussion	1.00	5.00	3.15	1.19
TV reality shows	1.00	5.00	2.96	1.13
TV interviews	1.00	5.00	3.40	1.68
TV documentaries	1.00	5.00	3.18	1.22
b) Frequency of Broadcasting and watching of:				
TV entrepreneurial news	1.00	5.00	4.21	0.75
TV entrepreneurial talk shows/discussion	1.00	5.00	4.26	0.78
TV entrepreneurial reality shows	1.00	5.00	4.30	0.76
TV interviewing of role models (entrepreneurs)	1.00	5.00	4.20	0.77
TV entrepreneurial documentaries	1.00	5.00	4.30	0.75
Aggregate Score:				
Television Programmes			3.69	1.03

Source: Survey Data (2012)

From Table 4.8 television programme had an aggregate mean (*M*) score of 3.69 with a standard deviation (*SD*) of 1.03.

Table 4.9 Response Rate for Content and Frequency of TV Programmes

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Content of TV Programmes	58.2	22.6	29.2	100
Frequency of Broadcasting and watching of TV Programmes	96.9	3.1	0	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

The questions were in two parts, (content and frequency of TV programmes). The result of the content shows that, 58.2% of the respondents agree that the content of all the TV programmes are rich enough to inculcate values and norms of entrepreneurial culture among University Students. Contrary, 29.2% disagreed to

the fact that TV programmes are rich enough to inculcate entrepreneurial values and norms. In terms of the frequency 96.9% agreed, 3.1% were neutral.

Aggregate response is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Aggregate Response Rate on TV Programmes

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
TV Programmes	85.5	14.2	0.3	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

On the aggregate, 85.5% of the respondents agreed that TV programmes can promote entrepreneurial culture. However, 14.2% were neutral with 0.3% disagreeing to the statement. This response rates are in congruence with studies carried out by Levie et al. (2010) based on GEM's report where about 75.2% of respondents agreed to the fact that TV programmes have whipped up their interest in entrepreneurship.

4.5.2 Radio Programmes

A Cronbach's Alpha reliability of 0.63 was obtained on the variable. Table 4.11 indicates its descriptive statistics and Table 4.12 shows the response rates.

Table 4.11 Descriptive Statistics of Radio Programmes

Categories	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.
a) Content of:				
Radio news	1.00	5.00	2.84	1.15
Radio discussions	1.00	5.00	2.96	1.13
Radio interviews	1.00	5.00	3.42	1.12
Radio documentaries	1.00	5.00	3.10	1.02
b) Frequency of Broadcasting and listening to:				
Radio entrepreneurial news	1.00	5.00	4.19	0.85
Radio entrepreneurial discussions	1.00	5.00	4.06	0.80
Radio interviewing of role models (entrepreneurs)	1.00	5.00	3.95	0.750
Radio entrepreneurial documentary	1.00	5.00	4.01	0.73
Aggregate Score: Radio Programmes			3.57	0.94

Source: Survey Data (2012)

Radio programmes had an aggregate mean (*M*) score of 3.57 and a standard deviation (SD) of 0.94.

Table 4.12 Response Rate on Content and Frequency of Radio Programmes

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Content of TV Programmes	36.8	39.6	23.6	100
Frequency of Broadcasting and watching of TV Programmes	71.1	27.4	1.6	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

The questions were in two parts, (content and frequency of radio programmes). The result of the content shows that, 36.8% of the respondents agree that the content of all the radio programmes are rich enough to inculcate values and norms of entrepreneurial culture among University Students. Contrary, 23.6% disagree to the fact that radio programmes are rich enough to inculcate entrepreneurial values and norms with 39.6% being neutral. In terms of the frequency 71.1%

agreed, 27.4% were neutral and 1.6% disagreeing to the statement. Table 4.13 presents the aggregate response rates on radio programmes.

Table 4.13 Aggregate Response Rate on Radio Programmes

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Radio Programmes	67.4	11.9	0.6	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

On the aggregate, 67.4% agreed to the fact that radio programmes can promote entrepreneurial culture. 11.9% are neutral with 0.6% disagreeing to the statement.

4.5.3 Newspaper Publications

Newspaper as an independent variable produced a Cronbach's Alpha reliability of 0.30 descriptive statistics as well as response rates are presented in Tables 4.14 and 4.15.

Table 4.14 Descriptive Statistics of Newspaper Publication

Category	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Content of newspaper publications	1.00	5.00	4.24	0.71
Frequency of reading entrepreneurial articles published in newspaper	1.00	5.00	4.30	0.69
Aggregate Score: Newspaper Publications			4.27	0.70

Source: Survey Data (2012)

From Table 4.14 the aggregate mean and standard deviation were $M = 4.27$ and $SD = 0.70$ respectively.

Table 4.15 Responses on Content and frequency of Newspaper Publications

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Content of newspaper publication	56.6	21.7	21.7	100
Frequency of publishing and reading of entrepreneurial articles in newspapers	87.8	11.6	0.6	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

The questions were in two parts, (content and frequency of radio programmes).

The result of the content shows that, 56.6% of the respondents agree that the content of newspaper publications is rich enough to inculcate values and norms of entrepreneurial culture among University Students. Contrary, 21.7% disagree to the fact that newspaper publications are rich enough to inculcate entrepreneurial values and norms with 21.7% being neutral. In terms of the frequency 87.8% agreed, 11.6% were neutral and 0.6% disagreeing to the statement. Table 4.16 presents the aggregate responses on newspaper publications.

Table 4.16 Aggregate Response Rate on Newspaper Publication

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Response rate for newspaper publications	52.2	45.3	2.2	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

On the aggregate, 52.2% agreed to the fact that articles published in newspapers can promote entrepreneurial culture, 45.3% were neutral, with 2.2% disagreeing to the statement.

4.5.4 Entrepreneurial Culture

Entrepreneurial culture as the dependent variable had Cronbach Alpha reliability of 0.72. Tables 4.17, 4.18, and 4.19 present descriptive statistics and response rates on the variable

Table 4.17 Descriptive Statistics of Entrepreneurial Culture

Category		Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Entrepreneurial culture, indicators:					
Entrepreneurial orientation:	Pro-activeness	1.00	5.00	4.07	0.80
	Perseverance	1.00	5.00	4.35	0.75
	Innovation	1.00	5.00	4.14	0.78
	Risk-taking	1.00	5.00	4.19	1.86
Entrepreneurial mindset		1.00	5.00	4.21	0.78
Start – Up motives		1.00	5.00	3.99	0.95
Aggregate Score: Entrepreneurial Culture				4.16	0.99

Source: Survey Data (2012)

The aggregate mean and standard deviation for entrepreneurial culture from the Table were 4.16 and 0.99 respectively. Tables 4.18 and 4.19 present the response rate for the variable.

Table 4.18 Response Rate on Entrepreneurial Culture

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Proactiveness	81.5	14.5	4.1	100
Perseverance	88.1	9.4	2.5	100
Innovativeness	88.0	8.2	3.8	100
Risk taking	77.1	16.0	6.9	100
Entrepreneurial Mindset	83.6	14.2	2.2	100
Start –up Motives	73.9	17.6	8.5	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

Entrepreneurial mindset was used as one of the indicators of entrepreneurial culture. Result shows that 83.6% of the respondents agree to the statement in the questionnaire, 14.2% were neutral with 2.2% disagreeing to the statement. Again, start up motives was also used as an indicator of entrepreneurial culture. Result shows that 73.9% of the respondents were in favour of the statement, 17.6% were neutral and 8.5% disagreeing to the statement. Entrepreneurial orientation was another indicator, taking into consideration proactiveness, perseverance, innovativeness and risk-taking. Result shows that 81.5% agree to proactiveness being an indicator of entrepreneurial culture as an entrepreneur, 14.5% were neutral with 4.1% disagreeing to the statement 88.1% also agree to perseverance as an indicator, 9.4% were neutral and 2.5% disagreeing.

As many as 88.0% of the respondents were in favour of innovativeness as an indicator of entrepreneurial culture, 8.2% were neutral and 3.8% disagreed. Risk taking was also one of the indicators of entrepreneurial culture under entrepreneurial orientation. The result shows that 77.1% agreed, 16.0% neutral and 6.9% against the statement.

Table 4.19 Aggregate Response Rate for Entrepreneurial Culture

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Entrepreneurial culture	96.6	3.1	0.3	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

On the aggregate, 96.6% agreed on the indicators of entrepreneurial culture 3.1% were neutral with 0.3% disagreeing to the statement. This is in line with what this

study is proposing that when people exhibit all or any of these indicators of entrepreneurial culture then the people have entrepreneurial culture. Again, this result is similar to studies done by GEM (2008) in South Africa where it was established that South Africa has low entrepreneurial culture because there is low entrepreneurial activity in the country. These low entrepreneurial activities were related to business start up motives, innovation and innovation.

4. 5.5. Entrepreneurship Education

As per the researcher conceptual framework, entrepreneurial education was conceptualised as the mediating variable. The variable obtained a reliability of 0.76 on the questionnaire items. Descriptive statistics as well as the response rate are presented on Tables 4.20, 4.21 and 4.22.

Table 4.20 Descriptive Statistics of Entrepreneurship Education

Item	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
Acquired Entrepreneurial Education and entrepreneurship culture	1.00	5.00	4.21	0.82
Entrepreneurship Education giving entrepreneurial culture to non- business students	1.00	5.00	3.94	0.85
Entrepreneurship Education equipping students with skills of identifying viable business ideas	1.00	5.00	4.16	0.84
Entrepreneurship education help students to become creative and innovative	1.00	5.00	3.96	0.95
Entrepreneurship education gives students perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and propensity to enter into business after school	1.00	5.00	4.16	0.82
Acquired Entrepreneurship education will make students see entrepreneurship as a way of life and not a risky venture	1.00	5.00	4.19	0.90
Aggregate			4.10	0.86

Source: Survey Data (2012)

From Table 4.20, the aggregate mean and standard deviation scores for the variable were 4.10 and 0.86 respectively.

Table 4.21 Response Rate on Acquired Entrepreneurship Education

Item	Agree Percent	Neutral Percent	Disagree Percent	Total Percent
Acquired Entrepreneurial Education and entrepreneurship culture	84.3	13.5	2.2	100
Entrepreneurship Education giving entrepreneurial culture to non- business students	74.5	19.2	6.3	100
Entrepreneurship Education equipping students with skills of identifying viable business ideas	83.6	12.9	3.5	100
Entrepreneurship education help students to become creative and innovative	71.7	19.5	8.8	100
Entrepreneurship education gives students perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and propensity to enter into business after school	88.4	6.6	5.1	100
Acquired Entrepreneurship education will make students see entrepreneurship as a way of life and not a risky venture	85.8	6.3	7.8	100

Source: Survey Data (2012)

Table 4.22 Aggregate Response Rate on Entrepreneurship Education

	Agree percent	Neutral percent	Disagree percent	Total Percent
Entrepreneurship Education	94.4	5.7	0	100

Source: survey Data (2012)

On the aggregate, 94.4% of the respondents agreed that entrepreneurship education can influence the relationship between media programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture. However, 5.7% were neutral with no respondent disagreeing to the statement.

Table 4.23 Descriptive Summary on all the Variables

Category	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Television Programmes	1.00	5.00	4.10	0.63
Radio Programmes	1.00	5.00	4.07	0.58
Newspaper Publications	1.00	5.00	4.42	0.56
Entrepreneurial Education	1.00	5.00	4.48	0.60
Entrepreneurial Culture	1.00	5.00	4.54	0.58
Aggregate Score:			4.32	0.59

Source: Survey Data (2012)

In summary, the mean for all the variables in this study is 4.32 and has a standard deviation of 0.59.

4.6 Inferential Statistics on the Variables

This section present the inferential statistics such as Pearson product-movement correlation coefficient and regression analysis used to test and analyse the various hypotheses of this study. Results of these analyses are presented in subsequent discussions.

4.6.1 Result of Correlation Analysis

Pearson product movement correlation coefficient was used to establish the associations between independent variables: TV programmes, Radio programmes, Newspaper publications and the dependent variable entrepreneurial culture. Further correlation was also carried out to ascertain the relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education.

4.6.1.1 Television Programmes and Entrepreneurial Culture

The study used TV programmes as one of its independent variables. To establish whether there is some association between TV programmes and the indicators of the dependent variable, Pearson correlation coefficient was used. The result is depicted in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24 Correlation Coefficients between TV Programmes and Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture

		TV News	TV Talk Shows/Discussions	TV Reality Shows	TV Interview Session	TV Documentaries
Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture:						
Entrepreneurial Mindset	r	.08	.06	.02	.20**	.09
	p	.14	.27	.75	.01	.12
Entrepreneurial Start – Up Motives	r	-.03	.12*	.11	.30**	.02
	p	.54	.04	.05	.00	.77
Entrepreneurial Orientation:						
Proactiveness	r	-.06	.20**	.05	.23**	.14*
	p	.28	.00	.39	.00	.01
Perseverance	r	-.11	.33**	.10	.40**	.40**
	p	.06	.00	.09	.00	.00
Innovativeness	r	.08	.20**	.20**	.23**	.04
	p	.15	.00	.01	.00	.48
Risk- Taking	r	-.06	.30**	.20**	.30**	.20**
	p	.32	.00	.00	.00	.01

**correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed) *correlation is significant at the level 0.05 (2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

When TV programmes were correlated against the indicators of entrepreneurial culture, non hypothesised findings come up. Under entrepreneurial mindset only TV interview had a significant relationship ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.05$). This suggest that the more interviewing of role model (successful entrepreneurs) are broadcasted for people to watch, the more people/students mind will be crammed with entrepreneurial intentions, aspirations and thinking. This is in agreement with the

study carried out by Radu & Redien-Collot (2008) on the French press to determine whether social representation of entrepreneurs was developing an entrepreneurial cognitive infrastructure in France. They argued that cognitive positive social representation of entrepreneurs is indispensable for stimulating entrepreneurial intentions.

Results concerning business start up motives as dependent on TV programmes, revealed that TV interview was first ($r = 0.30, p < 0.01$) followed by TV talk show/discussion ($r = 0.22, p < 0.05$) to promote business start up. This suggests that, the more successful entrepreneurs are interviewed and talk shows/discussion transmitted on the TV stations, the more students will be enthused to starting their own business and not to rely on the government for employment. This is in agreement with the long standing argument in literature that the presence of successful entrepreneurs (role models) in a society will encourage more business start up through vicarious learning (Kibas & K'aol, 2004). Other scholars have argued that the existence of successful role models increases the desirability and feasibility of one becoming an entrepreneur thus enhancing entrepreneurial propensity (Shapero and Sokol, 1982).

The ability to take calculated risk is an indication of the students having entrepreneurial culture. The result of risk taking and TV programmes portrayed that talk show/discussions and interview are the TV programmes that can be used to promote entrepreneurial culture in line with risk taking ($r = 0.30, p < 0.01$). Reality and documentary followed with ($r = 0.20, p < 0.01$).

TV interview again topped when it came to innovativeness ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$) followed by reality shows and talk shows/discussion ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$). This suggests that students will become more innovative when they watch and listen to successful entrepreneurs being interviewed or celebrated.

4.6.1.1.1 Testing of Hypothesis One (H_{01})

Hypothesis one of this study states; ‘there is no significant statistical relationship between TV programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture’. The research question to be answered is; what is the relationship between television programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture?

To test this hypothesis and to answer it research question, correlation was utilized.

The results are depicted in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25 Correlation Coefficients between TV Programmes and Entrepreneurial Culture

TV Programmes:		Entrepreneurial Culture
News	r	.03
	p	.64
Talk shows/discussion	r	.32**
	p	.00
Reality shows	r	.13*
	p	.02
Interviews	r	.40**
	p	.00
Documentaries	r	.32**
	p	.00

** correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed) * correlation is significant at the level 0.05 (2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

From the Table, there was no significant relationship between TV news and entrepreneurial culture ($r = 0.03$, $p > 0.05$). Significant positive correlation at 0.001 level are found between talk shows/discussions ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$), interviews ($r = 0.40$, $p < 0.01$), and documentaries ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$). Reality

shows on the other hand exhibited a positive relationship at 0.005 significant level ($r = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$). With the exception of news which had no significant relationship, the rest of the TV programmes all had a positive significant relationship with entrepreneurial culture.

Although the results of the correlation were moderate, TV interview was first followed by talk shows/discussion, documentary and reality shows. This suggests that when TV interview, talk shows/discussions, documentaries and reality shows are made entrepreneurial in content and frequently broadcasted, they can promote entrepreneurship culture, but not TV news. Findings on reality shows and entrepreneurial mindset in this study is contrary to the findings in Levie et al., (2010) which revealed that TV business reality programmes tend not to directly trigger actual entrepreneurial intentions or action.

However, they agree with the findings in the same study that reality shows do have a positive effect on social norms and values and thereby influence both the desirability and feasibility entrepreneurship. In this sense, they do, albeit indirectly, influence actual patterns of entrepreneurship.

Further correlation was carried out to find the association between the aggregated TV programmes and entrepreneurial culture. The result is depicted in Table 4.26 below.

Table 4.26 Correlation Coefficients between Aggregated TV programmes and Entrepreneurial Culture

		TV Programmes
Entrepreneurial Culture	r	0.40**
	p	0.00

**correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

As seen in Table 4.26, on the aggregate, TV programmes showed significant positive relationship with entrepreneurial culture ($r = 0.40$, $p < 0.01$). These results imply that TV programmes have an association with entrepreneurial culture. Hence the null hypothesis was rejected. This suggest that as more of the TV programmes are made entrepreneurial in content and frequently shown for people to watch, entrepreneurial culture will be promoted. To answer the research question, ‘what is the relationship between TV programmes and entrepreneurial culture’, it is concluded that, there is a positive relationship between TV programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture’.

These findings are similar to that of Expert Group (2007) that as regard promotion of entrepreneurship, TV programmes can do it. However, these types of programmes have different strengths and advantages of doing it. Again the finding is in line with the findings from the research survey carried out by Levie et.al. (2010), where people were motivated to start their own business after watching entrepreneurial programme on TV station

4.6.1.2 Radio Programmes

Correlation was carried out to find out the associations between radio programmes and entrepreneurial culture. The result is depicted in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27 Correlation Coefficients between Radio Programmes and Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture

Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture:		Radio News	Radio Talk shows and Discussion	Radio Interview session	Radio Documentaries
		Entrepreneurial Mindset	r .04	.06	-.01
	p .49	.29	.82	.00	
Entrepreneurial Start – Up Motives	r .03	-.02	-.09	-.01	
	p .61	.73	.09	.91	
Entrepreneurial Orientation:					
Proactiveness	r .10	.20**	.20**	.20**	
	p .07	.01	.01	.00	
Perseverance	r .20**	.10	.20**	.13*	
	p .00	.07	.00	.02	
Innovativeness	r -.02	.20**	-.14*	.03	
	p .70	.00	.02	.54	
Risk- Taking	r .24**	.20**	.21**	.30**	
	p .00	.00	.00	.00	

** correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed) * correlation is significant at the level 0.05 (2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

As seen in Table 4.27, correlation produced a mixture of positive and negative relationships. Radio news correlated positively with perseverance ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$) and risk taking ($r = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$). The others had no significant correlation. Radio talk shows/discussions correlated significantly the proactiveness, innovativeness and risk taking all having ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$). Radio documentary on the other hand had a positive significant relationship with entrepreneurial mindset ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$).

4.6.1.2.1 Testing of Hypothesis Two (H₀₂)

Hypothesis two of the study states; ‘there is no significant statistical relationship between radio programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture’. The research question to be answered is; ‘what is the relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture’?

To test this hypothesis and to answer the research question, correlation was utilised. The results are depicted in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28 Correlation Coefficients between Radio Programmes and Entrepreneurial Culture

Radio Programmes		Entrepreneurial Culture
News	r	.30**
	p	.00
Talk shows and Discussion	r	.20**
	p	.00
Interview session	r	.20**
	p	.00
Documentary	r	.20**
	p	.00

** correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

Contrary to TV news, radio news topped among all the radio programmes when they were correlated against entrepreneurial culture ($r = 0.30, p < 0.01$). The other radio programmes; interview, documentary and discussions also correlated positively and significantly with entrepreneurial culture at the same index ($r = 0.20, p < 0.01$). Further correlation was carried out to find the association between the aggregated radio programmes and entrepreneurial culture. The result is depicted in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29 Correlation Coefficients between Aggregated Radio Programmes and Entrepreneurial Culture

	Radio Programmes	
Entrepreneurial Culture	r	0.30**
	p	0.00

** correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

On the aggregate, radio programmes had a significant and positive relationship with entrepreneurial culture ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$), hence the null hypothesis was rejected. To answer the research question, ‘what is the relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture, results presented a significant and positive relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. This supports the argument by the Expert Group (2007) that while television is nowadays probably the most popular and far-reaching medium, other medium, such as the radio could also make important contributions to the development of entrepreneurship. In conclusion there is positive relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. However the relationship is moderate.

4.6.1.3 Newspaper Publications

Newspaper publication is one of the independent variable for this study. To find the association between newspaper and the dependent variable this hypothesis will be tested.

4.6.1.3.1 Testing Hypothesis Three (H_{03})

The study hypothesised that, ‘there is no significant statistical relationship between newspaper publications and promotion of entrepreneurial culture’. The research question to be answered is; what is the relationship between newspaper

publications and promotion of entrepreneurial culture? Correlation was used to test this hypothesis. The results are depicted in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30 Correlation Coefficients between Newspaper Publication and Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture

Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture:		Newspaper Publication
Entrepreneurial Mindset	r	.20**
	p	.00
Entrepreneurial Start – Up Motives	r	.30**
	p	.00
Entrepreneurial Orientation: Proactiveness	r	.33**
	p	.00
Perseverance	r	.31**
	p	.00
Innovativeness	r	.06
	p	.28
Risk- Taking	r	.22**
	p	.00

**correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

The result indicates that newspaper publication had a significant positive relationship with each of the indicators of entrepreneurial culture with the exception of innovativeness which did not reveal a significant relationship. Further correlation was carried out to find the association between the newspaper publication and entrepreneurial culture. The result is depicted in Table 4.31

Table 4.31 Correlation Coefficients between Newspaper Publications and Entrepreneurial Culture

Entrepreneurial Culture		Newspaper Publications
	r	0.41**
	p	0.00

**correlation is significant at the level 0.01(2 – tailed)

Source: Survey Data (2012)

As seen in Table 4.31, there is a significant positive relationship between

newspaper publications and promotion of entrepreneurial culture ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$). Hence the null hypothesis was rejected. This suggests that newspaper publications when made entrepreneurial in content and published frequently, can promote entrepreneurship culture. To answer the research question, what is the relationship between newspaper publication and promotion of entrepreneurial culture, there is a positive relationship between newspaper publications and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. The findings suggest that there is a synergetic association between the positive media coverage of entrepreneurship and enterprise campaigns.

Further correlation between indicators of entrepreneurial culture and all independent variables was also carried to compare the strength of each media programme in relation to the indicators of entrepreneurial culture. The results are shown in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32 Correlation Coefficient between Independent Variables and the Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture

		TV Prog	Radio Prog	Newspaper Publications
Indicators of Entrepreneurial Culture:				
Entrepreneurial Mindset	r	0.17**	0.11	0.19**
	p	0.00	0.57	0.00
Entrepreneurial Start – Up Motives	r	0.13**	-0.04	0.28**
	p	0.02	0.48	0.00
Entrepreneurial Orientation:				
Proactiveness	r	0.20**	0.14*	0.33**
	p	0.00	0.13	0.00
Perseverance	r	0.30**	0.18**	0.31**
	p	0.00	0.00	0.00
Innovativeness	r	0.11**	0.41	0.06
	p	0.00	0.46	0.28
Risk- taking	r	0.30**	0.32**	0.22**
	p	0.00	0.00	0.00

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

Source: Survey Data (2012)

Correlation between the three independent variables and each of the indicators of entrepreneurial culture show positive and negative associations. TV programmes correlated positively with entrepreneurial mindset ($r = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$), start up motives ($r = 0.13$, $p < 0.01$), proactiveness ($r = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$), perseverance ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$), innovativeness ($r = 0.11$, $p < 0.01$) and risk – taking ($r = 0.30$, $p < 0.01$). Radio programmes and indicators of entrepreneurial culture exhibited a mixture of positive and negative associations. Newspaper publications showed a significant positive relationship with each of the indicators of entrepreneurial culture. This implies that media programmes have different strength and degree to which they can promote entrepreneurial culture.

4.6.1.4 Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education in this study is a mediating variable. To find out whether the mediating variable has an association with the independent variables, correlation was carried out.

4.6.1.4.1 Testing of Hypothesis Four (H_{04})

Hypothesis four (H_{04}) states: ‘there is no significant statistical relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education. Pearson correlation coefficients were used to ascertain the association between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education. Table 4.33 shows the details.

Table 4.33 Correlation Coefficients between each Media Programmes and Acquired Entrepreneurship Education

	TV Programs	Radio Programs	Newspaper Publications
Acquired Entrepreneurship Education	r 0.21**	0.12*	0.18**
	P 0.00	0.03	0.00

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

Source: Survey (2012).

The results indicated a significant positive relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education. This means entrepreneurship education is important for media programmes to be effective instruments for the promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

Table 4.34 Correlation Coefficients between Aggregated Media Programmes and Acquired Entrepreneurship Education

	Media Programmes	
Acquired Entrepreneurship Education	r	.132*
	P	.019

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

Source: Survey (2012).

Although moderate, all the media programmes correlated positively with acquired entrepreneurship education, indicating a significant positive relationship with acquired entrepreneurship education. Hence the null hypothesis will be rejected. To answer the research question ‘what is the relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education, there is a significant

positive relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education

4.6.2 Result of Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was used to investigate the effect of entrepreneurship education on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

4.6.2.1 Testing of Hypothesis Five (H_{05})

Hypothesis five (H_{05}) states: 'entrepreneurship education has no significant statistical influence on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. The research question to be answered is 'how does acquired entrepreneurship education influence the relationship between media programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture'.

In testing the above hypotheses, multiple regressions were used to understand behaviour of the variables. Three stages were involved. In the first stage, the independent variables were regressed against the dependent variable and the output is shown in Tables 4.35 and 4.36. Regression analysis proved worthwhile because the variables met the necessary conditions. First, a check on multicollinearity proved that the variables correlated within the acceptable range of 0.3 and 0.7 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Secondly, the variables produced a Tolerance value greater than 0.10 and a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value less than 10. Thirdly, in the histogram showing the regression standardised residual indicated that the variables were normally distributed. In the first stage of the

regression, the independent variables were regressed against the dependent variables. The results are shown in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35 Regression Model Summary for Independent and Dependent Variables

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics				
						F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.513 ^a	.263	.256	.49638	.263	37.339	3	314	.000	1.778

a. Predictors: (Constant), newspaper publication, Radio Programmes, TV Programmes

b. Dependent Variable: entrepreneurial culture

Source: Survey Data (2012)

From Table 4.35, the model explained a significant proportion of variance in entrepreneurship scores. $R^2 = 0.263$, $F(3, 314) = 37.339$, $p < 0.01$. Indicating that, the model produced 26.3% of the variance in entrepreneurial culture.

Table 4.36 Regression Coefficient for Independents and Dependent Variable

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.579	.287		5.501	.000					
TV Programmes	.216	.052	.235	4.120	.000	.373	.226	.200	.722	1.385
Radio Programmes	.129	.055	.131	2.334	.020	.291	.131	.113	.744	1.343
Newspaper Publications	.351	.051	.339	6.832	.000	.405	.360	.331	.955	1.047

a. Dependent Variable: entrepreneurial culture

Source: Survey Data (2012)

In evaluating the independent variables, Table 4.36 shows that: TV programmes significantly predicted entrepreneurial culture, $b = 0.22$, $t(314) = 4.12$, $p < 0.05$. It contributed 4% of the total R^2 . Radio programmes significantly predicted entrepreneurial culture, $b = 0.13$, $t(314) = 2.33$, $p < 0.05$. It contributed 1.3% of the total R^2 . Newspaper publications significantly predicted entrepreneurial culture, $b = 0.35$, $t(314) = 6.83$, $p < 0.05$ and contributed 10.1% the total R^2 .

The regression model is $EC = \beta + \beta_1TVP + \beta_2RAP + \beta_3NPP + \varepsilon$

- Where:
- EC - Entrepreneurial Culture (dependent variable)
 - β - Regression constant
 - ε - Error of prediction. This will explain variation in growth that is not explained by the regression.
 - TVP - Television Programmes
 - RAP - Radio Programmes
 - NPP - Newspaper Publication

$$EC = 1.579 + 0.22 TVP + 0.13 RAP + 0.35NPP$$

In the second stage, the mediating variable was regressed against the dependent variable. The output is shown in Tables 4.37 and 4.38.

Table 4.37 Regression Model Summary for Mediating and Dependent Variable

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					
					R Square Change	F	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
	.238 ^a	.057	.054	.55972	.057	19.055	1	316	.000	1.446

a. Predictors: (Constant), entrepreneurship education

b. Dependent Variable: entrepreneurial culture

Source: Survey Data (2012)

As seen in Table 4.37, the model explained a significant proportion of variance in entrepreneurial culture scores. $R^2 = 0.057$, $F(1, 316) = 19.06$, $p < 0.01$. Indicating that, the model produced 5.7% of the variance in entrepreneurial culture.

Table 4.38 Regression Coefficients for the Mediating and the Dependent Variables

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Zero-order Sig.	order Partial	Part Tolerance	VIF	
(Constant)	3.522	.236		14.98	.00				
Entrepreneurship education	.227	.052	.238	4.365	.00	.238	.238	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: entrepreneurial culture

Source: Survey Data (2012)

The regression model is $EC = \beta + \beta EED + \varepsilon$

Where **EC** - Entrepreneurial Culture

EED - Entrepreneurship Education

ε - Error of prediction. This will explain variation in growth that is not explained by the regression.

$$EC = 3.522 + 0.23 EED + \varepsilon$$

The last stage, the independent and mediating variables were regressed against the dependent variable. The results are shown in Tables 4.39 and 4.40

Table 4.39 Regression model Summary for Independent, Mediating and the Dependent Variables

Model	R	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson		
				R Square	F	df1			df2	
	.537 ^a	.288	.279	.48861	.288	31.668	4	313	.000	1.693

a. Predictors: (Constant), Newspaper publication, Radio Programmes, Entrepreneurship Education, TV Programmes

b. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Culture

Source: Survey Data (2012)

As seen in Table 4.39, the model shows a significant proportion of variance in entrepreneurial culture scores. $R^2 = 0.288$, $F(4, 313) = 31.67$, $p < 0.05$. Indicating that, the model produced 28.8% of the variance in entrepreneurial culture.

Table 4.40 Regression Coefficient of Independent, Mediating and the Dependent Variables

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.051	.324		3.24	.00					
entrepreneurship education	.154	.046	.162	3.33	.00	.238	.185	.159	.963	1.04
TV Programmes	.220	.052	.240	4.27	.00	.373	.235	.204	.721	1.39
Radio Programmes	.117	.054	.119	2.14	.03	.291	.120	.102	.741	1.35
newspaper Publications	.322	.051	.310	6.26	.00	.405	.334	.299	.926	1.08

a. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Culture

Source: Survey Data (2012)

When the independent and mediating variables were regressed against the dependent variable, both the independent and mediating variables positively and significantly predicted entrepreneurial culture TV programmes $b = 0.22$, $t(313) = 4.27$, $p < 0.01$. Radio programmes $b = 0.12$, $t(313) = 2.14$, $p < 0.01$. Newspaper publication $b = 0.32$, $t(313) = 6.26$, $p < 0.05$. Entrepreneurship education $b = 0.15$, $t(313) = 3.33$, $p < 0.01$.

The regression model is $EC = \beta_0 + \beta_1TVP + \beta_2RAP + \beta_3NPP + \beta_4EED + \varepsilon$

- Where:
- EC - Entrepreneurial Culture (dependent variable)
 - β - Regression constant
 - ε - Error of prediction. This will explain variation in growth that is not explained by the regression.
 - TVP - Television Programmes
 - RAP - Radio Programmes
 - NPP - Newspaper Publication
 - EED - Entrepreneurship Education

Substituting the β , the regression equation will now be;

$$EC = 1.05 + 0.22TVP + 0.12RAP + 0.32NPP + 0.15EED$$

A summary of effect of the mediating variable on the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent is depicted in Table 4.41.

Table 4.41 Summary of Regression Analysis

Parameter	Before	After	Change	significance
β	1.579	1.051	-0.528	significance
R ² value	0.263	0.288	0.025	significance
F value	37.336	31.668	-5.668	significance
t value	5.501	3.242	-2.259	significance

Source: Survey Data (2012)

The regression model thereafter becomes

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \dots + \beta_nX_n + \beta_{med} \text{ (Mediating Factor)}$$

- Where:
- Y - Dependent Variable
 - β_0 - Constant regression coefficient
 - β_{1-n} - Regression coefficient for the independent variables
 - $\beta_{med.}$ - Regression coefficient for the mediating variable

Substituting the values of β , the equation will now be;

$$Y = 1.05 + 0.22TVP + 0.12RAP + 0.32NPP + 0.15EED$$

In summary, the mediating variable has an influence on the effect of predictor variables on the dependent variable. However, the effect is very small. The R^2 change was 2.5%. In reference to hypothesis 5 and in relation to the above discussion, the null hypothesis was rejected but the alternate hypothesis was maintained. The answer to the research question is, the mediating variable influences the independent variable on the dependent variable. However this influence is small.

This implies that adequate entrepreneurship education acquired by the university students will help them to appreciate entrepreneurial programmes that are transmitted on the TV and radio stations, as well as to appreciate newspaper entrepreneurial publications.

Table 4.42 is a summary of the hypotheses, result and conclusion.

Table 4.42 Summary of Hypotheses Tested, Results and Conclusion

Statements of Hypothesis	Result	Decision	Conclusion
H ₀₁ There is no significant statistical relationship between TV programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture	r = 0.40, p < 0.01 b = 0.22, t(313) = 4.27, p < 0.01	H ₀₁ rejected	Significant positive associations was found: all p values < 0.01
H ₀₂ There is no significant statistical relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture	r = 0.30, p < 0.01 b = 0.12, t(313) = 2.14, p < 0.01	H ₀₂ rejected	Significant positive association was found: all p values < 0.01
H ₀₃ There is no significant statistical relationship between newspaper publications and promotion of entrepreneurial culture	r = 0.41, p < 0.01 b = 0.32, t(313) = 6.26, p < 0.01	H ₀₃ rejected	Significant positive association was found: all p values < 0.01
H ₀₄ There is no significant statistical relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education	r = 0.132, p < 0.05	H ₀₄ rejected	Significant positive association was found: all p values < 0.05
H ₀₅ Entrepreneurship education does not influence the relationship between media programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture	r = 0.30, p < 0.01 b = 0.15, t(313) = 3.33, p < 0.01	H ₀₄ rejected	Statistically influenced the predictor.

Source: Survey Data (2012)

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction

Section 5.2 of this chapter provides a summary of the findings of the study in relation to the research objectives and hypotheses. Section 5.3 is conclusion of the study. Section 5.4 is recommendations based on the findings of this study to the various stakeholders and further researches suggestion are discussed in 5.5

5.2. Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the inter-play among media programmes and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture among university students in Kenya. These general objectives were further divided into five specific objectives that include: 1)to establish the relationship between television programmes in promoting entrepreneurial among University students in Nairobi, Kenya; 2)to determine the relationship between radio programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture among University Students in Nairobi, Kenya; 3)to examine the relationship between newspapers publications and the promotion of entrepreneurial culture among University students in Nairobi, Kenya; 4)to establish the relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education; and 5)to examine the influence of acquired entrepreneurial education on the relationship between media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture among the youth in the Universities of Nairobi, Kenya.

To achieve the purpose and objectives of this study, descriptive design was used. A sample of 320 was obtained statistically using a precision of 5% and a confidence level of 95%. Out of 320, 318 participated in the study. Quantitative data was gathered using a structured questionnaire. Data was analysed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics.

The key findings as they relate to the objectives and hypotheses testing of the study are as follows. The first hypothesis (H_{01}) stated that there is no significant statistical relationship between TV programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. Results indicated a significant positive association between TV programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture thus not supporting the hypothesis. This finding suggests that TV programmes can be used as a tool for promoting entrepreneurial culture in terms of entrepreneurial mindset, business start up motives and entrepreneurial orientation among university students in Nairobi, Kenya taking into consideration the content of the TV programmes, the frequency at which it is broadcasted, and the day and time of broadcasting such programmes. Specifically, TV reality shows and interviewing of role model (successful entrepreneurs) proved to be the best TV programmes to be used in the promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

The second hypothesis (H_{02}) stated there is no significant statistical relationship between radio programme and promotion of entrepreneurial programmes. The results showed a significant positive relationship thus not supporting the hypothesis.

The third hypothesis (**H₀₃**) stated that there is no significant statistical relationship between newspaper publications and promotion of entrepreneurial programmes. Findings indicated significant positive relationship thus not supporting the hypothesis. A key finding is that out of all the three forms of media used as independent variables in this study, newspaper publications ranked first. This holds the implication that people are now developing interest in print media.

The fourth hypothesis (**H₀₄**) stated that there is no significant statistical relationship between media programmes and acquired entrepreneurship education. The findings show a significant relationship thus not supporting the hypothesis. This suggests that people who have acquired some bit of entrepreneurship education can better appreciate entrepreneurial programmes in the various media used in this study.

Hypothesis five (**H₀₅**) stated that entrepreneurship education has no significant statistical effect on media programmes and promotion of entrepreneurial culture. The results showed that both the independent and the mediating variables significantly and positively predicted the entrepreneurial culture. This means that entrepreneurship education matters if media programmes are to be used effectively as a tool for the promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

5.3 Conclusion

This study is novel in that compared to all the literature reviewed, it is only this study that tried to look at the effect of both electronic and print media on the entrepreneurial culture. This has therefore led to greater understanding of how the media can promote entrepreneurial culture in terms of entrepreneurial mindset, start up motives and entrepreneurial orientation. Most of the literature looked at the electronic media alone and its effect on entrepreneurship.

Media has always been associated with negativity such that people think media always has an ill effect on the viewer. Findings from this study have re-echoed the positivity aspect of media programmes.

Again from the findings, the study concludes strongly that media programmes can be used as a tool for promotion of entrepreneurial culture in Kenya. However, other factors such as the content of these programmes, frequency of the programmes, day and time these programmes are broadcasted must be looked at if media programmes are to be used to achieve this course. If one person out of the number of unemployed youth in Kenya after watching a TV programme, listening to a radio programme or reading an entrepreneurial article in the newspaper and he/she is able to start a business venture, it will be a step to solving the unemployment situation in Kenya.

5.4 Recommendations

Although Kenya has a speck of entrepreneurial culture, it is relatively stumpy to attain industrialization and to achieve middle-income status by 2030 as per Kenya's economic blue print. Lack of an enterprising culture among the youth in Kenya is the possible reason for low entrepreneurial activity in the country. Entrepreneurial culture is pertinent to the success of small enterprises and as a weapon against poverty and unemployment not only in Kenya but also in Africa generally. This study unearths a number of media programmes that can be used to develop an entrepreneurial culture among the people of Kenya.

5.4.1 Media Houses

To the media houses specifically TV station, this study recommends that all TV stations in Kenya should be interviewing more successful entrepreneurs for people to watch, listen and begin to appreciate entrepreneurship. That is, TV stations must look for role models that are necessary to attract more Kenya and especially the youth to become entrepreneurs. Interviewing of successful entrepreneurs will convey in a direct and vivid way what being an entrepreneur could be like. Radio stations must also try and do same. This when done effectively and efficiently, can promote entrepreneurial culture in terms of entrepreneurial mindset, business start up motives and entrepreneurial orientation. Touching on TV documentaries, this study recommends that successful stories of well known entrepreneurs throughout the world can be a programme to be broadcasted frequently for people to watch. This will create greater awareness of the importance of entrepreneurship and the opportunities of an entrepreneurial

career. Documentaries on successful entrepreneurs often highlight personality traits such as imagination and determination. Such programmes can be highly inspiring. They can teach the lesson that entrepreneurial success often does not come with the first attempt and that perseverance is necessary. Radio stations in Kenya should also begin to frequently air more entrepreneurial documentary for people to listen and get a new perception and mindset towards entrepreneurship since it was identified that radio documentary is an effective tool for promoting entrepreneurial mindset.

Touching on reality shows, the study recommends that TV stations in Kenya should mount entrepreneurial reality shows. It can be in the form of a contest where graduates from the universities who have novel innovative ideas and business acumen are screened and selected for the reality show contest. The contest can be done along the lines of 'American Idol' or 'Slim Possibility' where these potential entrepreneurs compete for a prize example business start-up grant or venture capitalist assistance. The merits of the participants will be judged by a panel of entrepreneurial experts, TV audience and the general public.

Talk shows/discussions, this study recommends that media houses should make good use of entrepreneurship 'gurus' in Kenya (doctors and professors in entrepreneurship in the various institutions) to come to the studios and educate entrepreneurs and aspiring entrepreneurs on the prudent way of carrying out business. The talk show/discussion programme can begin or end with a phone in

session where the general public is allowed to ask questions which will be addressed by the panel and or bring in their contributions.

Finally to the print media houses, this study recommends that the print media houses in Kenya can come up with a weekly paper entitled entrepreneurship where only entrepreneurial issues/articles will be published.

5.4.2 Educational Institutions

Schools and specifically universities in Kenya must make it a point to teach entrepreneurship as a core for all students as well as an area of specialization. Again the universities in Kenya must find ways of making entrepreneurship education attractive in the schools. For example the best entrepreneurship student can be given scholarship for further studies and much more. This acquired entrepreneurship education will be a platform upon which further interest in entrepreneurship will be built.

5.4.3 Government

Greater cooperation between governmental policy and activities and key producers and broadcasters is encouraged. Bringing together government and the commercial world of media production can be seen as a big feat because of the differing cultures and central remits of each of these sectors.

Another way to cooperate with the media in promoting entrepreneurial culture lies in sponsorship agreements and similar arrangements. In this case government shoulder a part of the production costs of entrepreneurial programmes (e.g. the prize that the winner of an entrepreneurial contest on TV receives) while the

responsibility for the content and format of the structure remains largely with the production/broadcasting company.

Again, media award for the best promotion of entrepreneurship on television/radio could be given to those media houses in Kenya that present entrepreneurship in a particularly interesting and stimulating way. Alternative awards could also be possible for programmes explicitly dedicated to promoting entrepreneurship, for advice programmes and for the most honest representation of entrepreneurship in fictional formats.

In some cases the cooperation can take place between the broadcaster (TV station) and other stakeholders (telecommunication providers, bank, and other private institutions) through sponsoring some of the recommended TV programmes, radio programmes and newspaper publication in this study to make the development of entrepreneurial culture and its resultant increase in entrepreneurial activity in Kenya a reality not a mirage.

5.5 Further Research

From the gaps identified in literature review and limitations drawn from this study, a number of possible research opening arise which when explored have the potential to shed more light on the impact of media programmes on the development of entrepreneurship and its culture among the youth in Kenya.

First literature review the fact not much studies have been undertaken on the impact of media programmes on entrepreneurial culture particularly in an African context and yet has been found that media has an impact on entrepreneurship.

Research in this area need to be intensified and encouraged in Kenya and may include the replication of this study by applying the concept in different context for example Mombasa.

Second opportunity for further research lies in the need to use different research design. This study has largely been based on descriptive research design. An experimental research design on the relationship between media programmes and development of entrepreneurial culture will provide greater insight on this study.

Third, correlation analysis and regression were the inferential statistics used in analysing data for this study. It would be enlightening for further researcher to use factor analysis to look into which factors can promote entrepreneurship culture better.

A fourth area for further research lies in the target population used for this study. This study use university students as the target population. However further researchers can use media staff/workers specifically programme producers, programme editors and designers. Owners of small and medium enterprises in Kenya can also be used as the target population. A gain the unemployed youth in Kenya can also be the target population for further studies. Again this study used only TV, radio and newspaper as forms of media. Further researchers can look at the internet and magazines as forms of media for the promotion of entrepreneurial culture.

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APPENDIX 1

Covering Letter

I am conducting a research to understand the relationship between media programmes and the development of entrepreneurial culture among the University students in Kenya. The results of this survey will form a basis for formulating ways of promoting entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial culture among Kenyan University.

In answering the questions, you are assured that your responses will be kept confidential and answers are intended for research purposes only. Please read each question carefully and follow instructions preceding each section. Try and answer all the questions in the questionnaire.

If you have any queries/suggestions regarding this project, feel free to contact the researcher on 0772443575 or 0735423633

Thank you for your time.

Yours faithfully

Nina Afriyie

9. What is your favourite programme, broadcasted on your choice of media

10. How frequent do you listen/watch/read your choice of media.
- Everyday
 - When bored
 - When I want to watch or listen to my favourite programmes
 - Once a while
11. In your view when do you think is the convenient days for broadcasting entrepreneurial programmes
- Fridays.....evenings
 - Saturdaysmornings
 - Sundays.....afternoons

PART B

The following statements are expressions of respondents' opinions concerning media programmes. Please rank on a scale 1-5 to reflect your feelings and the extent to which you agree with the statements. The minimum you may rank is 1 and the maximum 5. You may rank 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5. Please circle or **highlight** your answer in bold according to the scale below:

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree

TELEVISION (TV)	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
11) The news content on TV stations in Kenya is rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among the youth.	1	2	3	4	5
12) The talk shows and discussions on TV stations in Kenya are rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among the youth especially University students.	1	2	3	4	5
13) The content of reality shows and or contest is rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among University student in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5

14) Interview sessions on TV are rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among the youth especially University students	1	2	3	4	5
15) The content TV documentaries are rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among University students in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5
16) Frequent broadcasting and watching of TV documentary programmes that are entrepreneurial in content, can promote entrepreneurial culture among University Students in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5
17) Frequent broadcasting and watching of TV reality shows which are entrepreneurial in content, can promote entrepreneurial culture among University Students in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5
18) Frequent broadcasting and watching of TV talk shows and or discussion programmes that are entrepreneurial in content, can promote entrepreneurial culture among University Students	1	2	3	4	5
19) Frequent broadcasting and watching of TV interview session that are entrepreneurial in content, can promote entrepreneurial culture among University Students in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5
20) Frequent watching of entrepreneurial news can promote entrepreneurial culture	1	2	3	4	5
RADIO					
20)The News content on the radio stations in Kenya are rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among University Students	1	2	3	4	5
21) The content of discussions on radio are rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among University students in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5
22) The content of information and Advice/documentary radio programme are rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture among University Students	1	2	3	4	5
23) The content of interview session on radio are rich enough to inculcate value, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promote entrepreneurial culture	1	2	3	4	5

among University Students in Kenya					
24) Continuous listening to interviewing of entrepreneurial role models on the radio can promote entrepreneurial culture among University Students in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5
25) Continuous listening to discussions that are entrepreneurial in content on radio by students can promote entrepreneurial culture among them.	1	2	3	4	5
26) Continuous listening to information advice programmes that are entrepreneurial in content on radio can promote entrepreneurial culture among the University Students in Kenya	1	2	3	4	5
NEWSPAPER					
27) Entrepreneurial publication in newspapers are a way of disseminating entrepreneurial information	1	2	3	4	5
28) Newspapers publications about entrepreneurship can promote entrepreneurial culture.	1	2	3	4	5
29) Frequent reading of entrepreneurial articles in the newspapers can help you to become aware of entrepreneurial opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
30) The content of articles in the newspaper in Kenya is rich enough to inculcate values, norms, beliefs and attitudes that promotes entrepreneurial culture.	1	2	3	4	5
ENTREPRENEURIAL CULTURE					
31) Acting in anticipation of future occurrences (proactiveness) in business is an indicator of entrepreneurial culture.	1	2	3	4	5
32) Having a vision as an individual or a team and carrying it through to completion is an indicator of entrepreneurial culture.	1	2	3	4	5
33) Innovation as an indicator of entrepreneurial culture is where ideas and creativity are the norm and where failure is seen as part of creative process.	1	2	3	4	5
34) Innovation demands risk and risk brings with it the possibility of frequent failure.	1	2	3	4	5

35) People seeing entrepreneurship and risk-taking as persevering even in the mist of obstacles is an indicator of entrepreneurial culture.	1	2	3	4	5
36) People having positive intentions, aspirations and actions towards entrepreneurship is an indication of people having entrepreneurial culture.	1	2	3	4	5
37) In a country where people are motivated to start a business indicate that the people have entrepreneurial culture.	1	2	3	4	5
ACQUIRED ENTREPRENEURIAL EDUCATION					
38) Entrepreneurship education acquired by students can expose them to the culture of entrepreneurship.	1	2	3	4	5
39) A strong focus on entrepreneurship education for all students who are admitted in the University will undoubtedly spill over to non business students the entrepreneurial culture	1	2	3	4	5
40) Students pursuing an entrepreneurial career are equipped with a set of skills that will help them identify viable business ideas that provide them with practical approach to entrepreneurship and this can promote entrepreneurial culture	1	2	3	4	5
41) Entrepreneurship education acquired by students helps them to become champions of creativity and innovation	1	2	3	4	5
42) Entrepreneurship education acquired by students gives them perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and propensity to act after school	1	2	3	4	5
43) Entrepreneurship education acquired by students will help them not to see entrepreneurship as a risky venture but as a way of life.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX III

DETERMINATION OF SAMPLE SIZE

$$N_c = \frac{Z^2 p \cdot q \cdot N}{d^2 (N-1) + Z^2 \cdot p \cdot q}$$

Where: N_c is the strata sample size

Z is the confidence level (95%); that is, $Z = 1.96$

p is the proportion of the of the strata population for entire population (0.3)

q ($1-P$) is the proportion to total population of other clusters (0.7)

d is the desired precision (0.05 level)

N is the total number of population in the target population.

Adopted from Kothari (2004).

$$\begin{aligned} N_c &= \frac{1.96^2 * 0.3(1-0.3) * 21110}{0.05^2(21110-1) + 1.96^2 * 0.3(1-0.3)} \\ &= \frac{3.8416 * 0.21 * 21110}{52.775 + 0.80676} \\ &= \frac{17030.197}{53.58176} \\ &= \underline{\underline{317.84}} \end{aligned}$$

Calculated sample size approximated is 320.

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