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## **Mediating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Experimental Learning and Entrepreneurial Intention among Physically Challenged Students in Kenya: A Case Study of Nairobi County, Kenya**

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### ***Abstract:***

*Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial skills are core components to building socially inclusive and highly participatory economies in an increasingly global and competitive world. People with physical disabilities (PWPD) need skills in order to engage in economic activities through promotion of vocational training which extensive practical experience is based. The main objective was to investigate the mediating effect of the self-efficacy on vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya. The study specific objective was to establish the relationship between experiential learning, self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention.*

*This study adopted a descriptive design which measured the behaviour, opinions, and attitudes of the physically challenged students. This research study was carried out in Nairobi County at Industrial Vocation Rehabilitation Centre, Mbagathi. A sample population of 250 participants was used.*

*It can be concluded that that self-efficacy that affects vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya is affected by variety of factors and there is need to pay attention to them because these are critical in nature.*

### **1. Introduction**

Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial skills are core components to building socially inclusive and highly participatory economies in an increasingly global and competitive world (Kasina, 2007). Students are encouraged to initiate micro-businesses while still in college as a way to enable them to acquire an insight into the operation of a business. According to ILO report (2007), disabled people represent the biggest definable disadvantaged group of the world. Over 600 million people worldwide have physical, sensory, intellectual or mental impairment of one form or another. This is approximately 10% of the world's population and approximately 470 million are of working age. People with disability are found in every country with over two thirds living in the developing world (ILO, 2007).

According to ILO (2013), an important principle for the inclusion of disabled people in employment, is the promotion of vocational training. Vocational training is the preparation for economic activities that call for extensive practical experience and training but have few requirements for theory, technical knowledge, or liberal arts education. Skills development is part of the vocational training. Like non-disabled people, people with disabilities need skills in order to engage in economic activities. But unlike non-disabled people, persons with physical disabilities start with a number of shortcomings (Ibid, 2013), for example, families and communities perceive them as people who cannot compete in economic activities with non-disabled people thus reducing their self-efficacy. They often lack access to basic education making them unqualified to join skills training courses which result in lack of confidence, low expectations and low achievement. Skills training for people with disabilities involve building confidence and changing perceptions, both in the individual with a disability and in those around him or her. Learning technical or professional skills such as carpentry, bicycle repairing, computing or veterinary work will demonstrate that indeed disabled people are as capable as non-disabled people (ILO, 2013). Disability prevalence rates in Kenya vary according to the different data collection methods used. The National Survey on Persons with Disabilities found that 4.6% of the Kenyan population experience some form of disability, of which 3.6% of youth between ages 15-24 years have disabilities, with visual and physical impairments being the most frequently reported at 1.1% each, (GoK, 2008). From the report, 12% of youth with disabilities had either never been or were unable to currently attend school in Kenya

at the time of the survey. In most parts of Kenya, the transition between primary and secondary for children and youth with disabilities is rare, and from secondary to tertiary education, all but unknown (Mugo et al, 2010).

A number of laws and policies have been put in place to support persons with disabilities. These include the Persons with Disabilities Act (2003), which conveys rights, rehabilitation and equal opportunities for people with disabilities, although there is no requirement or incentive to comply with this law (Tororei, 2009). This law also requires private and public sector employers to reserve 5% of jobs for persons with disabilities, though it does not identify 'youth with disabilities' as a specific category (Mugo et al, 2010). There is also a Draft National Disability Policy to operationalize the 2003 Act, as well as a draft Special Needs Education Policy.

Despite a range of policies and interventions there are still a number of constraints facing young people with disabilities entering employment in Kenya (AUB, 2007). These range from a lack of suitable employment; little or no access or adaptations; limited expectations of families and employers; lack of networks, contacts or social and inter-personal skills (Mugo et al, 2010). Moreover, it is argued that while there are five national vocational and technical training institutes for persons with disabilities in Kenya, with a total of some 2,400 registered attendees (not broken down by age), these institutes cannot possibly meet the needs of the large number of young Kenyans with disabilities (Mugo et al, 2010). However, it should also be noted that five institutions that specifically target persons with disabilities is more than many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, but even in a country with relatively good TIVET provision for persons with disabilities there is still a paucity of opportunities for youth with disabilities.

### *1.1. Statement of the Problem*

A number of studies have been conducted on Entrepreneurial Intentions among persons with disabilities; Gakurii (2012) studied factors influencing choice of vocational courses by learners with hearing impairments in selected vocational training centres and concluded that 'the VTCs provides courses to learners with Hearing Impairment; Odoro and Ngugi (2013) investigated factors hampering uptake of entrepreneurship among persons with impairments in Nairobi County and found that entrepreneurship is a critical factor among people living with impairments from different policy perspectives. However, none of the studies conducted locally focused on mediating role of self- efficacy on vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions. It is evident that there exists a literature gap in mediating which this study hopes to fill. The study was therefore sought to investigate the mediating effect of self- efficacy on vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among persons with physical disabilities in Nairobi County, Kenya.

### *1.2. General Objective*

The main objective of the study was to investigate the mediating effect of the self-efficacy on vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya. The specific objective was;

- i. To establish the relationship between experiential learning, self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities

### *1.3. Research Question of the Study*

The following are the research questions which the researcher was trying to answer

- i. What is the relationship between experiential learning, self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities?

### *1.4. Research Hypothesis*

The study sets out to test the following hypothesis stated in the null form:

- i) H01: There is no relationship between experiential learning, self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities in Kenya

### *1.5. Significance of the Study*

Persons with disabilities have been marginalized long enough especially in academic research on such matters as in entrepreneurship. The subject of entrepreneurial intentions has been researched on high and low, but empirically sound research on the same focusing on the persons with disabilities population is extremely hard to come by in literature. This research proposal will address this disparity in information by addressing the knowledge gap. This was to provide a more positive image of academic study as being all inclusive in nature and non-discriminatory.

Consequently, the findings of this study were to aid in shaping the direction taken by governmental policy makers on coming up with curricula and strategies in special needs schools which better address the entrepreneurial needs of PWD and better inform the economic empowerment programmes.

### *1.6. Scope of the Study*

The study was conducted in Nairobi County. The unit of enquiry for this study were persons with physical disabilities in Industrial Vocational Rehabilitation who completed their training for the period between 2012 and 2015. The contacts of the formal students were provided by the institutions administration and referrals by the students themselves.

### *1.7. Limitations of the Study*

The study was limited in time wise since it only focused on learners with physical disabilities who graduated between years 2012 and 2015 in Nairobi County. Other categories of disabilities were not considered and also those who graduated before the year 2012.

## 2. Literature Review

The chapter critically examines the existing researches that are in the same area which are significant to this topic, then analyse empirical studies, theoretical review and the conceptual framework.

### 2.1. Empirical Literature Review

A study done by Oyewumi and Adeniji (2014) on assessing the attitude towards and knowledge of entrepreneurship among Nigerian students with hearing impairment revealed that the knowledge or awareness levels were significantly high. This they attributed possibly to the fact that entrepreneurial studies or education was being taught as an academic discipline in the schooling curriculum and also, as an aspect of socio-economic well-being championed as a tool for independent living and self-empowerment. This finding experiential learning corroborated other studies by Hayfold (2006) and Okon (2010) that young adults were inclined to establish enterprises not only owing to the high rate of unemployment only, but also as a result of teaching entrepreneurship in various schools and institutions. Studies cited in Cooney (2008) conclude that a positive correlation does exist between entrepreneurial education and intent towards venture establishment.

Davidsson (2011) argues that people with more education in general are likely to have more self-confidence (higher self-efficacy) and are better enabled to spot and manage growth opportunities. In Kenya Kibuka (2011) found that female entrepreneurs without education engaged in the micro enterprises, those with high school qualifications engaged in medium sized enterprises and those with college education engaged in enterprises with more than ten employees. This was indicative that education, the whole lot of it, including entrepreneurial studies by implication, had some bearing on entrepreneurship.

However, the study by Oyewumi and Adeniji (2014) concluded that knowledge in or awareness of entrepreneurship occasioned by schooling does not necessarily determine the intentions of the students to enterprise. Consistent with this, Chamard (1989) argues that generally conventionally old modelled education suppresses creativity and entrepreneurship by promoting a 'take a job' mentality, a fault that has been repeatedly said to afflict the Kenyan education system. Honig (2004) offers a plausible explanation for some of these negative findings, that, the approach deployed in traditional formal entrepreneurship training may be restricting student's adaptability and ability to recognize opportunities. This ultimately weakens the entrepreneurial outcomes for entrepreneurship students. This denotes a clear need to develop curriculums with a contemporarily encourage approach to taking up business as a career choice.

Martin (2007) in a commentary of the literature available on the relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions cautions that the literature suffers from many weaknesses. It exhibits lack of consistency in variable measures and inconsistency in theoretical grounding. This makes it hard to compare findings objectively between studies.

Makau (2014) in his research on factors that influence the Entrepreneurial Intentions of Visually Impaired Students recommended that a thorough empirical evaluation of the curriculum offered especially on the adequacy of its entrepreneurship course content should be carried to establish whether it suffices to cater for the high intent levels to enterprise amongst the students.

Kosgei, Murgor and Keter (2014) in their research to investigate the effect of accessibility if technical and vocational training among disabled people: Survey Of TVET Institutions In North Rift Region, Kenya concluded that disabled students in TVET institutions are discriminated and isolated, they cannot access some of the school building since they were built without considering disabled student's needs. Again the policies that provide cut point marks for students willing to joining TVET have highly restricted disabled students to enrol for vocational and technical skills in TVET.

#### 2.1.1. Self-Efficacy

The self-efficacy construct is appropriate for the study of entrepreneurship because of its nature: it is a task-specific construct that includes an assessment of confident beliefs an individual has about internal (personality) and external (environment) constraints and possibilities, and it is close to action and action intentionality (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). Krueger et al. (2000) found self-efficacy to be a good predictor of start-up intentions, Markman et al. (2002) described self-efficacy as a key determinant of new venture growth and personal success, and Shane et al. (2003) cite Baum's (1994) research to highlight that self-efficacy was the "single best predictor in the entire array of variables" utilized to study entrepreneurial outcomes for a group of founders in the architectural woodworking industry. More recently, Bryant (2007) explored the role of self-efficacy in the use of decision-making by entrepreneurs and Hmieleski and Corbett (2008) explored a moderating role of self-efficacy on new venture performance and entrepreneur's satisfaction. Throughout the existing body of work there is a strong view that self-efficacy is a good thing for entrepreneurs to have. For example, scholars such as Shane et al. (2003) have argued that an entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is likely to "exert more effort for a greater length of time, persist through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task (emphasis added)." In addition, the self-efficacy construct has also been closely linked to important entrepreneurial outcomes such as start-up intentions (Krueger et al. 2000) and new venture growth, as well as personal success of entrepreneurs (Markman et al. 2002).

While self-regulatory focus has recently emerged as a theoretical framework in entrepreneurship research and education (Tumasjan & Braum, 2012; Bryant 2007;2006; Brockner et al 2004), self-efficacy has traditionally been used to explain entrepreneurs' motivations and performances as well as students' entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours (Tyszka et al. 2011). Based in social cognitive theory (Bandura 1997), self-efficacy is the personal cognitive evaluation of one's ability to successfully perform a specific task. This personal assessment of task performance success is affected by various personal, behavioural and environmental factors. Bryant (2007) quoted that 'Environmental factors highly influence one's perceived capabilities when acquiring a new sense of self-efficacy in performing entrepreneurial tasks'. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy has been seen as one of the key personal trait that motivates entrepreneurial behaviour (Tyszka et al.2011; McGee et al. 2009) and enhanced one's motivation and competences when beginning a

new venture. It helps entrepreneurs to cope with uncertainties and challenges during the entrepreneurship process from opportunity recognition to mobilizing resources and improving the performance and success of the new business (Tumasjan & Braun, 2012; McGee et al. 2009; Barbosa et al. 2007; Bryant 2006).

### 2.1.2. Experiential Learning

Kolb (1984) in his book of *Experiential Learning* defined experiential learning as means that the learner is in direct touch with the phenomenon. Hence, experiential learning links education, work, and personal development. In addressing the entrepreneurship education requirements, Politis (2005) acknowledges that entrepreneurship is primarily learned by experience and discovery, however entrepreneurial learning through experiential learning should be conceived as a lifelong process. Attempts to stimulate entrepreneurship knowledge through formal education and learning are not likely to have a strong and direct impact on entrepreneurial learning, hence, formal education should rather focus efforts on developing creativity; critical thinking and reflection among individuals as this may in turn have a profound influence on motivation and ability to develop entrepreneurial knowledge.

According to Kolb (1984), experiential learning models suggest that learning is a conflict-filled process which requires the following modes of experiential learning in order to be effective; concrete experience abilities, which require the learner to involve himself fully, openly, and without bias in new experiences; reflective observation abilities, which require the learner to reflect on and observe his or her experiences from various perspectives; abstract conceptualization abilities, which require the learner to create concepts that integrate his or her observations into logically sound theories; and active experimentation, which requires the learner to use these theories to make decisions and solve problems (Boylon & Burchardt, 2003). Thus, in the process of experiential learning, the learner switches between the role of an actor and an observer. Another characteristic of experiential learning theories is that learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world. It is an integrated concept which describes the central process of human adaptation to the social and physical environment by considering thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving (Fiet, 2000).

Pittaway and Cope (2007) also added that another important thought which should be considered in entrepreneurship education is the consideration of individuality in learning. Learning processes are not the same for all individuals. Instead, people tend to prefer specific adaptive orientations over others. Various tests have been developed to help people or a person's current job role. Another force which influences the appropriate learning styles is the task at hand. The best thing we could do as educators would be to allow each student to evaluate to determine their individual style of learning. Examples are the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator or the Learning Style Inventory, developed by Kolb (1984). Different learning styles are shaped through individual physical structures and different types of experiences, such as educational specialization, professional career choice his preferences and afterwards help him to choose the right educational format.

A conceptual framework for entrepreneurial learning process by Politis (2005) encourages a process of experiential learning and identified three main components; career experience; the transformation process; entrepreneurial knowledge in terms of effectiveness in recognizing and acting on entrepreneurial opportunities. Although the framework was developed from an organizational point of view and highlighted experience as essential in recognizing entrepreneurial opportunities, there are also implications for entrepreneurship education programs. Politis (2005) further adds that experience relevant for entrepreneurial knowledge not only involves actual start-up of a new venture but also entails understanding of preparatory activities that enable the venture to be started; therefore policies aimed at stimulating entrepreneurship activities should focus on making entrepreneurship more attractive as a career.

Applying the traditional and repetitive method of entrepreneurship pedagogy makes students to get bored and distracted easily. The students are bored because they are not actively and fully engaged in the process of learning (Fiet, 2000); hence, the emergence of entrepreneurial learning. Some scholars believe that entrepreneurial learning occurs through experiencing different challenging events such as recognizing opportunities, coping with problems, and performing different roles of an entrepreneur (Minniti and Bygrave, 2001; Erikson, 2003; Politis, 2005; Cope, 2005; Pittaway & Cope, 2007). In this sense, learning is an indispensable reaction to new venture dynamics of change and a control element of success or failure in start-up situation (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008).

Rae (2006) described learning as an integral part of entrepreneurial process in which human and social factors are as important as the economic factors. Rae defined entrepreneurial learning as a dynamic process awareness, reflection, association and application that involves transforming experience and knowledge into functional learning outcomes. The commonest feature of the definitions of entrepreneurial learning is experience. Macmillian and McGrath (2000) asserted that entrepreneurial mind set can be developed through experience rather than the traditional methods of entrepreneurship education. Experiential method of learning entrepreneurship enhances the acceptance and demands of students for entrepreneurship programmes. Thus, students can acquire entrepreneurial skills better through experiential methods (Plaschka and Welsch, 2010). Positive and pleasant experience with entrepreneurship programmes increases students' desire to become entrepreneurs as well as to be highly engaged in entrepreneurial activities which develops their entrepreneurial capabilities (Fiet, 2000; Peterman and Kennedy, 2003).

## *2.2. Theoretical Literature Review*

The study chose to use the social cognitive theory that helps in explaining how experimental learning appears.

### 2.2.1. Social Cognitive Theory

The social cognitive theory (SCT) as postulated by Bandura (2006) centres on the concepts of reinforcement and observation, giving more importance to the mental internal processes as well as to the interaction of the subject with others. The SCT postulates that observation and imitation is given across models that can be parents, educators, and friends, and can even be heroes taken from

television. The only requirement for learning can be that one person observes another individual, or models behaviour to carry out a certain conduct. The observation and imitation intervene upon the cognitive factors and help the subject decide whether or not the observed behaviour is to be imitated. The cognitive factors are the capacity of reflection and symbolization as well as the prevention of consequences based on processes of comparison, generalization, and auto-evaluation. One of the aims of the SCT is the development of the self-evaluation and the self-reinforcement constructs. According to Bandura, individuals possess an auto-system that allows them to measure the control on their own thoughts, feelings, motivations and actions. This system exercises self-regulation to enable individuals with aptitude to influence their own cognitive processes and actions and in this way to alter their environment.

The belief in self-efficacy provides a great influence on human beings, since they act on their thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Bandura, 2011). Garcia et al., 2011 defines self-efficacy as “self-appraisal of one’s ability to accomplish a task and one’s confidence in possessing the skills needed to perform that task.” The SCT explains that an individual’s sense of self-efficacy can be influenced through four processes: enactive mastery, role modelling and vicarious experience, social persuasion, and judgments of one’s own physiological states, such as arousal and anxiety (Bandura, 2006). The self-efficacy construct influences an individual’s choice of activities, goal levels, persistence, and performance in a range of contexts. Self-efficacy is a motivational factor that educational research from the social cognitive approach establishes. Bandura mentioned that self-efficacy affects some of the factors that predict motivation.

Krueger et al (2000) pointed out that experience influences the entrepreneur’s intention, and that there is also a direct relationship between entrepreneur’s experience on perceived feasibility and perceived desirability; feasibility and desirability existing in the environment that influences the entrepreneur’s experience, so perceived feasibility and perceived desirability partially serve as key elements in forming entrepreneurial experiences and entrepreneurial intentions. Krueger et al. (2000) observed that entrepreneurs’ experiences directly influence the entrepreneur’s intention to start a new venture.

Self-efficacy has an important effect on the choice of behaviour setting. Individuals tend to choose situations in which they anticipate high personal control but avoid situations in which they anticipate low control (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Wood & Bandura, 1989, 2012). Consequently, to the extent that people plan and choose their career paths, they assess their personal capabilities against the requirements of different occupations (Chen, Greene & Crick, 2008). This assessment of their personal capabilities therefore directs people to prepare for and enter occupations in which they feel successful, but at the same time avoid occupations in which they feel a lack of competence (Betz & Hackett 1981, 2006, Miura 2011; Scherer et al. 1989). Empirical evidence establishes that entrepreneurial self-efficacy was positively related to students’ intentions to start their own business (Chen, Greene & Crick, 2008).

2.3. Conceptual Framework

Conceptual Framework was defined as the result of when a researcher conceptualizes the relation between variables in the study and show the relationship graphically or diagrammatically (Donald& Pamela, 2011). A conceptual definition therefore is an element of the scientific research process, in which a specific concept is defined as a measurable occurrence or in measurable terms; it is basically gives one the meaning of concepts.

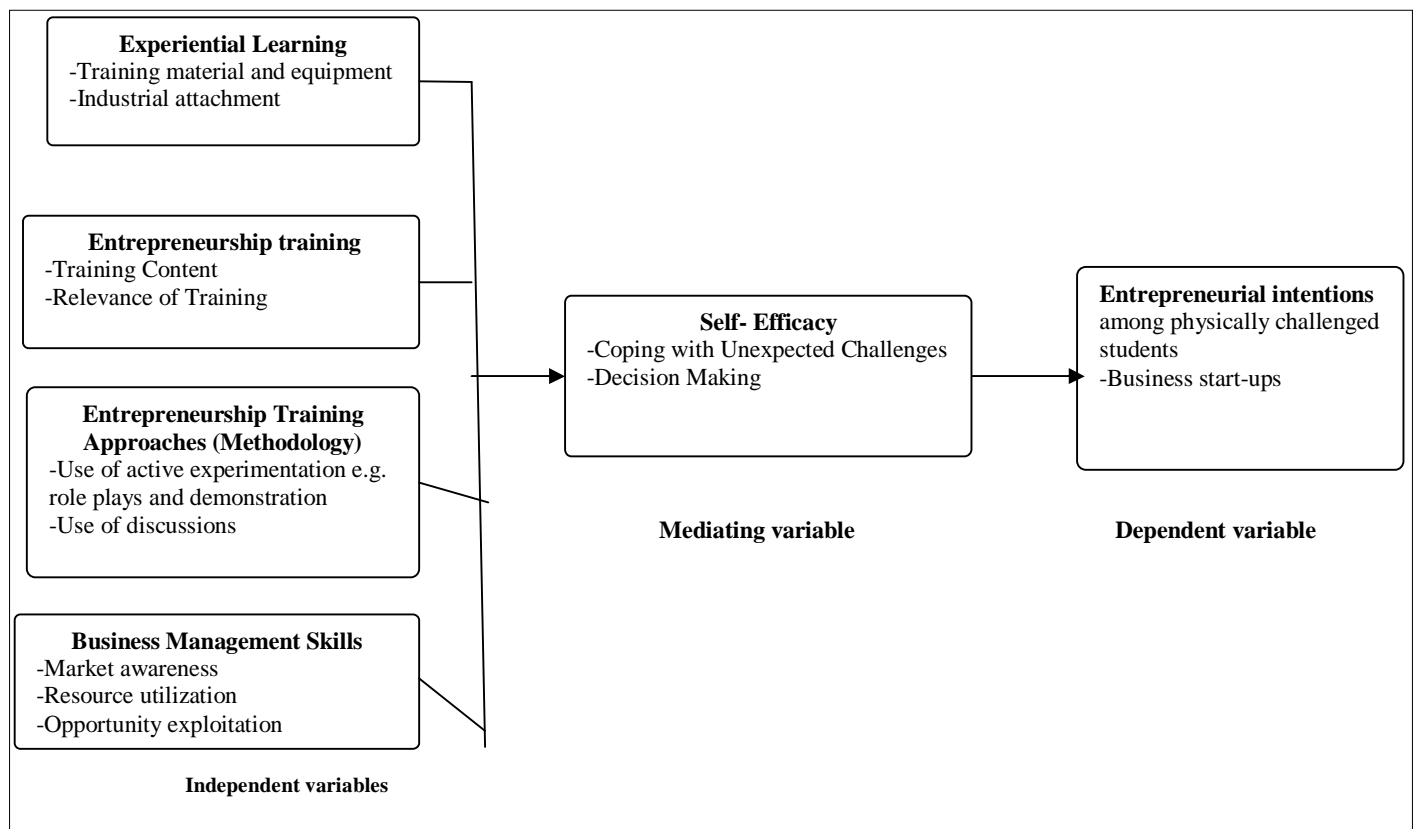


Figure 1

### 3. Research Design and Methodology

This chapter dealt with the research design, research site and target population, sample design, data collection procedure, data analysis, and logistics as well as ethical considerations.

#### 3.1. Research Design

Frankfort, Nachmias and Nachmias (2006) describe research design as ‘a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relations among the variables under investigation’. According to Sekaran (2006), the various issues involved in the research design concern the purpose of the study, the type of investigation, the type of the sample, which will be used, the methods by which the required data will be collected, as well as the process that will be followed for the analysis.

This study adopted a descriptive design which measured the behaviour, opinions, and attitudes of the physically challenged students. Khan (2008) recommends descriptive research for its ability to establish factors associated with certain occurrences, outcomes or conditions or types of behaviour. According to Polit and Beck (2013), in a descriptive study, researchers observe, count, delineate, and classify. They further describe descriptive research studies as studies that have, as their main objective, the accurate portrayal of the characteristics of persons, situations, or groups, and/or the frequency with which certain phenomena occur.

#### 3.2. Research Site

This research study was carried out in Nairobi County at Industrial Vocation Rehabilitation Centre, Mbagathi. The Vocational Training Centre was purposively selected for the study because it’s unique characteristics worthy studying. Secondly the VTC under study has been in existence for a long time and have trained many students.

#### 3.3. Target Population

According to Nassiuma (2000), a population is a well-defined or set of people, services, elements, and events, group of things or households that are being investigated. This study targeted about 250 respondents who completed their training between the years 2012 and 2015.

Population	Frequency	Percentage
Male	170	68
Female	80	32
Total	250	100

Table 1: Target Population  
Source: Author (2017)

#### 3.4. Sample Frame

Sampling refers to any procedure that draws conclusions based on measurements of a portion of the population (Zikmund et al., 2010). The sampling technique describes the sampling unit, sampling frame, sampling procedures and the sample size for the study. The sampling frame describes the list of all population units from which the sample will be selected (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The sampling frame of the persons with physical disabilities comprised of formal students of vocational training institution in Nairobi County who graduated between the years 2012-2015. Snowball sampling design was used since respondents were through referral networks (Cooper and Schindler 2011).

#### 3.5. Sampling Technique

After acquiring the sample frame, the study employed proportionate stratified sampling technique in coming up with a sample size of 63 respondents from a total of 250 of former students in vocational training institution in Nairobi County. In this sampling technique each stratum is properly represented so that the sample size drawn from the stratum is proportionate to the stratum’s share of the total population.

To obtain the desired sample size for the study with the population of 250, proportionate allocation was used that is sampling fraction of 1/4 in each of the strata as proportional to that of the total population (Cooper & Schindler, 2010).

CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	SAMPLE FRACTION	SAMPLE SIZE
Male	170	1/4	43
Female	80	1/4	20
TOTAL	250	1/4	63

Table 2: Sample size  
Source: Author (2017)

#### 3.6. Data Collection Methods

Primary data was collected through semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. Executing semi-structured interviews ensured that participants answer the predetermined customised question, and cover the prescribed themes, while still making sure the interviews are open and would deliver quality, usable and relevant data. Interviews were administered face to face or by virtual communication. Andre (2004) explains that primary data is data that is used for a scientific purpose for which it will be collected. Closed ended

questions were used in an effort to conserve time and money as well as to facilitate an easier analysis as they are in immediate usable form; while the open ended questions were used as they encourage the respondent to give an in-depth and felt response without feeling held back in revealing of any information. With open ended questions, a respondent's response gives an insight to his or her feelings, background, hidden motivation, interests and decisions. The questionnaires were administered using a drop and pick method to the sampled respondents.

### 3.7. Validity and Reliability Tests

The questionnaire was designed based on the research questions was pilot tested to refine the questions before it can be administered to the selected sample. A pilot test was conducted in Machakos County on physically challenged people who have undergone vocational training to detect weakness in design and instrumentation and to provide proxy data for selection of a probability sample. Nassiuma (2009) asserted that, the accuracy of data to be collected largely depended on the data collection instruments in terms of validity and reliability.

#### 3.7.1. Validity Test

According to Somekh and Cathy (2005) validity is the degree by which the sample test items represents the content the test is designed to measure. Content validity employed by this study was a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents a specific domain or content of a particular concept. In validating the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted. A sample was selected and served with questionnaires to fill. This enabled the researcher to refine the questionnaire to eliminate problems to the respondents while answering the questions and data recording. A sample was gotten from physically challenged people who have undergone vocational training from Machakos County. The researcher identified and served the selected sample of ten persons with the questionnaires.

#### 3.7.2. Reliability Test

Reliability refers to "the consistency of a measure of a concept" (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Reliability is achieved when the same research process is repeated and reproduces results within stated confidence limits. Bells (2003) cited in (Eriksson, 2007) states that the reliability of an investigation is satisfying if another researcher can conduct the same research and draw the same conclusions. Thus in order to ensure the finding of this research the Cronbach Alpha was used to test the reliability of questions. The alpha value ranges between 0 and 1 with reliability increasing with the increase in value. Coefficient of 0.6-0.7 is a commonly accepted rule of thumb that indicates acceptable reliability and 0.8 or higher indicated good reliability (Sekaran, 2003).

### 3.8. Data Analysis

Data was analysed using descriptive statistics mainly frequency distribution tables, standard deviation, percentages, measures of central tendencies, measures of dispersion and graphical representations will be used to tabulate the information. To facilitate this Likert Scale was also used to enable easier presentation and interpretation of data. Data was presented in tables, charts and graphs. Qualitative Content analysis was also used in processing data and results presented in prose form.

Binary Logistic Regression analysis was conducted for each of the hypothesis indicating whether the individual hypothesis is statistically supported or not (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Binary Logistic regression is useful when the response variable is a binary response variable. A number of researchers have carried out research where the response variable is binary and they have used logistic regression (Wanjau, Gakure&Waithaka, 2003). To determine the accuracy level of the independent variable in predicting the dependent variable, Cox and Snell's R-Square will be used (O'Connell, 2005). To test the strength of the association between the independent variable and the dependent variable, Nagelkerke's R-Square was used (Damodar, 2009). The overall goodness of fit of the model was tested using Hosmer and Lemeshow (H-L) test. The study included diagnostic analysis to identify potential outliers and understand the model's poor fit to certain observations if any. The diagnostic statistics done was Pearson and deviance residuals. Analysis of variances (ANOVA) test was then used to analyse respondents characteristics related to gender, age, marital status and education.

This study tested whether the independent variables increase self-efficacy in entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students. The response variable is expected that either the physically challenged students self-efficacy has increased, coded as 1, else 0. The study used logistic regression to test whether there is any statistical significance between independent variables and the dependent variable.

This was depicted in the logit model;

$$\text{Logit}[p] = \ln \left[ \frac{p}{1-p} \right] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4$$

[p]= probability of Entrepreneurial Intentions

$\beta_0$  = Constant (intercept)

$X_1 - X_4$  are the independent variables

$\beta_1 - \beta_4$  [since there are four independent variables, it should go up to  $\beta_4$ ] are the coefficients from the log of the odds ratio function

To compute the probability of the overall significance statistics, the following formula was used;

$$P = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4}}$$

Where:

p = the probability of Entrepreneurial Intentions

e = the base of natural logarithms (approximately 2.72),

$\beta_0$  = the constant of the equation,

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3,$  and  $\beta_4$  = the coefficient of the independent variables

The result of the analysis were categorized along each research objective. The results were presented in tables, figures, charts, graphs and percentages. The study analysed the results and compared the results with studies in literature review. Inferences were drawn from tested hypothesis and conclusions and recommendations were made, based on the results of the descriptive and inferential statistics on which the data was subjected to.

#### 4. Data Analysis, Presentation, Interpretation and Discussion

This chapter presents and discusses the research findings under thematic sub-sections in line with the study objectives.

##### 4.1. Demographic Characteristics

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	38	60.3	61.3	61.3
	Female	24	38.1	38.7	100.0
	Total	62	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.6		
Total		63	100.0		

Table 3: Gender Characteristics

Source: Author (2017)

From the Table 3 above, the 61.3% of the people interviewed and participated in the study were men and 38.7% were women.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	16-20 Years	18	28.6	28.6	28.6
	21-25 Years	10	15.9	15.9	44.4
	26-30 Years	9	14.3	14.3	58.7
	31-35 Years	16	25.4	25.4	84.1
	Above 40 Years	10	15.9	15.9	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Table 4: Age Bracket

Source: Author (2017)

Majority of the people interviewed who accounted for 28.6% were aged between 16-20% followed by 25.4% who were between 31-35%. Those formed the larger percentage that participated in the study. Those aged between 21-25 years who accounted and the ones above 40 years tallied and the least was 26-30 years who accounted for 14.3%.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2010.00	2	3.2	3.2	3.2
	2011.00	4	6.3	6.3	9.5
	2012.00	5	7.9	7.9	17.5
	2013.00	11	17.5	17.5	34.9
	2014.00	16	25.4	25.4	60.3
	2015.00	25	39.7	39.7	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Table 5: Time Cleared Training

Source: Author (2017)

Majority of the people who had cleared training at the industrial vocational rehabilitation who took 39.7% completed on 2015 followed closely by those who cleared on 2014 coming second by 25.4% and those at third by 17.5% who finished training in 2013. Those who cleared 2012 had 7.9%, 2011 for 6.3% and the rest who were on 2010 and accounted for 3.2%.



#### 4.2. Entrepreneurial Intention

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	26	41.3	41.3	41.3
	No	37	58.7	58.7	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Table 6: Operating a Business before Training  
Source: Author (2017)

The results of the study Table 6 above, it clearly indicates that 58.7% of those interviewed had operated a business before training at the industrial vocational rehabilitation Centre. The rest, 41.3% had not any business before training at the industrial vocational rehabilitation Centre.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	57	90.5	90.5	90.5
	No	6	9.5	9.5	100.0
	Total	63	100.0	100.0	

Table 7: Training Enabled Business Ideas Development  
Source: Author (2017)

The information provided from the results in the fig.... indicated that 90.5% of the respondents agreed that training they had received at the industrial vocational rehabilitation Centre helped in developing business ideas and starting a business. The least disagreed at 9.5% that the training they had received did not help them in developing business ideas or even starting a business.

#### 4.3. Experiential Learning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	50	79.4	80.6	80.6
	No	12	19.0	19.4	100.0
	Total	62	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.6		
Total		63	100.0		

Table 8: Training Enhance Experience  
Source: Author (2017)

When the study was contacted on training and experience, 79.4% believed that training provided hands on experience through practical at the rehabilitation Centre. Few who accounted for 19.0% believed that training did not improve the experience in expertise through practicals.

#### 4.4. Self- Efficacy

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Scale rating	Strongly Disagree	41	11.7%	69.5%
	Slightly Disagree	55	15.7%	93.2%
	Disagree	25	7.1%	42.4%
	Agree	167	47.7%	283.1%
	Slightly Agree	32	9.1%	54.2%
	Strongly Agree	30	8.6%	50.8%
Total		350	100.0%	593.2%

Table 9: Scale rating factor Frequencies  
Source: Author (2017)

In assessing self-efficacy on personality and environment, 47.7% agreed that self-Efficacy was a necessity for entrepreneurial intentions leading to business creation, 9.1% slightly agreed, 8.6% strongly agreed, 7.1% disagreed, 15.7% slightly disagreed and 11.7% strongly disagreed. The highest number of respondents was the range from agree to strongly agree who were leading in the list. Which is a clear indication that majority felt that Self-Efficacy was a necessity for entrepreneurial intentions which lead to business creation.

0. Importance Personal Attribute Frequencies

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Personal attributes Importance	Very Important	128	30.9%	213.3%
	Important	222	53.6%	370.0%
	Slightly Important	57	13.8%	95.0%
	Not Important	7	1.7%	11.7%
Total		414	100.0%	690.0%

Table 10: Importance Personal Attribute Frequencies  
Source: Author (2017)

The study also sought to find out the importance of personal attributes in the intention to start a business and they considered; coping with unexpected challenges, Decision Making, Exert more efforts for a greater length of time, persist through setbacks, Develop better plans, Start-up intentions and new venture growth. The results were much interesting was the fact that 53.6% said that these attributes were important, 30.9% very important, 13.8% slightly important and the rest who accounted for 1.7% found it not important.

4.6. Hypotheses Testing

4.6.1. Self-Efficacy and Experiential Learning

This hypothesis tested relationship between experiential learning, self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities in Kenya. Using Self- Efficacy as the dependent variable and Experiential learning as the independent variable, the following results were obtained.

Original Value	Internal Value
Yes	0
No	1

Table 11: Dependent Variable Encoding  
Source: Author (2017)

The dependent variable is coded 0 for necessity of self-efficacy in business while 1 for no necessity of self-efficacy in business.

Observed		Predicted		
		Self-Efficacy necessity for business		Percentage Correct
		Yes	No	
Step 0	Self-Efficacy necessity for business	Yes 47	0	100.0
		No 16	0	.0
Overall Percentage				74.6

Table 12: Classification Tableau  
Source: Author (2017)

The output in table 12 above represents the model with only the intercept. Given the base rate of only two decisions, 74.6 % of the people prefer self-efficacy in business while 25.6 % say self-efficacy is not necessary for business, hence the best strategy was to predict for a yes, that is, Self-efficacy is necessary for business. Using this strategy, the strategy was 74.6% correct.

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	-1.078	.289	13.860	1	.000	.340

Table 13: Variables in the Equation  
Source: Author (2017)

From the variable in the equation table, the predicted odd of no self-efficacy necessity in business is 0.34, since 16/47 is 0.34. Hence the observed odds is 0.34.

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	.127	1	.722
	Block	.127	1	.722
	Model	.127	1	.722

Table 14: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients  
Source: Author (2017)

From Table 14 output, adding the variable Business operate in the model as the predictor variables results into the Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients giving Chi square of 0.127 on 1 degree of freedom, significant beyond 0.722. This is a test of the null hypothesis that adding the Business operate variable to the model has not significantly increased our ability to predict the decisions made by our subjects. Under this, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	71.272a	.002	.30

Table 15: Model Summary

Source: Author (2017)

Under Model Summary output we see that the -2 Log Likelihood statistic is 71.272. This statistic measures how poorly the model predicts the decisions. The smaller the statistic the better the model. The Nagelkerke R square statistic implies that the predictor variables explains 30 % the dependent variable.

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)		
							Lower	Upper	
Step 1a	Business Operate	.211	.595	.126	1	.723	1.235	.385	3.961
	Constant	-1.415	1.002	1.994	1	.158	.243		

Table 16: Variables in the Equation

Source: Author (2017)

From the Variable in the Equation output above, the output show a regression output of  $\text{Ln}(\text{ODDS}) = -1.415 + 0.211\text{Business Operate Before Training}$ .

Using this model, the predictor for odds can be calculated, that is, operating a business before training influences Self efficacy necessity for a business. The predictor equation is given by  $\text{ODDS} = e^{(a+bx)}$ . If the respondent is (Operate Business before training = 0) and (Not Operate business before training = 1), then the  $\text{ODDS} = e^{-1.415+0.211(0)} = 0.243$ . This means that a person is 0.243 times likely to operate a business with Self efficacy on business. For not operating a business before training with self-efficacy in business, the  $\text{ODDS} = e^{-1.415+0.211(1)} = 0.3$ . This implies that a person is 0.3 times not likely to operate a business before with self-efficacy in business. Upon converting the odds to probability, for operating a business is  $0.243 / (1+0.243) = 0.195$ . This implies that a person is 19.5 % likely to operate a business before training with Self efficacy on business. For Not operating a business before training is  $0.3 / (1+0.3) = 0.23$ . This implies that a person is 23% not likely to operate a business before training with self-efficacy.

From this the conclusion is therefore rejecting the null hypothesis and conclude that experiential learning is positively related to self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities in Kenya.

## 5. Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendation

This chapter presents the summary of the findings for the results discussed in chapter four. Further conclusion is made from the findings, recommendations and suggest further areas of research in the same area.

### 5.1. Self-Efficacy and Experiential Learning

The first objective of this study was to find out there is between experiential learning, self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities in Kenya.

The following question was consequently raised; is relationship between experiential learning, self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities in Kenya?

Form the results of the study, there was a clear indication that a person was 19.5 % likely to operate a business before training with Self efficacy on business. For Not operating a business before training is  $0.3 / (1+0.3) = 0.23$ . This implies that a person is 23% not likely to operate a business before training with self-efficacy.

It was from this that the null hypothesis was rejected and conclusion arrived at that that experiential learning is positively related to self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention amongst students with physical disabilities in Kenya.

### 5.2. Conclusions

Based on the data analysis and discussion herein, it can be concluded that self-efficacy that affects vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya is significantly affected by experimental learning and other factors like entrepreneurship training, Entrepreneurship training approaches and Formal business management skills acquired by students.

It can be concluded that that self-efficacy that affects vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya is affected by variety of factors and there is need to pay attention to them because these are critical in nature.

### 5.3. Recommendations

In view of the findings and conclusions, this study proposes the following recommendations:

- i. The government through relevant authorities should have proper policies to ensure the enforcement of self-efficacy that affects vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya
- ii. Proper legislation framework should be put in place for implementation factors that influence self-efficacy among students at the vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya
- iii. The study further recommends that equal rights should apply to physically challenged students in Kenya in all accounts both in Urban and rural areas and counties should play important role in implementation.

#### 5.4. Areas of Further Study

This study recommends further study to find out other factors either social or political that could be affecting that self-efficacy that affects vocational training and entrepreneurial intentions among physically challenged students in Kenya and also other marginalized groups in society such as mentally challenged.

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