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Muigai, Sarah Watiri
Strathmore University Business School
Strathmore University

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Sarah Watiri Muigai

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Sarah Watiri Muigai

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DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

Declaration

I declare that this work has not been previously submitted and approved for the award of a degree by this or any other University. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Student's Name: Sarah Watiri Muigai

Signature:  Date: 23/05/2023

Approval

The thesis of Sarah Watiri Muigai was reviewed and approved for examination by the following:

Prof. Ramakrishna Velamuri,
Mahindra University School of Management

Dr. Edward Mungai,
Strathmore University Business School

Dr. Ceasar Mwangi,
Dean, Strathmore University Business School,
Strathmore University

Dr. Bernard Shibwabo,
Director of Graduate Studies,
Strathmore University

ABSTRACT

Family business scholars and practitioners share a strong interest in understanding the entrepreneurial behaviour of next-generation family members. This stems from a broad recognition that family organizations are fertile grounds for nurturing entrepreneurial mindsets, but entrepreneurial entry into the family business is a challenge, making intergenerational succession one of the main challenges facing family businesses today. Against this backdrop, this study sought to examine the effect of a combination of family embeddedness factors (family business exposure, perceived parental entrepreneurial status, family business involvement, grandparents' entrepreneurial status) with push and pull factors and formal employment outside of the family business (FB) in determining the entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME) choice of the next-generation family members in Kenya. These factors were conceptualised as follows: First, the influence of two explanatory variables on the choice of EME of the next-generation family members was examined - that is – first, the influence of parental business exposure(PBE) on the choice of EME and secondly, the opening of the black box of this parental business exposure to examine the influence of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards on the choice of EME by the next-generation family members. The entrepreneurial mode of entry variable was conceptualized as entry through three choices; joining the family business (inheritance route), joining the family business through corporate venturing (CV) and independent own founding. These three EME choices by the next-generation family members were informed by the fact that exposure to a small family business in a developing country may yield a unique entrepreneurial entry route by the next-generation family members. This is because these small family businesses may not be able to engage all the next-generation family members. Furthermore, they may not have an objective of establishing entrepreneurial legacies across generations. There is, therefore, a need to understand the unique supply of entrepreneurs from these small family businesses in order to discriminate policies and practices that best suit them. Results from multinomial logit regressions of 440 next-generation family members revealed that parental business exposure and perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards were related to the likelihood of joining the family business either through an inheritance or a CV route (as opposed to own founding route). Other family embeddedness factors examined were exposure to enterprising grandparents and family business involvement, and the results indicated that they reinforced the likelihood of entry through these two routes. A necessity motivation drive and a longer period of formal employment outside of the family business, however, reduced the likelihood of joining the FB or CV of the next- generation family members as opposed to own founding. The results from this study contribute to the debate on intergenerational influence in entrepreneurial behaviour by offering a fine-grained understanding of the entrepreneurial entry of the next-generation family members who may be exposed to smaller family businesses. The study also contributes to social learning theory and social cognitive learning theory by providing evidence of the effects of learning experiences of individuals' exposure to a family business on entrepreneurial entry. The study also offers suggestions to family business organisations seeking intergenerational succession on deliberate efforts they can make to nurture the entrepreneurial behaviour of the next-generation family members.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBK	**Central Bank of Kenya**
CV	**Corporate Venturing**
EME	**Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry**
FB	**Family Business**
FBE	**Family Business Exposure**
FBI	**Family Business Involvement**
GDP	**Gross Domestic Product**
GOK	**Government of Kenya**
ICV	**Internal Corporate venturing**
KNBS	**Kenya National Bureau of Statistics**
KSH	**Kenya Shilling**
MLM	**Multinomial Logit Model**
MSEA	**Micro Small Enterprise Authority**
MSEs	**Micro and Small Enterprises**
MSMEs	**Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise**
NACOSTI	**National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation**
OLS	**Ordinary Least Squares**
PEE	**Parental Entrepreneurial Exposure**
PPER	**Perceived Parental Entrepreneurial Rewards**
R&D	**Research and Development**
SCLT	**Social Cognitive Learning Theory**
SLT	**Social Learning Theory**
SSA	**Sub -Saharan Africa**

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my father, Mr Samuel M. Kihara and my mother, Mrs Joyce N. Kihara, the role models for whom I wish to be. I consider it my first blessing to have been brought up by both of you. Thank you for instilling in me the importance of putting my head down and getting the work done even and perhaps when no one is watching.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Advanced, emerging and especially developing economies have a collective interest in fostering entrepreneurial entry owing to its benefits in economic growth and individual well-being. In developed economies such as the United States of America (USA), entrepreneurial entry accounts for 20% of employment (Decker et al., 2014). Similarly, entrepreneurship uptake has been shown to increase the level of productivity in developed countries such as Germany (Audretsch & Keilbach, 2004) as well as increase the rate of a country's innovation in countries such as the United Kingdom, Netherlands, Germany, Canada and Belgium (Terjesen, Hessels, & Li, 2016). Similarly, in emerging economies, the dynamism and innovativeness of entrepreneurs have resulted in the transformation of various industries. In India, for example, this dynamism of entrepreneurial firms is evident in sectors such as information technology which has transformed the Indian economy, especially post-1991 liberalization (Ahluwalia, 2002). The continued policy reforms in India have resulted in the growth of technology-enabled entrepreneurial entry (Jindal & Bhardwaj, 2016). Similarly, a key driver of the Chinese economy has been attributed to private sector businesses. He (2009) observed that since the transition from a planned economy to a market economy after 1978, remarkable growth in the private sector surpassed the collectively owned and state-owned enterprises, a conclusion shared by He et al.(2019), who also underscores the crucial role of private sector-led growth as a driver of the Chinese economy.

Developing countries, especially those in Africa, which are transitioning to a peaceful era after long periods of conflict (Naudé, 2007), require innovative entrepreneurial entry to build these economies. Indeed, entrepreneurship has been illustrated as a vehicle that may lead to prosperity and peace in conflict-entrenched zones such as Rwanda (Tobias et al., 2013). These developing economies are also home to the world's poor, and entrepreneuring has been described as a tool to help eradicate poverty (Bruton et al., 2013). Meta-analytical studies have also revealed that entrepreneurship enhances individual well-being in these developing economies (Stephan et al., 2022). For example, Kimmitt et al. (2020) illustrated that entrepreneuring is primarily done to improve the physical health of the family, with financial objectives being only complimentary among rural tea-growing communities in Kenya.

In light of the relevance of entrepreneurship as a vehicle for economic growth, poverty eradication and individual well-being, researchers have increasingly been keen to understand the genesis of new ventures and the types of entrepreneurship activities that result in high economic growth. Scholarly work in entrepreneurship is underpinned by an examination of the heterogeneity of both individual entrepreneurs and the opportunities they conceive thereof (Gartner, 1988; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Welter et al., 2017). To fully illustrate this heterogeneity, scholars have examined entrepreneurial behaviour by focusing on specific types of entrepreneurs and attempt to explain the various antecedents influencing each type (Douglas et al., 2021; Rotefoss & Kolvereid, 2005; Cooper & Dunkelberg, 1986). From these, scholars have illustrated that entrepreneurial types depend on the individual's context, cognitions and competencies, whose wide variability results in heterogeneity in observed entrepreneurial behaviour (Shane et al., 2012). Scholars have, for example, underscored the importance of understanding this heterogeneity through the entrepreneurial mode of entry lens for different entrepreneurs because starting a business from scratch is not the only means of becoming an entrepreneur. Individuals can, for example, take over an existing business, including a family business (Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Bastié et al., 2013). Policies designed to stimulate the gross entry of entrepreneurship may therefore be ineffective for individuals who wish to enter through a business takeover of an existing firm that seeks a successor (Parker & Van Praag, 2012).

One context examined as a source of supply of entrepreneurial entry that has interested scholars globally is exposure to family businesses. Viewed as the dominant form of business in the world (Whitley, 1994), with 65% to 80% of world businesses being owned and/or managed by families (Davis et al., 1997), family organizations have been described as seedbeds for nurturing entrepreneurial mindset. There is a consensus among scholars that parent entrepreneurs beget offspring entrepreneurs (Nordqvist, Habbershon, & Melin, 2008; Edelman, Manolova, Shirokova, & Tsukanova, 2016; Jaskiewicz, Combs, & Rau, 2015; Pittino, Visintin, & Lauto, 2018; Zellweger, Nason, & Nordqvist, 2012; Mungai & Velamuri, 2011; Jaskiewicz, Combs, & Rau, 2015). Though most of this scholarly work has examined the influence of family business exposure on the entrepreneurial intention stage in the entrepreneurial process, it has shed light on the key role that entrepreneurial parents/ families play in legitimizing entrepreneurship as a career option by shaping the entrepreneurial characteristics of their children, especially in their role as entrepreneurial role models (Soleimanof et al., 2021).

However, an important succession objective of the family form of businesses is intergenerational entrepreneurship (Habbershon et al., 2010; Zellweger et al., 2012; Nordqvist & Zellweger, 2010), which tends to decline over generations. Scholars have reported that only 30% of family businesses transition to the second generation, 10 to 15% to the third generation and 3% to the fourth generation and beyond (Beckhard & Dyer, 1983; Stamm & Lubinski, 2011; Mokhber et al., 2017).

Entrepreneurial intentional studies among university students report that only a minuscule percentage (1.9%) of the family business offspring are willing to get employment in the family business (FB), and only about 8.2% have an intention of pursuing a managerial position in the FB (Sieger et al., 2016). Some scholars have also reported that where intergenerational succession occurs, the family business performance usually deteriorates from the first to the second generation and stabilizes in the subsequent generations (Molly et al., 2010). Family business succession, therefore, is one of the biggest challenges faced by family businesses (Le Breton–Miller et al., 2004). Scholars have attributed this parent-offspring paradox to various factors; for example, entrepreneurial intention studies among university students have argued that the offspring's perception of loss of personal independence upon joining the family business explains their low succession intention upon graduation (Zellweger et al., 2011). Qualitative studies have also illustrated that the paradox is brought about by the need for control by the incumbent generation while the next generation yearns for autonomy (Radu-Lefebvre & Randerson, 2020; Cunha et al., 2021). Gaps still exist in the transmission process of entrepreneurial behaviour to the next generation of family members as most scholarly work has focussed on the intention stage of the entrepreneurial process (Zapkau et al. (2017), which may not necessarily translate to actual behaviour. Empirical studies have estimated that about 30% or less of entrepreneurial behaviour is explained by entrepreneurial intention (Shirokova et al., 2016; Van Gelderen et al., 2015). This is also evidenced by inconsistencies in the empirical scholarly findings on the link between family business exposure and entrepreneurial intention, with scholars reporting positive associations, negative associations and even no association (Zapkau et al., 2017). This has led to calls for an examination of individual and contextual factors that may facilitate or impede the entrepreneurial behaviour of the next generation family members (Bogatyreva et al., 2019).

To enhance the knowledge of the role of family businesses as a seedbed for nurturing entrepreneurs and, in particular, shed light on the entrepreneurial choice of entry of the next-generation family members, this study examined the entrepreneurial behavioural choices of the

next-generation family members in the SME sector in a developing country Kenya. The study sought to answer the following research question; given that individuals become SME owners, have they taken the family business route (FB) or independent own founding to get there? To answer this question, this study examined the role of parental business exposure (PBE) on entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next generation family members. The study further opened the black box of the PBE and examined the role of perceived parental entrepreneurial exposure on the choice of the entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family members. The role of several boundary conditions particularly important in a developing context was also examined in the relationships between PBE and EME and PPER and EME: These boundary conditions were grandparent's entrepreneurial status, necessity versus opportunity motivation of the next-generation family members, family business involvement of the next generation family members while growing up and the formal employment effect outside of the FB.

The study was anchored on various psychological and entrepreneurship theories. Osanloo and Grant (2016) emphasize the importance of having a theoretical framework in research as it is the bedrock from which all knowledge is developed and "serves as the structure and support for the rationale for the study". This study was anchored on social learning theory (SLT) as the overriding theory that explains the effects of PEE on EME and social cognitive learning theory (SCLT) as the overarching theory explaining the PPER-EME association. SLT explains the evolution of intentions, attitudes and beliefs as individuals cognitively process experiences, beliefs and knowledge (Bandura, 1972). SCLT further elaborates on the reciprocal relationship between cognitive (personal), environment and behavioural factors in determining the individual's adopted behaviour. These two theories, therefore, shed light on the linked mechanisms between observational learning, the individual's choice, the context and experiential factors that determine occupational choice behaviour (Wang et al., 2018). Mungai and Velamuri (2011), for example, applied SLT to show that the propensity of the offspring to choose entrepreneurship as a career choice may be non-existence if they were exposed to parental failure in entrepreneurship.

The push and pull framework anchored the motivation to venture through necessity/ opportunity entrepreneurship uptake (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). The adoption of the push-and-pull entrepreneurship framework was in response to calls in the literature to integrate family business studies with entrepreneurship theory to better shed light on the succession process in

family businesses (Porfírio et al., 2020). According to the theory, entrepreneurial behaviour may be out of a need to fill a perceived business opportunity, or it may be undertaken because there are no better alternatives for employment. The moderation of grandparents' entrepreneurial status was anchored on the kinship perspective in entrepreneurship. Finally, the formal employment variable and its role in the relationship between PBE and EME, as well as PPER and EME, was anchored on human capital theory (Becker, 1964). These study variables are further elaborated in the following sections, which also provide more details on the motivation of this study

1.2 Motivation and Measures of the Study Variables

1.2.1 Parental Entrepreneurial Exposure (PEE)

Prior entrepreneurial exposure plays a significant role in the supply of entrepreneurs (Zapkau, 2017). Prior entrepreneurial exposure has been defined in a variety of ways by different scholars. Krueger (1993) views business exposure as emanating from various sources such as one's family business, a small firm belonging to someone other than a family member, exposure from a relative's business and/or prior start-up experience. This view is also shared by Peterman and Kennedy (2003), who also emphasised business exposure from any other person associated with the individual. Wang et al. (2018) view prior family business exposure as the learning experiences that emanate from exposure into a family business.

From these views, it is evident that prior business exposure describes an individual's personal history related to entrepreneurship. This history is underpinned by exposure to family organizations as well as non-family organizations. When this exposure occurs in the context of the family business, it is regarded as prior family business exposure (Carr & Sequeira, 2007; Zellweger, Sieger, & Halter, 2011; Chlosta et al., 2012) and may entail influence from the exposure of entrepreneurial parents (Mungai & Velamuri, 2011 Chlosta et al., 2012; Hahn et al., 2020; Aldrich et al., 2021), entrepreneurial grand-parents (Laspita et al., 2012), siblings and relatives (Herring, 2004), or husband/partner role models (Delmar & Davidsson, 2000). This study examined the relationship between parental business exposure and the choice of EME of the next-generation family members.

1.2.1.1 Parental Business Exposure

Majority of scholarship however has aggregated the constructs of family business exposure (for example parents, relatives and siblings) and examined their effects in the entrepreneurial

process. Scholars have called for a more nuanced examination of the content of family business exposure to resolve the inconsistencies in the results. Constructs examining whether family business exposure affects the entrepreneurial process have examined the presence or absence of such exposure and its impact on the entrepreneurial process, emphasising the intention stage of this process. For example, Carr and Sequeira (2007) conducted an intentional study in the United States by creating an index that captured if an individual had a parent or a family member or if they worked in a family business and reported an increase in entrepreneurial intention of individuals with family business exposure (FBE). On the other hand, Zhang, Duysters, and Cloodt (2014) conducted a similar intention study and reported that prior FBE negatively affected entrepreneurial intention. Other scholars, such as Mungai and Velamuri (2011), used a direct measure of prior family business failure. They investigated this relationship on the propensity to entrepreneurship, while Chlosta et al. (2012) distinguished parental business exposure into paternal and maternal family business exposure. This study chose the binary variables of paternal and maternal entrepreneurial exposure (PEE) as used by the survey done by Chlosta et al. (2012) and departed from the intention stage in the entrepreneurial process to enhance the knowledge base of the antecedents of entrepreneurial behaviour by examining its effects on the entrepreneurial mode of entry of the offspring of the family business owners in Kenya.

The study further opened the black box of parental business exposure, as has been recently recommended by scholars as a way to resolve the inconsistencies between the association between FBE and the entrepreneurial process. It thus further examined the role of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER) on the choice of EME. This construct is further explained below.

1.2.1.2 Perceived Parental Entrepreneurial Rewards (PPER)

In order to gain more insights into the effect of parental entrepreneurial exposure (PEE) and its impact on the entrepreneurial process of the next-generation family members, scholars have recommended opening the black box of prior family business exposure to examine the content of this FBE on the next generation's entrepreneurial behaviour (Zapkau et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Criaco et al., 2017). This recommendation has stemmed from the inconsistent findings in the studies on the association of FBE and the entrepreneurial process, particularly at the intention stage. Some scholars have found no relationship between family business

exposure (FBE) and entrepreneurial intention (Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Kim et al., 2006) though most studies have reported a positive relationship. In China, a study done in ten Universities with 494 responses reported a negative influence of prior FBE on entrepreneurial intention (Zhang, Duysters, & Cloodt, 2014). This study, therefore, further analysed parental business exposure through the lens of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards by adopting a six-point measure developed and validated by Neblett and Cortina (2006) on the choice of EME of the next-generation family members. Wang et al. (2018) used the same measure and reported that through perceived parental entrepreneurial reward (PPER), the family business offspring's entrepreneurial intention is formed. According to these authors, this perception is formed by observing intrinsic rewards, such as parents' sense of accomplishment, and extrinsic rewards, such as financial rewards.

By examining the perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER), this study offers insights into how family relationships between entrepreneurial parents and their offspring may shape the latter's entrepreneurial behaviour, including their choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry. Specifically, the study underscores recommendations by researchers on the need for family assemblies where the study finds that there is a need to have conversations regarding the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits derived in running a business family as these conversations may inform the resolve by the next generation family members to associate with the family businesses through CV mode of entry. This behaviour by the next generation may lead to the development of new lines of businesses and hence the growth of FB.

Several other boundary conditions were examined in the relationship between PEE and EME. The motivation to include these boundary conditions is further elaborated below, beginning with the next generation's exposure to self-employed grandparents.

1.2.2 Exposure to Self –employed Grandparents

The family business exposure construct has mainly captured exposure from entrepreneurial parents and relatives, largely neglecting the role played by parents' own parents – grandparents (Laspita et al., 2012) in shaping the entrepreneurial choice of the next-generation family members. The role of grandparents cannot be overstated because, as Tan et al. (2010) illustrated, grandparents fill in the parenting gap of hardworking parents; hence, their role as family supporters is critical. Their role is crucial in developing and emerging contexts where extended households are still a common practice (Khavul et al., 2009), and grandparents play

a significant role in the upbringing of their children (Xu & Chi, 2018). In line with Laspita et al. (2012) study on intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurship, this study included grandparents' entrepreneurial status to examine the effect of exposure to self-employed grandparents' on the relationship between PEE and EME. By so doing, the study underscored the role of kinship ties and extended households in the entrepreneurial process (Verver & Koning, 2018) and further offered guidance to family business practitioners on the importance of exposure to the grandparents as they can reinforce the resolve of the next generation family members to associate with the family business of origin in their entrepreneurial practices. They can thus be instrumental in the succession process.

1.2.3 Family Business Involvement (FBI)

This study further examined the content of family business exposure through the family business involvement construct developed and validated by Van Auken, Stephens, Fry, and Silva (2006a). This construct expounded the effects of other learning experiences that occur within the context of family business exposure other than vicarious learning – learning by observation- and the effect this may have on the entrepreneurial behaviour of the next generation. Scholars have argued the family business offspring may learn by doing in their involvement in the day-to-day running of the business, which in most part occurs as natural behaviour as they are expected to help the family business in their role as family members (Murphy & Lambrechts, 2015). Such involvement may result in deep tacit knowledge about the family business (Dyer, 1986). It may result in the offspring developing a keen eye for business opportunities and decision-making skills (Vardaman & Montague-Mfuni, 2021). Therefore, this study examined the role of FBI in the relationship between PEE and EME and helped shed light on the role played by the FBI in shaping the succession process in the family business.

1.2.4 Human Capital

The concept of human capital was advanced by Becker (1964), who defined it as knowledge and skills acquired by an individual through schooling, on-job training, management experience, start-up experience, industry experience and other experiences. The author aimed to distinguish employees in terms of their financial returns from an organization arising from their investment in human capital. The author also distinguished between general and specific human capital, where general human capital refers to educational attainment through years of

schooling and work experience. In contrast, specific human capital refers to industry-specific experience, prior self-employment and management experience.

Marvel, Davis, and Sproul (2016) reviewed the literature on the role of human capital in entrepreneurship and reported that entrepreneurship scholars had explored both general and specific human capital in various entrepreneurial phenomena. For example, scholars such as Alvarez and Barney (2007) and Marvel (2013) examined the role of human capital in the discovery and creation of entrepreneurial opportunities, while Dimov (2010) examined the role of human capital in the exploitation of business opportunities. Parker and Van Praag (2012), on the other hand, examined the role of human capital in the entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME), a distinction between business take over or independent own founding, while Grichnik et al. (2014) investigated its role in the choice of industry entry. These studies have underscored the critical role played by human capital in opportunity realization and exploitation.

The measures used by various scholars to investigate both specific and general human capital in entrepreneurship also differ. Researchers such as Grichnik et al. (2014) used the managerial and entrepreneurial experience as a measure of specific human capital (measured inform of the number of years spent working in incumbent firms and/or working for a start-up firm). On their part, Dimov (2010) measured it as entrepreneurial experience, denoting the number of businesses that an individual has helped start, while industry experience was captured as the number of years of experience one has worked in a particular industry.

General human capital in the form of education has also been measured differently, with scholars such as Grichnik et al. (2014) measuring it in terms of the duration of socialization in a specific work context, while Parker and Van Praag (2012) adopted the measure of levels of schooling that an individual has in distinguishing business takeover and independent own founding mode of entrepreneurial entry. The effect of a combination of experience outside family firms with the family firm's specific experience is under explored in literature on intergenerational succession process (Pittino et al., 2018) despite estimates by scholars that nine out of ten entrepreneurs will have worked for a formal organization before starting their entrepreneurial ventures. The current study sought to shed light on this gap by adopting Grichnik et al. (2014) measures of specific human capital inform of the duration of socialization in a particular work context to aid in exploring the role of formal work experience on entrepreneurial behaviour of the next generation. Specifically, the study examined the role of

this formal employment on the relationship between PEE and EME. It thus underscored Pittino et al. (2018) argument that the combination of external experience for example from an organization outside the family firm with family firm specific experience has an underexplored influence on the perception about continuance commitment of the family business by a potential "successor" as it affects the economic desirability of alternative self-employment options.

1.2.5 Motivation to Venture

Entrepreneurship theory categorizes types of entrepreneurship through motivation to venture under the dichotomy of necessity-driven versus opportunity-driven entrepreneurship (Jafari-Sadeghi, 2020; Block et al., 2015; Reynolds et al., 2005). Scholars have primarily used the push and pull framework to categorize this dichotomy whereby necessity entrepreneurial uptake occurs when an individual is pushed into entrepreneurship due to a lack of a job or unsatisfactory employment, while opportunity entrepreneurs begin their businesses by being pulled by a perceived business opportunity (Reynolds et al., 2005; Uhlaner & Thurik, 2010).

To understand the motivations driving the next-generation family members' choice of entrepreneurial entry, this study examined the moderating role of the next generation's motivation to venture (necessity-driven or opportunity-driven) in the relationship between PEE and EME. Such an understanding is particularly critical to policy makers in developing contexts as scholars have highlighted that necessity-driven entrepreneurial uptake occurs due to factors such as involuntary job loss and scarcity of white-collar jobs (Reynolds 2002), a prevalent phenomenon in developing contexts (Mota et al., 2019). They can thus better differentiate policies on entrepreneurial uptake for these different categories of motives. This understanding is also of vital interest to family businesses in understanding the programs they need to implement to better support the next generation to further grow the family business by improving the opportunity identification and exploitation process.

1.2.6 Entrepreneurial Behavioural Choice

New venture creation and innovation are at the heart of entrepreneurship (Steier et al., 2004). In particular, entrepreneurship focuses on opportunity recognition and exploitation through reconfiguring existing resources in novel ways capable of creating an advantage for the firm (Zahra et al., 2004). In family firms, scholars have illustrated that multiple generational involvements in the firm lead to entrepreneurial behaviour of the firm as newer generations

tend to push for more unique ways of doing things (Kepner, 1991) and generally are the driving force of innovation in the family firm (Salvato, 2004).

Thus, many family firms are keen on intergenerational succession. Indeed, the provision of employment of the next-generation family members in the family business is one of the distinguishing features of family businesses from non-family businesses (Berrone et al., 2012). This study examined the entrepreneurial behavioural choices of the next-generation family members through the lens of the entrepreneurial mode of entry. The conceptualisation of this construct is further explained below.

1.2.7.1 Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry (EME)

In addition to the multiple objective pursuits that characterize many successful firms, such as economic (financial objectives), operational (such as efficiency and employee relation) as well as corporate social responsibility objectives, family firms have additional objectives that are underpinned by family-related goals one of which is to act as a source of employment for family members to establish a family dynasty (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2007). Thus an individual whose family owns a business (set up by previous generations) has three career options; join paid employment outside the family, join the family business and/or start a new independent business (Zellweger et al., 2011). When considering entrepreneurship as a career option, they must decide on the entrepreneurial mode of entry.

They may wish to enter into entrepreneurship through the family business route or opt for more independence by starting their own venture from the family. Joining the family business route for the next generation, however, is not as natural as the family business owners would wish, making intergeneration succession one of the biggest challenges family businesses face (Mokhber et al., 2017). Entrepreneurial intentional studies have reported that most next-generation family members would prefer other sources of employment in pursuit of autonomy at work (Zellweger et al., 2011). Scholars have therefore been keen to understand the factors that influence the next generations' choice of engagement with the family business to better advise family firms on overcoming the challenge of intergenerational succession. This study sought to enhance this knowledge by departing from the entrepreneurial intention studies and instead focussing on a population of the next generations' members in the small and medium

enterprise sector to examine the effects of family business exposure on the choice of their entrepreneurial mode of entry.

Scholars have primarily conceptualised the mode of entrepreneurial entry as either a business takeover (for example, succession into a family business) or independent founding (Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Pittino, Visintin, & Lauto, 2018). Parker and Van Praag (2012) study views own founding as an entrepreneurial entry characterised by operating an independent business, while succession is taken to mean business takeover in a family or non-family business. Several other scholars share this definition with Bastié, Cieply, and Cussy (2013), adopting a similar dichotomy but viewing business takeover as the assumption of control of an already existing business. Block, Thurik, Van der Zwan, and Walter (2013) also use a similar dichotomy of business takeover versus independent own founding to explore gender-specific factors influencing the mode of entry.

Examining the mode of entrepreneurial entry of the next generation family members as either joining the family business or independent own founding may not fully illustrate the entrepreneurial behavioural choices of the next generation family members. This is because joining the family business may not be a ready option for smaller businesses (Ramírez-Pasillas et al., 2021). It may also not be available for all the next-generation members. Furthermore, many obstacles mar independent own founding on its part. New businesses' are often resource-constrained, particularly in informational resources, delays in government permits and approvals and the process itself may be time-consuming (Van Gelderen et al., 2011). In developing economy contexts, evidence suggests that most micro and small businesses (MSE) close during the first three years of operation (Liedholm & Mead, 2013).

Consequently, the conceptualisation of the own–founding versus joining the family business may not fully illustrate the entrepreneurial career choices available to the offspring of family businesses. There is also evidence that the next-generation family business members who engage in entrepreneurial initiatives (Cruz & Nordqvist, 2012) are primarily a millennial cohort (Hidayati et al., 2020) and would opt for more autonomy at work and are motivated by progression, especially in the use of technology. Thus, in addition to the business takeover and independent own founding choices of EME, this study examined a further finer-grained entrepreneurial mode of entry among the next-generation family business members- a corporate venturing choice in FB. Thus, the EME choice for the next-generation family

members was conceptualised as joining the family business (an inheritance route), corporate venturing (CV) in the family business or independent founding from the parents' business.

In the literature on corporate entrepreneurship, corporate venturing (CV) has been defined as "corporate entrepreneurial efforts that lead to the creation of new business organizations within the corporate organization" (Sharma & Chrisman, 2007). These new businesses may be internal to the existing firm and labelled as internal corporate venturing that characterizes units with varying degrees of relatedness with the mother business (Covin et al., 2020), or they may be outside of the existing family firm given a label of external corporate venturing such as corporate venture capital investments or spin-offs (Keil, 2002). In the context of next-generation business owners, we follow the definition adopted by Ramírez-Pasillas et al. (2021) and define corporate venturing as entrepreneurial initiatives whose origin is in the established family businesses but which may have a degree of un-relatedness with the mother company. The scholars' emphasis here was that the family firm is the locus of the new venture by the next generation family member (Minola et al., 2021).

By adding the CV mode of entrepreneurial in the construct of EME, this study enhanced the knowledge of the role played by family businesses even when they are small, with no objective of establishing family business legacies on developing entrepreneurs. The study also underscores the literature on the succession of family businesses as a process. As illustrated by Au et al. (2013) case study of an SME in Hong Kong deemed successful in the intergenerational influence of entrepreneurial behaviour, it could be utilized as an effective way of engaging and grooming the next successor. Au et al. (2013) reported that SMEs use internal corporate venturing (ICV) to incubate the second-generation members to take over the business. The authors report that the existing family businesses nurture spin-offs from the second-generation members to groom the next successor.

The following section explores the theoretical approaches used as analytical tools to examine the entrepreneurial behaviour of next-generation family members.

1.3 Theoretical Perspectives of Studying Entrepreneurial Behaviour of the Next-Generation Family Members

The empirical studies on the role of family business exposure in the entrepreneurial process have utilized various theories as analytical frameworks. Scholars examining entrepreneurial intention studies have used single theories to explain this phenomenon, for example, the theory of planned behaviour (Zellweger et al., 2011; Carr & Sequeira, 2007) and social cognitive career theory (Wang et al., 2018). Other scholars have used the stewardship theory (Welsh et al., 2013) to explore the perceptions of entrepreneurship across several generations. The propensity of the next-generation family members towards entrepreneurial behaviour has also been examined through the lens of social learning theory (Mungai & Velamuri, 2011). Using a single theory to explore a link between family business exposure and entrepreneurial behaviour may limit our understanding of the complexity of factors influencing this relationship. A multi-theoretical approach through the mechanisms of moderators may give theoretical precision to the study of the role of family business exposure as a source of supply of entrepreneurs. Through the adoption of several moderators, this study adopts five theories to examine this relationship; social learning theory (SLT), social cognitive learning theory (SCLT), kinship perspective theory, push and pull theory and human capital theory (HCT). It thus responds to calls in the literature to better report relationships in entrepreneurial phenomena through moderators be they study characteristics, method or theoretical moderators (Rauch & Frese, 2006).

The context of the study was also critical to the interpretations of the study's findings, as scholars have underscored that entrepreneurial behaviour is a contextually driven phenomenon of a society (Baker & Welter, 2020; Welter, 2011; Steyaert & Katz, 2004). The following section explores the importance of examining entrepreneurial behaviour through a contextual lens.

1.4 Contextualising Entrepreneurial Behaviour

Entrepreneurship scholars have acknowledged entrepreneurial behaviour as a contextually driven phenomenon of a society (Baker & Welter, 2020; Welter, 2011; Steyaert & Katz, 2004). In management research, context underpins situations, circumstances or conditions external to the particular phenomenon that may constrain or enable it (Cappelli, 1991; Mowday & Sutton,

1993). The context lens in entrepreneurship research has, for example, led to the view that entrepreneurial behaviour in societies with alternative developmental paths may be triggered differently such that, through its processes and practices, entrepreneurship behaviour is likely to materialize differently in societies marred with high poverty levels and hence high levels of uncertainty, high population growth, high levels of unemployment, gender inequality and high levels of government corruption in comparison to contexts with institutional certainty (Pasillas et al., 2017; Shepherd et al., 2019). Thus, entrepreneurial contexts can be both an asset and a liability through availing of entrepreneurial opportunities and setting boundaries for realising those opportunities (Welter, 2011). Baker and Welter (2020) argue that the social and environmental context underpins the local norms and traditions, which, for instance, determine gender roles within families and help explain the low uptake of female entrepreneurship. Several studies confirm this argument. For example, Nguyen et al. (2021) illustrated that necessity motivation plays a key role in advancing the careers of a Vietnamese women in the coffee industry – a characteristically male dominated industry.

Social context has also been illustrated as a critical driver of social entrepreneurship. Dickel et al. (2021) demonstrated that being embedded in a social entrepreneurial family influences the social entrepreneurial propensity in adulthood in a survey of 148 social entrepreneurs. In the same vein, Stirzaker et al. (2021) also illustrated in twelve narratives of social entrepreneurs in Scotland that social entrepreneurs are not only mission and compassion driven but, just like commercial entrepreneurs, scan the institutional environment for potential opportunities before launching their social enterprises. The role of context has also been examined in explaining the entrepreneurial phenomenon of business re-entry into entrepreneurship after a failure. Guerrero and Espinoza-Benavides (2021) showed that contextual factors such as social norms that do not penalize business failure are critical in the successful trajectory of re-entry after a failure. The literature stream on rural versus urban entrepreneurs has underscored the crucial role of the physical environment in information asymmetry among rural entrepreneurs in China, causing them to lag behind in their enterprise growth and development (Fan & Fichman, 2022). From this analysis, it is evident that the role of context is critical in entrepreneurship scholarship.

Sub-Saharan African (SSA) context is home to some of the fastest growing economies in the African continent, with an average growth rate of 4.2% (excluding South Africa), with economies in East Africa recording the highest growth rate of an average of 6.3% (Igwe et al.,

2018; African Development Bank Group, 2017). This regional growth and market expansion have availed entrepreneurial opportunities to individuals and firms (Anderson, 2011), but their realization has not been easy. These developing economies suffer from more inefficient and ineffective markets than developed markets (Behrman, 1999), whose foundation has been coined as "institutional voids," defined as "absences or shortcomings that help markets operate effectively"(Khanna & Palepu, 2005)." In the context of SSA, these institutional voids are underpinned by poor governance structures marred with high corruption and political instability, an inefficient legal system, power shortages and bureaucratic government regulations (Murithi et al., 2019; Igwe et al., 2018). The informal sector is also dominated by illegal businesses that evade tax, a reflection of the excessive tax system that negatively impacts the performance of small businesses (Ratten & Jones, 2018; Khavul et al., 2009). Furthermore, Baker and Welter (2020) argue that the social institutions that define the local norms and traditions, which, for instance, determine gender roles within families, help explain the low uptake of female entrepreneurship. Welsh et al. (2021) underscore this further by illustrating that social institutional element (family moral support) significantly impacts the performance of female headed businesses in the Arab based developing countries in SSA.

When actors are embedded in weak or absent formal institutions, they are likely to construct substitutes for these formal institutional supports (Peng et al., 2008). Heeks et al. (2021) Illustrate how firms in developing countries navigate these inefficiencies through digitization and, in some cases, automation to reduce the time and financial cost of transactions. Murithi et al. (2019) argue that business families in Sub-Saharan Africa are best positioned to navigate these institutional contexts by exploiting the social relationships they are embedded in. The context that individuals are embedded into thus shapes their *forma mentis*, affecting their overall ways of thinking, taking decisions, evaluating opportunities, and behaving. Indeed, scholars have advised policy entrepreneurs to consider the role of context in their advocacy efforts (Petridou & Mintrom, 2021). In this study, the role of social context (growing up in a family business) has been used as a variable to explain the entrepreneurial behavioural choices of the next generation family members in Kenya in the SME sector. The following section goes into a deeper analysis of the SME sector in Kenya to further elaborate on the context of the study.

1.4.1 Small and Medium Enterprises in Kenya

Scholarly work in entrepreneurship examines the process of opportunity identification and

exploitation (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). The opportunity identification and exploitation embodied in the entrepreneurial spirit of the actors in the SME sector is critical because it is a leading sector of employment and private sector-led growth in economies of developing and emerging nations like Kenya (Ayyagari, Demirguc-Kunt, & Maksimovic, 2014; Rocha, 2012). A large part of productivity in emerging economies is indeed attributed to the SME sector. For example, the World Bank (2019) estimates that seven out of ten jobs are generated by SMEs. The sector is also described as the launching pad for entrepreneurial spirit and innovation (KNBS, 2016) and hence an appropriate sector to investigate the entrepreneurial mode of entry in an emerging economy like Kenya.

Furthermore, by their very nature, most SMEs are family businesses (Maalu, 2010; Danes et al., 2005). The majority remain small businesses in Kenya, as evidenced by the latest MSME baseline survey in Kenya (KNBS,2016). Even so, the many SMEs in the Kenyan economy have played an instrumental role in its development (Matanda, 2012). These SMEs' adaptive, growth and transformative strategies are of great concern to policymakers because their failure may aggravate the unemployment situation experienced by these economies (Todaro, 1997). Despite operating in a hostile environment underpinned by institutional voids and intense competition both locally and internationally, Kenyan SMEs remain highly entrepreneurial (Mustafa & Hughes, 2018), and hence the SME context in Kenya provides an interesting focus to investigate the supply of entrepreneurs from family businesses in Kenya, specifically focussing on the next-generation family members in the SME sector and their entrepreneurial behavioural choices. Researchers have opined that one growth strategy utilized by family businesses which have existed for hundreds of years, is to encourage the next-generation entrepreneurial entry in stages through independent own founding first, then business incubation and finally, succession entry mode (Au et al., 2013; Jaskiewicz et al., 2015). By examining the entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family business members in this sector, the study enhances the knowledge of entrepreneurial entry nurtured by small family businesses (as is the case in Kenya). It suggests practical guidance that could improve the growth of these family businesses by nurturing the entrepreneurial spirit in the next-generation family members through their exposure to enterprising parents.

A great concern for policymakers is the redress of the “missing middle”- the inability of small firms to graduate into medium enterprises (Esuha & Fletcher, 2002; Ferrand, 2012). In Kenya, efforts to achieve the industrialization goal by 2030 have encouraged growth-oriented micro

and small enterprises. Policy efforts by the Kenyan Government trace back to 1986 when session paper one on "economic management for renewed growth" was enacted. One of the primary objectives was to promote the growth of micro and small enterprises (Government of Kenya, 1986). In 2005, session paper number two was enacted to develop micro and small enterprises as a strategic weapon for poverty eradication through employment and wealth creation (Kenya National Assembly, 2005).

Kenya Vision 2030, a blueprint geared towards the national planning strategy of the country, was launched in 2008 and highlighted the growth of micro and small enterprises through the closing of the skills gap and the accessibility of finances. In 2012, the Kenyan government further enacted legislation to provide a legal and regulatory framework for micro and small enterprises (Micro and Small Enterprises act, 2012). This act highlights various ways of achieving this objective, including facilitating access to business development services and promoting an entrepreneurial culture. By offering practical guidance on nurturing the next generation's entrepreneurial spirit, this research contributes to solutions to redress these concerns. Evidence suggests that most family businesses in East Africa are small and informal (Khavul et al., 2009). Explicating the factors that inform the EME of the next generation thus contributes to solutions on how the next-generation can be nurtured to graduate the small family businesses into medium and large enterprises.

The SME sector in Kenya has seen tremendous growth though documented evidence is scarce. A 1999 national baseline survey that explored micro and small enterprises (henceforth MSE) in Kenya showed that there were about 1.3 million MSEs in the country (KNBS, 1999). A more fine-grained national baseline survey was conducted in 2015 and reported a figure of 1.56 million licenced Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) and 5.85 million unlicensed MSMEs in Kenya (KNBS, 2016). According to the same report, this sector contributed 31.4% to the gross domestic product of the economy of Kenya. However, this sector faces several challenges that underpin investment climate and firm-specific variables (Shibia & Barako, 2017; KNBS, 2016). These include a lack of enabling infrastructure and an environment for fair competition that is catapulted by a lack of access to credit from financial institutions (KNBS, 2016) and a lack of entrepreneurial education as well as business experience (Shibia & Barako, 2017). This study elucidated these challenges by examining the role of push and pull factors in determining the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family business members. It, therefore, suggests policy differentiation for entrepreneurial entry

to facilitate the quality of entrepreneurial entry in the country.

Given the relevance of entrepreneurs to the economic growth of any country, a central question that underpins most scholarly work in entrepreneurship is "why, when and how do opportunities for the creation of goods and services come into existence, and why, when and how do some people and not others discover and exploit these opportunities"(Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). As inferred in the previous sections, family business exposure has been explored extensively as an antecedent to creating entrepreneurs. However, these studies have concentrated on family businesses in Northern America and Western Europe, most of which are relatively large businesses run by close circles related by blood or marriage. In Africa and, in particular, East Africa, however, family businesses are dominated by small and medium enterprises, and extended families form the foundation of kinship ties in these family businesses (Khavul, Bruton, & Wood, 2009). Therefore, this study drew a sample of next-generation family members from this sector and examined the role of enterprising grandparents in the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family members with prior PEE.

1.5 Problem Statement

There is overwhelming evidence that family organizations are vital in nurturing potential entrepreneurs (Nordqvist & Zellweger, 2010; Habbershon & Williams, 1999; Chlosta, Patzelt, Klein, & Dormann, 2012; Jaskiewicz et al., 2015; Schindehutte et al., 2003; Kim, Aldrich, & Keister, 2006; Carr & Sequeira, 2007; Zellweger et al., 2011; Mungai & Velamuri, 2011; Hoffmann, Junge, & Malchow-Møller, 2015; Jaskiewicz, Combs, & Rau, 2015; Pittino, Visintin, & Lauto, 2018). Through the exposure mechanism (Sørensen, 2007), these organisations offer a platform for vicarious learning, legitimizing entrepreneurship as a career option. This entrepreneurial spirit may be evident when the family business offspring start their own independent firms and when they choose to work in the family business (Block et al., 2013; Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Bastié et al., 2013).

This entrepreneurial spirit embodied in the next-generation family members is essential to family business owners because they intentionally pursue intergenerational succession to ensure that control and ownership pass to the next-generation (Saxena, 2013). However, evidence suggests significant concerns for the family business in the ultimate success of intergenerational succession. These concerns are to do with the business's ability to thrive and its complete failure in the worst situation (Serna et al., 2021). Some family business scholars have attributed the low success rate in intergenerational succession to the inability of the incumbent to properly engage the next-generation family members and a lack of a suitable leader among the next-generation family members (Garcia et al., 2019; De Massis et al., 2008). Evidence from entrepreneurial intention studies of university students with family business exposure reveals that only a minuscule (1.9%) of the family business offspring intend to join their parents' business upon graduation (Sieger et al., 2016). These warning statistics imply that the family business may be vulnerable, especially if it's an SME. Evidence also suggests that one reason for the family businesses' poor attraction and maintenance of professional leaders is SMEs' limited resources (KNBS, 2016). Furthermore, family business owners nearing retirement may lack the resources and time to groom a successor outside the family (Serna et al., 2021). This study sought to illuminate the entrepreneurial process of the next-generation family members in the SME sector by investigating the factors that affect their choice of entrepreneurial behaviour through the lens of the entrepreneurial mode of entry.

Entrepreneurship scholars have called for a distinction of the entrepreneurial mode of entry from the entrepreneurial entry decision itself, owing to unique antecedents that may influence

EME that require differentiated policy guidelines rather than uniform guidelines designed to stimulate the uptake of nascent entrepreneurship (Parker & Van Praag, 2012). Understanding these antecedents is also critical to family businesses as it may offer practical guidance on nurturing the next-generation family members to join and grow the family business of origin. Scholars investigating the role of FBE in the entrepreneurial process of the next-generation family members have primarily relied on student populations to guide family businesses on some of these antecedents and thus have focused on the intentional stage of the entrepreneurial process. For example, a study done in 87 Universities across eight developed countries, namely; Austria, Belgium, Finland, Germany, Hungary, New Zealand, Norway and Switzerland, reported a distinction between intentional founders, successors, and employees with prior FBE in terms of their locus of control as well as independence and innovative motives (Zellweger et al., 2011). Carr and Sequeira (2007), on their part, also did an entrepreneurial intentional study of 308 individuals in the United States and reported significant direct and indirect effects of prior FBE on entrepreneurial intention. Intentional studies from eight Germany Universities also revealed that the influence of entrepreneurial families on entrepreneurial intention is dependent on the personality of the offspring specifically individual's openness to experience (Chlosta et al., 2012). Researchers, however, have questioned the extent to which these motivations at the intention stage of the entrepreneurial process translate into actual behaviour (Pittaway & Cope, 2007). Arguments exist that entrepreneurial intention is not a full reflection of real action. Indeed, some empirical evidence reveals that only 30% or less of entrepreneurial intention translates to actual start-up entrepreneurial behaviour (Kautonen et al., 2013; Van Gelderen et al., 2015), with some scholars devoting efforts to a search for factors that shorten the intention–action gap (Kolvereid, 2016; Adam & Fayolle, 2016).

From the above analysis, the entrepreneurial mode of entry resulting from family business exposure from populations of entrepreneurs has surprisingly received little attention among entrepreneurship scholars. Yet, as Pittino, Visintin and Lauto (2018) observe, exploring this phenomenon would yield the most significant insights into factors that influence the next generation's decision to join the family business and hence critical insights into the succession process. Further, the few studies linking growing up in a family business and EME have focused on EME's two choices: business take-over and own founding entry modes (Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Pittino et al., 2018). However, evidence exist that entrepreneurial entry may occur after a period of employment (Sørensen, 2007; Sørensen & Fassiotto, 2011), may occur

incrementally – hybrid entrepreneurial entry (Folta et al., 2010) and succession may not happen immediately as the first generation business owners may be reluctant to hand over control to the next-generation business owners (De Massis, Chua, & Chrisman, 2008). The succession process may also be context-specific as family businesses may differ in different regions. Khavul et al. (2009) illustrated a distinction between family businesses in East Africa and those in Northern Europe in that kinship ties and extended family households constitute those in East Africa, unlike their counterparts in developed economies, which may have a distinction in the process of succession. Furthermore, East Africa is dominated by small family businesses which may not have an objective of establishing entrepreneurial legacies unlike family businesses in developed contexts (Ramírez-Pasillas et al., 2021).

This study addressed these concerns by empirically examining the intergenerational influence of next-generation family business members' entrepreneurial behavioural choices through the lens of their choice of EME. EME was conceptualised as the choice between joining the family business, corporate venturing choice within the family business or independent own founding away from the family business. The role of several factors was also examined: Self- employed grandparents, next generations motivation to venture, family business involvement and the effect of formal employment outside the family business. This study thus offered insights into the role played by the family business context in the entrepreneurial entry choice of the next-generation family members. It primarily provides practical guidance for family businesses in Kenya on the critical importance of tapping into kinship ties and extended households, such as relationships with grandparents, as a source of guidance and wisdom for the next-generation family members in making their occupational choices. It also highlights the critical role that family businesses need to play in training and mentoring the next-generation to improve the quality of their entrepreneurial initiatives.

While some scholars have demonstrated that FBE influences the entrepreneurial process from intention to actual behaviour, others have argued that exposure mechanisms alone are insufficient to enliven the entrepreneurial process (Wang et al., 2018). This mainly has stemmed from the inconsistent empirical findings on the role of family business exposure in the entrepreneurial process studies where some scholars have found no relationship between FBE and entrepreneurial behaviour (e.g., Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Kim et al., 2006) though the majority of the studies have found a significant association between FBE and entrepreneurial

process. In China, a study done in ten Universities with 494 responses reported a negative influence of prior FBE on entrepreneurial intention (Zhang, Duysters, & Cloodt, 2014).

Entrepreneurship scholars, therefore, have a role in establishing conditions under which prior FBE may be responsible for influencing the stages of the entrepreneurial process. Scholars such as Chlosta et al. (2012) have illustrated that individual personality factors play a significant moderating role in this relationship, while Zhang, Duysters and Cloodt (2014) have argued that prior family business exposure (FBE) may elicit a deterrence effect in the entrepreneurial process because such exposure may lead to negative emotions such as perceived fear of failure and hardship in running a business. To further enhance this knowledge, this study sought to open the black box of FBE and examine the intergenerational influence of entrepreneurial behaviour through perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards influence the choice of EME. By so doing, the study responded to calls by scholars to examine the effects of the content of FBE in the entrepreneurial process and examine other entrepreneurial entry paths of the next-generation family members (Wang et al., 2018; Zapkau et al., 2017).

The above analysis reveals theoretical, empirical, methodological and contextual gaps that this study sought to address. For example, scholars examining the effects of FBE on entrepreneurial behaviour have mainly focused on direct impacts. This study aimed to fill this gap by testing a conceptual framework comprising the role of other factors (exposure self- employed grandparents, FBI, motivation to venture and formal employment) that may affect the association between FBE and the entrepreneurial process of the next generation family members.

The study further contributes to SLT and SCLT by showing that social learning may entail exposure to extended families, such as grandparents, who may be viewed as a source of wisdom and hence influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members. The study underscores explicitly the role of individual choice highlighted in SLT and elaborated further in SCLT in determining their entrepreneurial occupational choice. Methodologically, the study overcomes the challenge cited by many scholars of lack of access to a database containing next-generation entrepreneurs. This study drew a random sample from the population of SME owners and then purposively selected those with PEE to overcome this challenge. Therefore, the study empirically moved from populations of students and examined the relationships

mentioned above among individuals involved in the development and running of their businesses.

The context of this study is also crucial in understanding this phenomenon. As Khavul, Bruton, and Wood (2009) observed in their literature review, most studies have focussed on family firms in America and North Europe, where succession often implies relationships among first cousins. These researchers further opine that family firms in Africa can extend the contextualisation of family business because extended families are the foundation of kinship ties. Therefore, the rubric family constitutes a broader set of individuals, in most cases stretching to fourth cousins, unlike the case of corresponding firms in contexts such as Northern Europe and America. This research investigated the FBE as exposure from parents and grandparents. It, therefore, examined the role of extended households in shaping the succession process in developing contexts such as Kenya.

1.6 Research Objectives

The broad objective of the study was to determine the intergenerational influence on the entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family members. Arising from this overall objective, the following sub-objectives were derived.

i. To investigate the relationship between parental entrepreneurial exposure (PEE) and the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME) of the next-generation family members
ii. To assess the moderating role of exposure to self- employed grandparents on the relationship between PEE and EME
iii. To investigate the moderating role of motivation to venture on the relationship between PEE and EME
iv. To assess the moderating role of family business involvement (FBI) on the relationship between PEE and EME
v. To assess the moderating role of formal employment outside the FB on the relationship between PEE and EME

1.7 Research Questions

Arising from the objectives above, six research questions were developed as follows:

1. What is the relationship of parental entrepreneurial exposure (PEE) on the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME) of the next generation family members?
2. Is there a moderating effect of exposure to self- employed grandparents on the relationship between PEE and EME of the next generation family members?
3. What effect does the degree of family business involvement while growing up have on the relationship between PEE and EME of the next generation family members?
4. Is there a moderating effect of the next generations' motivation to venture on the association between PEE and EME of the next-generation family members?
5. What effect does the period of formal employment outside the family business have on the relationship between PEE and EME?

1.8 Scope of the Study

This study was done among the next-generation family members involved in running their businesses in the SME sector in Kenya as of December 2020. Four counties in the Nairobi metropolitan service were targeted for this survey; Nairobi, Machakos, Kiambu and Kajiado.

1.9 Value of the Research

This study contributes to theory, policy, and entrepreneurial and family business practice by addressing the knowledge gaps identified**.** The study also acts as a reference point for further enhancement of research on the role of family businesses as sources of entrepreneurial supply in developing and emerging economies. In the theoretical contribution, the study underscores the role of the same related constructs that have been examined in depth in the previous literature concerning the role of SLT and SCLT in the entrepreneurial process of the family business offspring. The study further extends this knowledge by examining several moderator variables that previous studies have not/ or have under-examined in the relationship between FBE and entrepreneurial behaviour. By so doing, better clarity of the mechanisms that enhance social learning in a business family set-up is gained. Previous studies have also alluded to the inhibiting role of negative role models, such as exposure to a failing parental business in entrepreneurial behaviour (Mungai & Velamuri, 2011). This study opened the black box of parental business exposure. It examined the role of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards on the next-generation family members' choice of EME. The research additionally contributed to the literature on transgenerational entrepreneurship (Nordqvist & Zellweger, 2010) by responding to calls by scholars to integrate entrepreneurship theories with family business

studies (Porfírio et al., 2020). The study used a push-and-pull theoretical framework to examine the role of the next generation's necessity versus opportunity motivation on the association between PEE and EME.

The contribution to the above theoretical knowledge also results in policy guidance geared toward entrepreneurship in Kenya and emerging economies, especially those with similar characteristics as Kenya. First, recognising the role of small family businesses as suppliers of entrepreneurs leads to an understanding of the stimulants of entrepreneurial uptake in a country, particularly the role families play in this endeavour. Therefore, this study can inform the refinement of entrepreneurial policies geared towards entrepreneurial uptake, especially the critical role of fostering entrepreneurial families. Additionally, policymakers such as the government of Kenya and the Micro, Small Enterprise Authority (MSEA) will be better informed on the need to differentiate policies towards entrepreneurs with FBE rather than the development of initiatives to increase the uptake of entrepreneurship by all budding entrepreneurs. This is because individuals taking over a family business may have different needs from those beginning a business from scratch. Initiatives encouraging entrepreneurial uptake in developing countries will hence be more fine-tuned and will add to the continued efforts of searching for alternatives to poverty alleviation.

This research will further be of value to practising entrepreneurs. The knowledge derived from this study can promote better family business practices that can enhance and better manage the intergenerational succession process. In particular, the study sheds light on the grooming process of the next-generation family members that can strengthen their entrepreneurial capacity and willingness to engage with the family business of origin. The role played by extended household members such as grandparents also offers practical guidance to other members of the family who may play a significant role in the grooming of the next generation family members. The main contributions of the study findings are further elaborated in detail in chapter six.

1.10 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is comprised of six chapters. The first chapter discusses the background of the study and offers a synopsis of the study variables underpinning the research. It also highlights the critical role of the study's context and further details the SME sector in Kenya. In addition, the chapter discusses the objectives of the study and problem statement indicating the gaps in the

literature that the study sought to fill and drawing out the specific objectives and research questions that guided the research. It then ends with the value of the study. Chapter two presents a synthesis of the literature on the study variables. It begins with explaining the theories anchoring the study and then proceeds with the empirical literature to highlight the gaps in the literature. A summary of the literature gaps is also described and the conceptual framework indicating the interaction of the study variables as hypothesized.

Chapter three presents the research design and the methodology employed in conducting this research. It begins with a discussion of the adopted research philosophy followed by research design, population and sampling and data collection methods. It also summarizes the data analysis procedures, including the analytical techniques employed and ends with a discussion on the ethical considerations upheld throughout the research process. Chapter four presents the research findings of the study. The data is presented under the following headings; response rate, an overview of the study variables, summary descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and multinomial logit analysis, and ends with a chapter summary. Chapter five offers a critical discussion of the findings by highlighting the consistent and inconsistent areas with previous studies. An explanation is provided when the study findings are inconsistent with previous empirical work. From this, the theoretical and practical implications of the research are derived. The discussion is organized according to the study objectives. Finally, chapter six captures the summary of the findings of the study and the conclusion made by the researcher. It further underscores the contribution of the research to policymakers, family businesses, and theory. It finally divulges the study's limitations that form avenues for further investigation.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the literature review relevant to this study. It begins with a discussion of theories on which the study is anchored. It then proceeds with a review of empirical literature identifying common threads and areas where researchers have differed, drawing out the gaps on which the study is based. Towards the end of the chapter, identified knowledge gaps are summarised from where hypotheses are drawn, representing this in a conceptual framework.

2.2 Theoretical Foundations

A multi- theoretical approach was adopted in order to investigate the factors that influence the choice of EME among the next-generation family members. The influence of parental business exposure (maternal and paternal business exposure influence) on the entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME) was anchored on social learning theory (SLT). The moderating effect of exposure to self- employed grandparents was anchored on kinship perspective theory, while the necessity versus opportunity entrepreneurial motivational drive was anchored on the push and pull framework. The influence of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER) on the choice of EME and the moderation of family business involvement (FBI) were anchored on social cognitive learning theory (SCLT). Finally, the moderation of the period of formal employment on the PEE EME relationship was anchored on human capital theory. Each of these theories is discussed in the following sections in detail.

2.2.1 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory (SLT) has its origins in the work of Rotter on social learning and clinical psychology (Rotter, 1954) but was later advanced and expanded by Bandura (1971). SLT emerged as a criticism of behaviourist learning theories that advocated that learning occurs purely from interaction with the environment through either association (classical conditioning) (Pavlov, 1897) or consequences (operant conditioning) (Skinner, 1988). On its part, SLT included the role of mental factors in producing a new behaviour and thus advocated for individual choice of the behaviour. According to SLT, therefore, simply learning a behaviour is not indicative of the adoption of the behaviour. SLT posits that an individual's behaviour is learned in a social context through observation that happens through vicarious reinforcement, role modelling and mediation processes. Bandura (1971) thus discredits the

control of man's actions by natural forces or by purely environmental stimuli but instead emphasizes the role played by vicarious, symbolic and self-regulatory processes. On observational learning, the author opined that learning occurs not only through trial and error but also deliberately or inadvertently through the example of others viewed as role models.

A behaviour change occurs when the behaviour is seen to be rewarded- vicarious reinforcement (Bandura & Barab, 1971; Bandura, 1971). The author thus emphasized the consequences of the behaviour in the learning process. This observational learning results in acquiring attitudes, thinking styles and values embodied by the symbolic or real role model (Manz & Sims 1981). Individuals, however, do not just imitate anyone but only certain people they deem worthy of imitation. These individuals may have similar characteristics to the observers, such as similar gender or age, or high status or may be viewed as attractive. For young children, Bandura (1972) opined that they might want to imitate their parents or older siblings. Mental factors are involved in acquiring and producing the new behaviour. Thus, individuals go through a cognitive process whereby they transfer these observed cues into their internal codes that become a part of their mental models, shaping their decisions. The theory suggests four cognitive mediation processes that are involved in the learning and production of the new behaviour. The first one is attention where by the individual pays close attention to the behaviour of the model. The authors argue that both the characteristics of the observer and the observed can influence how much attention is given. Second component is retention. In this case, if vicarious learning is to effectively take place, the individuals must recall the modelled behaviour. Conversations aided by imagery and descriptive language aids the process of retention. The third component is reproduction; in this case, the individual translates the behaviour that is modelled into their particular action. The authors argue that individual behaviour improves the more they practice the modelled behaviour. The final component is motivation. In this case, for vicarious learning to occur effectively, there is a reason to imitate the modelled behaviour. This reason influences the individual's resolve to make an effort.

A notable strength of SLT is the recognition of the cognitive factors in learning- a thought process that occurs before acting and recognising the individual choice in adopting the modelled behaviour. The next generation family members immersed in contexts with institutional voids cognitively process the difficulties or ease of starting their businesses and hence make a choice on the best entrepreneurial entry routes to follow. Bandura (1971) argues that learning would be laborious and even dangerous if individuals only relied on the behaviour

of others as well as their own actions to judge their actions. Acknowledging the cognitive process provides a more realistic account of the individual learning process. However, by emphasising the environment as the sole maintenance of the learning process, SLT ignores the role of biological factors in the learning process. Neurophysiological research indicates that observational learning could also result from mirror neurons –" specific nerve cells that allow us to empathise with others and imitate behaviour"(Williams & Gribble, 2012; Ashraf et al., 2021).

Social learning through imitation and modelling has been argued to occur at any stage of individual development as long as the individual is exposed to influential role models (Newman & Newman, 2015). Indeed, scholars such as Manz and Sims (1981) have long argued that managers in organizations can elucidate the behavioural change of their subordinates through proper role modelling. SLT has also been relied upon by many entrepreneurship scholars as a conceptual framework explaining entrepreneurial behaviour of individuals. For example, scholars have illustrated that through social learning from parents and other influential individuals, the entrepreneurs'/founders' perception of risk-taking behaviour is altered (McCarthy, 2000). Observing the behaviours of entrepreneurial leaders in organizations has also been linked to employees' creative skills (Mehmood et al., 2021). Through observational learning, researchers have illustrated the critical role played by families and enterprising parents in establishing the legitimacy of entrepreneurship as a career, leading to conclusions that enterprising parents beget enterprising offspring. By observing entrepreneurial role models, especially parents, individuals then develop an entrepreneurial career intention and behaviour (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Wyrwich, Stuetzer, & Sternberg, 2016; Van Auken, Fry, & Stephens, 2006; Schröder& Schmitt-Rodermund, 2006). SLT also has a broad scope of application other than in the entrepreneurship field. For example, its application is noted in criminal behaviour (Akers, 1990), development psychology (Miller, 1989), as well as in management and leadership (Manz & Sims, 1980).

SLT is invaluable in the field of entrepreneurship because it helps shed light on a fundamental question among scholars of entrepreneurship; "why do some people and not others discover and exploit business opportunities" (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). According to Shane and Venkataraman (2000), prior knowledge aids the opportunity identification process. Therefore, observational learning from exposure to a family business may aid in choosing an entrepreneurial path and the entrepreneurial mode of entry thereof. Hence, its role in the current

study was to provide a rationale through which maternal and paternal business exposure influences the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry as conceptualised. In particular, the theory was used to inform the variables of parental business exposure (PBE) as exposure from businesses run by parents (mother or father) and the rationale of the next generation family members' choice after this exposure between joining the family business, corporate venturing on the FB or independently founding a new venture.

2.2.2 Social Cognitive Learning Theory (SCLT)

Bandura (1986) developed social cognitive learning theory as an extension of his earlier social learning theory. The phrase "social cognitive" denoted the acknowledgement of "social origins" in an individual's thought (Heffernan, 1988). His conceptualisation of how an individual learns and alters his behaviour is based on knowledge acquisition through the processing of information cognitively as opposed to a conditional model of response acquisition from observation and role modelling (Heffernan, 1988). Previous learning theories had proposed a one-way relationship; for example, the behaviourist theorist viewed that consequences influences behaviours in operant conditioning (Skinner, 1988) or observing role models influencing thinking in SLT (Bandura, 1971). In SCLT, the author posits a continuous interaction between the person, the environment and the behaviour in a reciprocal manner that elucidates the individual behaviour. This triadic model, however, does not allude to the equal contribution of each of the three factors in elucidating the individual behaviour but instead a reciprocal causation effect, as shown diagrammatically below (Heffernan, 1988). The influence of each of the three factors depends on the strength of each element at any given point in time.

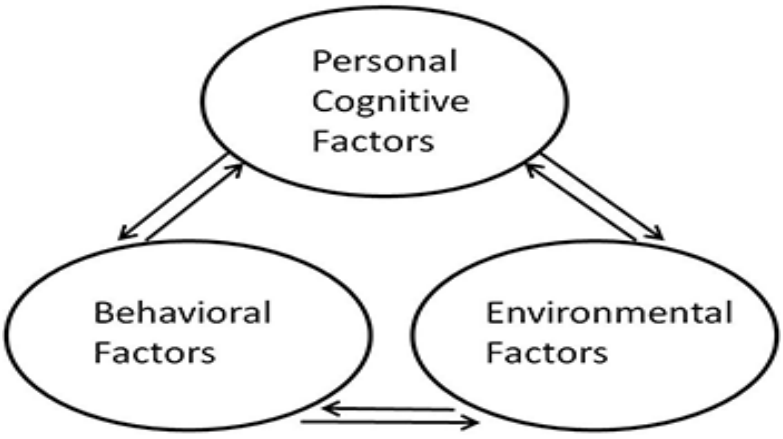

Figure 2. 1: Social Cognitive Learning Theory (SCLT) {Adopted from Bandura (1986)}

In figure 2.1, the author argues that interaction occurs between the individual and the environment and vice versa, influencing their behaviour, which in turn affects the environment. The author coined this effect as reciprocal determinism, the central concept of SCLT. It emphasizes the interaction of the individual with a set of learned experiences. This means that the individual brings their history in determining their behaviour. It also highlights the role of the environment that the individual is immersed in situationally or physically, and behaviour denotes the responses to the stimulus to achieve a given goal. His emphasis on reciprocal causation indicates that individuals have some discretion in determining their destinies and can set limits of self-direction (Heffernan, 1988). According to Bandura (1991), the triadic reciprocal relationships are influenced by three different cognitive factors and one external factor; The first is observational learning. In this case, just like in SLT, Bandura (1986) opined that an individual's behaviour is influenced by role modelling. This is a cognitive process whereby the individual observes the role models, evaluates this behaviour and then decides to imitate the behaviour. The second cognitive factor is outcome expectancy, which denotes our anticipation of a particular outcome and the value we place on that outcome. The higher the value the individual places on the outcome and more willing they are to imitate the behaviour. The third cognitive factor is self–efficacy, which underpins the individual's belief in their ability to be successful in the performance of the adopted behaviour. The fourth external, as opposed to cognitive factor, is reinforcement. It denotes aspects that increase the likelihood of adopting the behaviour, such as rewards and punishments.

The suggestions of SCLT corroborate arguments of entrepreneurship scholars on what informs a decision to become an entrepreneur and how the entrepreneur's behaviour is shaped through learning. For example, Minniti and Bygrave (2001) argue that entrepreneurial behaviour is shaped by learning that occurs out of the direct knowledge of the specific market that the entrepreneur is in and the general understanding of what it takes to be an entrepreneur- that is, an interaction of the personal cognitive factors and environmental factors in SCLT. The proponents of the contextual view of entrepreneurship have also argued that you cannot divorce the role of context in explaining entrepreneurial behaviour (Welter, 2011; Baker & Welter, 2020; Shepherd et al., 2019).

Empirically, SCLT has had a broad scope of application as a conceptual framework explaining various entrepreneurial behavioural aspects. Scholars have, for example, linked personal cognitive factors, such as intrinsic needs and environmental factors, such as industrial factors, as crucial factors influencing tourism entrepreneurship (Wang et al., 2019). Tantawy et al.

(2021) used Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy element as a critical central mechanism of personal agency and reported that creative self–efficacy informs the entrepreneurial intentions of university students. SCLT has inspired more scholarly work beyond the domain of entrepreneurship, particularly in social psychology and has been relied on by scholars as a theoretical framework for explaining various human phenomena such as setting goals and motivation, choice of careers, adoption of healthy lifestyle choices and job performance as cited by Mccormick and Martinko (2004).

In the current study, SCLT was used as the rationale explaining the link between PPER and the choice of EME among the next generation family members as well as the interaction effect of FBI. The next-generation family members acquire knowledge through processing information as they observe their enterprising parents' intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, as suggested by SCLT. Furthermore, involvement in running FB increases the likelihood of adopting a particular choice of EM. Thus, it shows the role of reinforcement through parental entrepreneurial rewards in informing the entrepreneurial entry path of the next-generation family members. The study also specifies the learning experiences in the family business (FBI) that form part of the next-generation family members' history, which then shapes their entrepreneurial entry choice.

2.2.3 Kinship Perspective Theory

The kinship perspective in entrepreneurship has its genesis in kinship anthropological theory, which examines the genealogical networks and social ties modelled on the relations of genealogical parenthood (Kronenfeld, 2012; Schneider, 1984) that underpin the functioning of human culture (Wilson, 2016). Its use in entrepreneurship studies as an analytical, theoretical framework for examining the relationships that exist between the family and the business was first suggested by Stewart (2003) as an essential lens to explore the moral values and norms ("the moral order") that underpins the families in business. His critique of family business studies, in particular, was that scholars were too focused on business aspects of the family and ignored the constraining and enabling effects of family relations (Stewart, 2010). Following this thought, scholars such as Peng, (2004) have illustrated the economic payoffs that emerge out of kinship networks in businesses using the context of China. The current study adopted a kinship perspective in entrepreneurship theoretical framework suggested by Verver and Koning (2018). This perspective develops an understanding of kinship as interpersonal connections in a continuum ranging from very close kinship ties, such as parents and siblings,

to distant kinship ties, such as ethnic groups that interact with each other through relatedness. The authors elaborate that these connections are not necessarily out of birth but also out of bonding. These authors elaborate on two essential aspects that underpin the value extracted from this connection in all the categories in the continuum, in growing and developing the family business; reciprocity and trust. Citing Sahlins, (1972) the authors elaborate reciprocity as occurring between people spatially and socially more close or distant with generalized reciprocity occurring between close kinship ties. They argue that this reciprocity is the most altruistic in nuclear kinship ties though the expectation of the reciprocity is indefinite – it is not stipulated by time, quality or quantity. In contrast, balanced reciprocity occurs among more distant kinship connections and may require an immediate exchange. Citing Leana and Van Buren (1999), the authors further elaborate the concept of trust among kinship ties as the "probability that an agent will behave in a way that is expected and hence requires a willingness to be vulnerable". The trust occurring at a micro-level ("personal trust) is the strongest sense of trust and is found within the nuclear kinship ties. The extended family kinship ties display what they termed as second degree personal trust because of a lack of a close intertwinement with the family business like the nuclear family. Through their qualitative study on the role of family and ethnicity among the Cambodian Chinese entrepreneurs, the scholars elaborate a continuum that consist of five categories of kinships among the Cambodian Chinese group as illustrated in the figure 2.2 below.

The nuclear family, the smallest and most related category, is crucial in gathering business resources. This included the relationship between parents and their children. They are also responsible for the management and running of the family business. In their explanation, the exchanges of the parents and their children in this kinship tie are based on the tacit understanding that the children help their parents in the running of the business when they are young, and the parents assure the going concern of the business for the children reciprocity they termed as "intergenerational generalized reciprocity". Regarding the trust between these two parties, Verver and Koning (2018) argue that both parties have a strong sense of confidence regarding the running of the family business.

The kinship among extended family members- the next category in the continuum, entails a connection between parents, children, grandparents and siblings. It is underpinned by blood and also marriage connection. The authors argue that the nuclear family may pool resources for beginning a business, but when necessary, they may be provided by extended family members. They argue that this can happen through awarding "big gifts" that entail material

resources, money, advice, labour and expertise. The current study hinges the moderation of exposure to self-employed grandparents in this argument. They may act as a reinforcing force for the provision of learning given by the parents while growing up, shaping their resolve to join their parents' (family) business. The next generation of family members – the grandchildren- also strongly trusts the ideas that emanate from them.

The theoretical perspective further extends the kinship connection to far relatives underpinned by more generalized reciprocity in giving smaller gifts than the extended families. The authors argue that these distant relatives –usually -abroad may provide entrepreneurial resources that may not be locally available. They may also offer business ideas and facilitate the supply chain, especially during export strategies. Moving on with the continuum is the kinship ties that are related through language or dialect, whose connection may be seen in prolonged relationships such as the provision of financial credit for the business and the facilitation of valuable networks. Finally, the last kinship ties are through an ethnic connection. The scholars observed that this connection facilitates trade routes for the business.

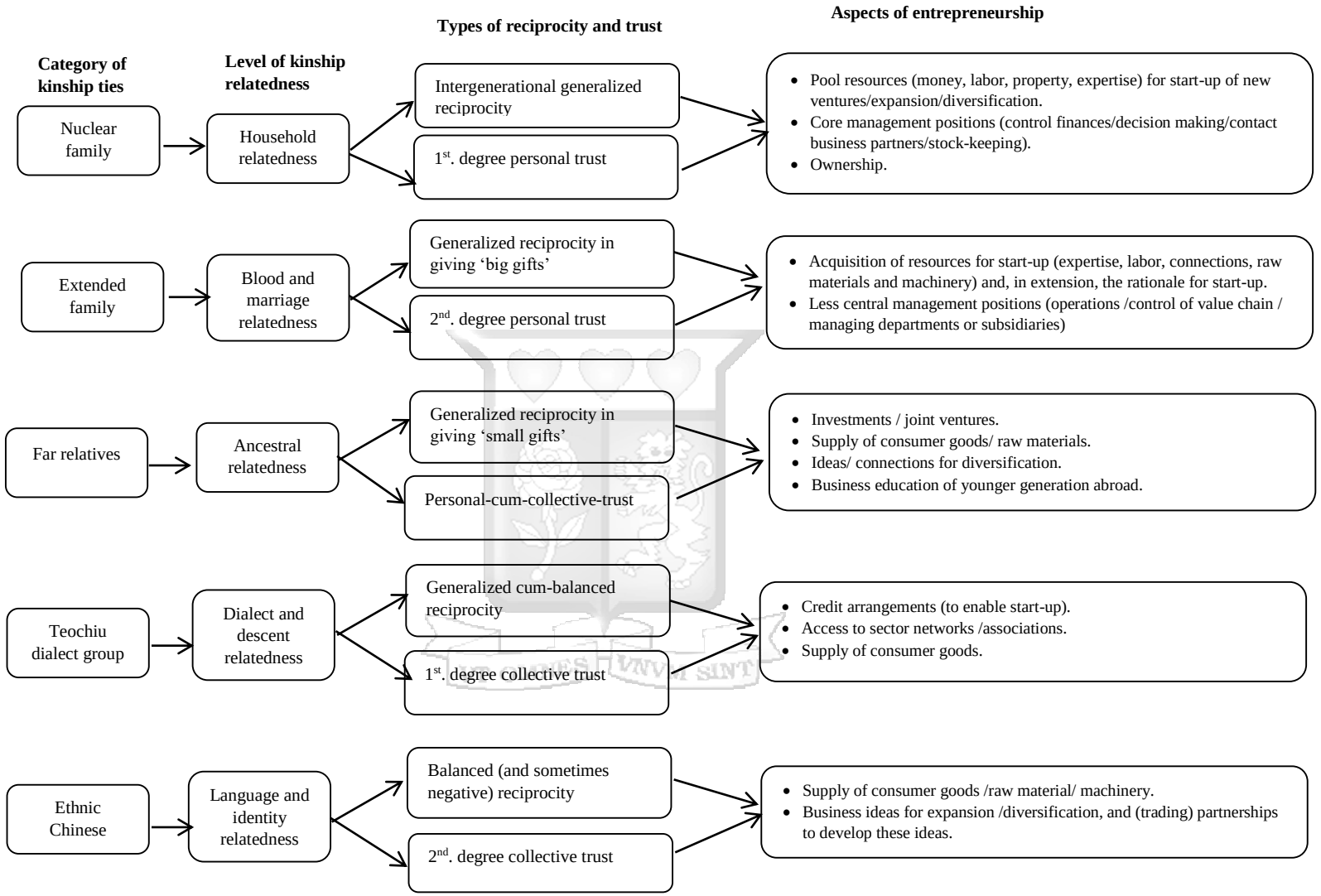

Figure 2. 2: Kinship Framework (Adopted from Verver and Koning, (2018)

Although relatively new, this framework of kinship approach in entrepreneurship has been applied to illustrate that trust obligations are more pronounced in spouse-based entrepreneurial teams than in sibling-based entrepreneurial teams (Bird & Zellweger, 2018). It has also been used to show that social ties impact corporate entrepreneurship in family businesses (Saleem et al., 2019). This study adopts this kinship perspective to illustrate the role of enterprising grandparents in the intergenerational succession process as a trustworthy source of advice on the entrepreneurial career choices of the next-generation family members and hence have a reinforcing role in the intergenerational succession in family businesses.

2.2.4 Push and Pull Theory Entrepreneurship Theory

Motivation is a critical driver in start-up behaviour and has been a fundamental subject in entrepreneurship (Murnieks et al., 2020; Shane et al., 2003). Mitchell and Daniels (2003) define motivation as a set of energetic forces originating within and beyond an individual to determine its form, direction and intensity. Entrepreneurship scholars acknowledge that an individual's decision to begin a business venture is driven by various motivational drivers from the macro-environment (Aldrich, 1999) and human motivational factors (Sinha, 1996). Shapero and Sokol (1982) were the first to use the terms push and pull concerning entrepreneurial motives, illustrating two polar positions that lead to entrepreneurial uptake. On the one hand, many individuals may want to start a business before they have conceived a concrete idea driven by the circumstances in their life. Shapero and Sokol (1982) posit that the change process in an individual life path generates forces that direct the individual toward an entrepreneurial path. These authors illustrate the case of political or religious refugees who may have little or no choice from their previous path and observe that such individuals are highly identified with the new business formation.

Similarly, the authors highlight job-related factors that may push the individual towards an entrepreneurial path, such as being fired from a job, being demoted or general dissatisfaction and boredom with a job, all of which may be motivators for start-up behaviour. However, in all these cases, the entrepreneur is being pushed into entrepreneurship for reasons that have nothing to do with entrepreneurial inclination or perception of a business idea. The other polar position described by Shapero & Sokol (1982) entails entrepreneurs who are "pulled" out of their current position by a perceived business opportunity with promises of a challenge and potential rewards, monetary or otherwise. These entrepreneurs feel more comfortable pursuing a business opportunity by gauging their entrepreneurial abilities and resources.

Amit and Muller (1995) illustrated that categorising entrepreneurs through their pull and push motives reduces the severity of adverse selection problems that emanate from the asymmetry of information on entrepreneurs' abilities and attributes needed to realize their business ideas. The authors thus recommend the push and pull framework to venture capitalists and corporate executives in evaluating the entrepreneurs who are likely to perform better in their ventures. The push and pull framework thus allows entrepreneurship scholars to offer guidance on assessing the quality of entrepreneurial ventures and policy guidance to enhance this quality. Reynolds et al. (2002) distinguished the opportunity and necessity entrepreneurial uptake in their global entrepreneurship monitor studies through this framework. According to these authors, the opportunity entrepreneurial uptake corresponds to a pull into entrepreneurship by a perceived business opportunity.

In contrast, the necessity entrepreneurial uptake is a push to entrepreneurship by circumstances. These two categories of entrepreneurial uptake have been relied upon to illustrate the quality of entrepreneurial uptake, and this has helped inform policy direction on the entrepreneurial uptake stimulation as well as the development of an enabling environment that needs to be encouraged to bolster innovation and value creation of a country (Fuentelsaz et al., 2019). Acs (2006) showed that necessity entrepreneurial uptake usually has a modest impact on economic development. Devece et al. (2016) illustrate the ineffectiveness of necessity-driven entrepreneurial uptake during a recession compared to the opportunity-driven. At a micro level, Block and Wagner (2010) use a German sample to illustrate that opportunity entrepreneurs earn significantly more than necessity entrepreneurs.

The critics of the push and pull framework in categorizing entrepreneurship argue that the framework is overly simplistic and ignores the variations of entrepreneurial uptake among necessity entrepreneurs (Dencker et al., 2021; Coffman & Sunny, 2020). Despite these criticisms, scholars have called for marrying this entrepreneurship theory with family business studies to extend the knowledge of family businesses. Therefore, this study sought to examine the motivation to venture of the next-generation family members through necessity versus opportunity entrepreneurial motivation drive anchored under the push and pull framework to extend the knowledge of the drivers of entrepreneurial uptake likely to occur after exposure to a family business.

2.2.5 Human Capital Theory

Human capital theory (HCT) was advanced by Becker (1964) as well as Mincer (1958). These authors first developed the approach to estimate employees' income distribution from their investment in human capital. According to Becker (1964), human capital is defined as skills and knowledge that individuals acquire through investment in schooling, on-the-job training and other types of experience. On his part, Mincer (1958) first discussed the concept of human capital as an explanation for income inequality. This was due to overwhelming evidence indicating that highly educated and skilled persons almost consistently earn more than others. Building on the work of Mincer (1958), Becker (1964) further argued that people attempt to receive compensation for their investment in human capital. Therefore, individuals try to maximise their economic benefits, given their human capital. Using the lens of human capital theory, entrepreneurship scholars have argued that entrepreneurs with heavy investment in human capital are likely to strive for more growth and profits in their businesses compared to those who have invested less in their human capital (Cassar, 2006). Scholars investigating nuanced antecedents of the choice of entrepreneurial entry mode have also attributed these idiosyncrasies to differences in human capital amongst entrepreneurs. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) have theoretically argued that prior knowledge increases the capability of discovering and exploiting business opportunities, while Westhead et al. (2005) found that this knowledge increases entrepreneurial alertness in opportunity identification. Next generation family members who have had prior knowledge either through education or formal employment may therefore yield opportunities outside the family business. Other scholars have argued that prior knowledge helps acquire financial and physical capital and hence can compensate for a lack of financial capital, a dominant challenge for many potential entrepreneurs (Brush et al., 2001). Meta-analytical studies of human capital in entrepreneurship research reveal that human capital is one of the core factors in entrepreneurial success (Unger et al., 2011).

HCT has a broad spectrum of applications other than entrepreneurship research. For example, human resource scholars report it as a useful mediator between human resource practices and the performance of employees (Raineri, 2017), while marketing scholars attribute human capital engagement in an organization to good branding (Dineen & Allen, 2016). Researchers have recommended that firms garner a resource-based competitive advantage in strategic management by managing their human capital (Hatch & Dyer, 2004).

The main criticism of HCT has been advanced by Spence (1973) through signalling theory. The author argues that education in itself does not result in increased human capital. Instead, it is a mechanism by which employees with superior innate abilities can signal those abilities to prospective employers and gain above-average wages. Despite this criticism, entrepreneurship scholars have argued that human capital is invaluable in entrepreneurial behaviour and may play an even more significant role in the future because of the constantly increasing knowledge-intensive activities in most work environments (Bosma et al., 2004). The current study used HCT to hinge the human capital variable in examining its moderating role in the relationship between PEE and the choice of EME among next-generation family members.

2.3 Hypotheses Development

In this section, a review of empirical studies is discussed. It is organized according to the research objectives of the study.

2.3.1 Parental Entrepreneurial Exposure

A review of the literature on the influence of prior entrepreneurial exposure in the entrepreneurial process reveals a high level of interest among entrepreneurial scholars in the influence of an enterprising family on the entrepreneurial behaviour of its members, especially the offspring (Zapkau et al., 2017). The majority of scholars have reported a positive influence of an enterprising family on the entrepreneurial behaviour of its members (Carr & Sequeira, 2007; Lindquist, Sol, & Van Praag, 2015; Jaskiewicz et al., 2015; Hoffmann, Junge, & Malchow-Møller, 2015). For example, Carr and Sequeira (2007) surveyed 308 individuals in the United States that belonged to various ethnic, technological and business networking groups. They reported a positive direct and indirect role of prior FBE on entrepreneurial intention. Similarly, Hoffmann et al. (2015) use a Danish register to investigate the direct effects of parental entrepreneurial role models on entrepreneurship propensity. A critical importance of distinguishing between maternal and paternal exposure in this study revealed that self-employment increased by 60% for individuals with a self-employed father. A distinction between maternal and paternal exposure may therefore give nuanced understanding of the role of PEE on entrepreneurial behaviour. Sørensen (2007) attributed entrepreneurial behaviour from prior FBE to exposure mechanisms that result in an accumulation of a stock of knowledge about an entrepreneurial career which aids in legitimizing entrepreneurship as a career choice. The author investigated the closure and exposure mechanisms effects on

individuals with self-employed parents using a Danish register and found support for exposure but not closure mechanisms. These authors' viewed exposure mechanisms as the individual's exposure to the parent's self-employment experiences that have a lasting effect on entrepreneurship as a career choice. In contrast, closure mechanisms underpin the ability of some parents to exploit their social positions to secure the offspring's status.

Similarly, Jaskiewicz et al. (2015) used an inductive inquiry from 21 wineries in their 11th generation in Germany. They reported that these exposure mechanisms occur when the previous owners share their entrepreneurial achievements and resilience with their family members. This motivates the next-generation family members to undertake strategic activities that foster transgenerational entrepreneurship. Moreover, this entrepreneurial behaviour from exposure mechanisms is not out of a selfish need to take advantage of family resources, as employment rates among adolescents with prior FBE are as high as the employment rate in the adulthood stage (Sorenson, 2007). In addition, Lindquist, Sol, and Van Praag (2015) reported that post-birth factors are responsible for this intergenerational influence. The authors examined Swedish data comprising adopted and biological children. They found support for transgenerational influence in entrepreneurship, which is twice as large from adoptive parents than from birth parents.

The transition of entrepreneurial behaviour also has interested scholars of family business owing to the low succession rates in family businesses (De Massis, Chua, & Chrisman, 2008). A study by Zellweger et al. (2011) in eight countries (Austria, Finland, Germany, Hungary, New Zealand, Norway and Switzerland) and eighty-seven Universities reported that innovation and independence motives significantly influenced an intention to start an independent business rather than succession intent among students with prior FBE. Similarly, a survey done by Sieger, Fueglistaller, & Zellweger (2016) comprising a sample of 122,000 students in 50 countries across 1000 Universities revealed that over 80% of all the students surveyed intended to become entrepreneurs upon completion of their studies and 33.6% of these students had a prior FBE. The authors further reported that, of the over 32,000 sampled students with prior family business, 38.2% intended to explore own founding mode of entry five years after completion of their studies, while less than 2% had an intention of succession entry mode. Further, the authors observed that this entrepreneurial intention depends on the performance of the parents' business relative to that of competitors.

While these studies have shed light on the likely transition behaviour of individuals with prior family business exposure, they have focussed on student populations and therefore measured the intention stage in the entrepreneurial process. These intentional studies have also relied on the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1991) to illustrate the norms, attitudes and behaviours that inform entrepreneurial intention. However, this theory cannot further explain entrepreneurial behaviour beyond the intentional stage. Researchers have, however, called for an examination of the actual entrepreneurial behaviour of individuals with prior FBE (Zapkau et al., 2017). By adopting the social learning theory, this research illustrates entrepreneurial behaviour beyond the intention stage by examining the role played by parental business exposure on the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry in a sample from a population of SME owners.

The study mentioned above by Zellweger et al. (2011) in 8 countries on the distinction between intentional employees, founders and family business successors attributed the high need for intentional founding rather than succession intent to constraining cultures found in the family business. These researchers argue that while exposure to the family business may offer a heightened perception of entrepreneurial self–efficacy, succession intent of students with prior FBE may seem unattractive because of concerns about the family legacy that may result in tolerance of underperforming lines of business in favour of family tradition. This speaks to various findings by family business scholars that reveal what March (1991) classified as exploitation rather than exploration strategy in many family businesses. For example, De Massis, Frattini, Pizzurno, and Cassia (2015) used a multiple case study approach to examine 2000 Australian family and non-family businesses. They reported that family firms have a risk-averse climate compared to a more risky approach in non–family firms, which is reflected in their preference for incremental versus radical innovation compared to non-family firms.

This attachment to a conservative culture has been attributed to family firms' poor performance compared to non-family firms (Gibb, 2006; Anderson & Reeb, 2003; Cucculelli & Micucci, 2008). Thus, scholars have a consensus that individuals with prior FBE prefer not to be constrained by family business cultures and may therefore opt for own founding rather than succession transition behaviour. However, in contexts where many obstacles mar independent own founding, independent own founding may not be the first choice for the next-generation family members. Scholars have reported that emerging and developing contexts are characterized by a lack of “market-supporting formal infrastructure”, and family ties

compensate for the lack of these facilitating institutions (Ge et al., 2019). Thus in such developing and emerging contexts, parental business exposure (PBE) may legitimize the family business as a better alternative than own founding mode of entry because of the perceived challenges of establishing an independent business in these contexts. The next-generation family members may therefore choose the FB route through inheritance or CV, as this may facilitate the lack of these market supporting infrastructure. This study, therefore, developed the first hypotheses from this analysis as follows;

H1a: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with a paternal business exposure entering into entrepreneurship under the choices of joining the FB or CV mode of entrepreneurial entry as opposed to independent own founding choice of EME.

H1b: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with a maternal business exposure entering into entrepreneurship under the choices of joining the FB or CV mode of entrepreneurial entry as opposed to independent own founding choice of EME.

2.3.2 Perceived Parental Entrepreneurial Rewards

Scholars have recommended the opening of the black box of family business exposure by examining the content of this family business rather than the presence or absence of it in the entrepreneurial process as a way of resolving the inconsistent findings of the effects of family business exposure on entrepreneurial intention (Zapkau et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018). Scholars have also called for examining other entrepreneurial behaviours of the next-generation family members to shed light on the problematic intergenerational succession process in the family business. This study heeds this call by examining the role of perceived parental entrepreneurial reward (PPER) on the choice of EME of the next-generation family members. Wang et al. (2018) have reported that through PPER, the offspring's entrepreneurial intention is formed. According to these authors, this perception is formed by observing intrinsic rewards (e.g., parents' sense of accomplishment) and extrinsic rewards (e.g. financial rewards). This speaks to the adolescents' studies which have suggested that their orientation toward work is highly influenced by exposure to conversations by family members regarding their work experiences (Porfeli et al., 2008). According to these authors, children view the work

experiences and work-related emotions adults share as possible work experiences and feelings they could experience when entering the workforce, thus shaping their work orientation. These scholars view this influence on occupational development as occurring from two angles; on the one hand, it is influenced by the opportunities available to the child while growing up. On the other hand, it is influenced by family processes, specifically socialization practices and parent relations. The family business exposes the offspring to both of these influences.

Career choices are not just shaped in childhood or adolescent years. Murphy and Lambrechts (2015) underscored this by interpreting 12 narratives of the next-generation family members who revealed that exposure to a family business influences family business career choices even in adulthood. This view is also shared by Minola et al. (2021) conceptual model that approaches corporate venturing (CV) in a family business using a developmental approach. These scholars view the motivation by the next-generation family members to engage in corporate venturing as endogenous to the family business and dependent on the growth of the firm as well as the age of the family business offspring. These authors argue that when the offspring are teenagers and young adults, they are reluctant learners from their families and may wish to assert autonomy in their career preferences. However, as they "leave the nest", they willingly embrace the CV mode of entry as a learning opportunity.

CV mode of entry by the next-generation family members has also been viewed as a tool for the growth of family firms. Scholars such as Zahra (2005) have recommended that family businesses tap into the skills and talents of their family members in venturing into new markets. The author conducted a study to investigate the correlates of risk-taking behaviour in the United States using a sample of 209 manufacturing firms and reported that family involvement promotes entrepreneurship and the long tenure of founders has the opposite effect. This tapping of skills of the next generation family members to nurture innovation and growth was illustrated in a case study done by Au, Chiang, Birtch, and Ding (2013) to investigate a unique case of a Hong-Kong SME that nurtures spin-offs by the second generation before luring them back into the family business to assume significant responsibilities of the firm. According to the authors, this SME provides seed capital for the family members' pitched business idea in a non-competitive area with the existing family business. Once the supported business becomes big enough, it merges with the family business.

These findings speak to the results by Zahra (2012) in a survey to investigate the effect of ownership on organizational learning and entrepreneurship in 741 manufacturing firms in the

United States. The author found out that the breadth and depth of organizational learning in family firms affect these firms' entrepreneurial pace. This breadth and speed is positively associated with family ownership. Cross-sectional survey studies that explicate the entrepreneurial mode of entry choice of the next-generation family members, capturing this fine-grained entry through CV are few or lacking despite its vital role as a vehicle for constantly renewing the firm's competitive advantage. Extensive research has shown that CV is critical in organisations for various reasons; it leads to innovation and growth (e.g., Covin & Miles, 2007; Powell et al.,1996); It improves business performance/success, aids in organizational learning and exploration strategies (Visser & Chiloane-Tsoka, 2014), it allows for a change-oriented approach to business undertakings and to leapfrog from declining lines of business (Covin & Miles, 2007). It is essential in family businesses because the business's survival from generation to generation depends on its ability to enter new markets or renew the existing company (Cruz & Nordqvist, 2012). This is important for the family business because it can spur transgenerational entrepreneurship, ensure the creation of transgenerational wealth, and warrant the persistent involvement of multiple generations in businesses (Habbershon & Pistrui, 2002; Marchisio et al., 2010).

The conversations and mentoring of the family members may lead to perceptions about an entrepreneurial career and the mode of entry of that career. They can perceive the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards their parents derived or are still deriving from running the family business. Even in instances where the extrinsic rewards may not be so clearly visible to the offspring, they can still perceive their parents to be satisfied and happy. The parents may be only enjoying the freedom of being their own bosses, but this could positively impact the offspring's entrepreneurial transition behaviour. This study, therefore, hypothesizes that:

H2a: Perceived intrinsic rewards influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members such that there is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER (intrinsic) and the joining of entrepreneurship through the family business entry choice or CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding.

H2b: Perceived extrinsic rewards influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members such that there is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER (extrinsic) and the joining of entrepreneurship through the family

business entry choice or CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding.

2.3.3 Exposure to Self-employed Grandparents

Much literature on the role of exposure to family businesses on the entrepreneurial behaviour of next-generation family members has focused on the role of parental business exposure (Zapkau et al., 2017). The role played by grandparents has received little attention despite the significant role in the development and behaviour of their grandchildren across all cultures (Chan & Boliver, 2013; Dunifon, 2013; Tyszkowa, 2017). In the United Kingdom, scholars have illustrated that grandparents give considerable informal care to their adolescent grandchildren (Tan et al., 2010). Tan et al. (2010) surveyed 1478 adolescents and concluded that there is a need to acknowledge the crucial role of grandparents as family supporters because they fill in the parenting role of hardworking parents. In the United States, an estimated one in ten grandparents contributes to the child caregiving of their grandchildren (Fuller-Thomson et al., 1997). Their role is more manifested in the developing and emerging context because extended households are a common practice, and the role of grandparents is crucial in the upbringing of their children (Xu & Chi, 2018). They are regarded as a source of wisdom and credible information to their grandchildren when making crucial decisions, especially in their adolescent years (Griggs et al., 2010). Furthermore, the grandparents–grandchildren relationship seems to have positive psychological and health benefits for both generations (Ruiz & Silverstein, 2007). This relationship also enhances the grandchild's resilience and ability to survive difficult situations (Beam et al., 2002).

Studies have also shown that grandparents influence the economic status of their children through knowledge transfer, values and family ethos gained through their lifelong experiences (Portes et al., 2009). Their influence has been reported to persist after the grandchildren become adults by influencing their occupational position. This was illustrated in a study by Zhang and Li (2019). They found out that the effects of grandparents on their grandchildren's occupation aspiration persist from adolescence to adulthood even after controlling for parents' socio-economic–cultural resources. However, the influence of self-employed grandparents on the choice of entrepreneurship is underexplored (Laspita et al., 2012). This study suggests that self-employed grandparents significantly reinforce the choice of a family business route of EME entry either through joining the FB (an inheritance choice) or through CV in the family business. The study, therefore, hypothesizes that:

H3: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who did not.

H4: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV and this likelihood is higher for the next generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who did not.

2.3.4 Motivation to Venture

Entrepreneurship theory categorizes types of entrepreneurship through motivation to venture under the dichotomy of necessity-driven versus opportunity-driven entrepreneurship (Jafari-Sadeghi, 2020; Block et al., 2015; Reynolds et al., 2005). Scholars have primarily used the push and pull framework to categorize this dichotomy whereby necessity entrepreneurial uptake occurs when an individual is pushed into entrepreneurship due to a lack of a job or an unsatisfactory source of employment, while opportunity entrepreneurs begin their businesses by being pulled by a perceived business opportunity (Reynolds et al., 2005; Uhlaner & Thurik, 2010). Recent conceptual models have recommended a needs-based view of the necessity/opportunity dichotomy in entrepreneurship that results in entrepreneurial motivations that lie on a continuum (Dencker et al., 2021) such that, through the lens of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Arlow, 1955), necessity entrepreneurs correspond to the first two needs of the hierarchy (i.e. basic and safety needs) while opportunity entrepreneurs correspond to the other higher level needs in Maslow's hierarchy. According to Dencker et al. (2021), necessity entrepreneurship occurs as a response to the absence of supportive institutional levers in an economy and may manifest itself in various varieties corresponding to the needs in the Maslow hierarchy. A clear distinction thus does exist between necessity motivated entrepreneurs and opportunity motivated entrepreneurs. Scholars have, for example, examined individual circumstances and backgrounds as likely determinants of motives of necessity versus opportunity entrepreneurs (Nasiri & Hamelin, 2018). A need for independence informs the pursuit of opportunity-based entrepreneurship (Aparicio et al., 2016). Higher levels of human capital also characterize opportunity entrepreneurs as they tend to be more educated than necessity entrepreneurs (Block & Sandner, 2009). On the other hand, necessity-driven entrepreneurial uptake occurs due to factors such as involuntary job loss and scarcity of white-collar jobs (Reynolds 2002), a prevalent phenomenon in developing contexts (Mota et al., 2019).

Both necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship explains the behaviour of total entrepreneur activity in a country (Martínez-Rodriguez et al., 2020) and are copresent in all economies (Block & Wagner, 2010; Nikolova, 2019), but necessity entrepreneurial uptake is more prevalent in developing economies (Wierenga, 2020). The quality of entrepreneurial ventures that result from these two motives differ. Opportunity entrepreneurial uptake provides more job opportunities in developing and emerging economies (Edoho, 2016). It is also attributed to more exports, new industries, or market niches (Reynolds et al., 2005). This entrepreneurial uptake correlates highly with technology-based, high-growth firms (Reynolds et al., 2005). On their part, necessity entrepreneurs begin their businesses due to a lack of alternative employment options for a source of income (Peña et al., 2016). The main drive of this type of business uptake is pure economic motivation (Van der Zwan & Hessels, 2013). They may also be motivated by occupational safety concerns (Tyszka et al., 2011) or their own professional or personal dissatisfaction (Noorderhaven et al., 2004), such as the absence of prospects in their professional life (Orhan & Scott, 2001). In SSA, scholars indicate that the necessity entrepreneurial uptake results in few employment opportunities in most cases, not more than five employees (Khavul et al., 2009).

Studies on the social antecedents of opportunity and/or necessity entrepreneurship are few; even so, the findings are mixed and depend on the study's context. For example, a comparative study of China and India reported a positive and significant effect of "knowing an entrepreneur" on both necessity and opportunity entrepreneurial uptake in China. At the same time, in the case of India, a higher social capital influenced opportunity and not the necessity entrepreneurship (Sahasranamam & Sud, 2016). Wagner (2005), on his part, observed that family role models facilitate opportunity entrepreneurial uptake more than necessity entrepreneurial uptake. Orhan and Scott (2001) argue that a need for a flexible job due to family responsibilities may push women towards entrepreneurship (necessity entrepreneurial uptake). Scholars also agree that necessity entrepreneurship is motivated by a need to increase income/earnings (Dawson & Henley, 2012; Block & Wagner, 2010), particularly in developing countries in SSA where the choice between employment and entrepreneurship is curtailed by few and less remunerative employment opportunities that drive this "necessity driven survival" entrepreneurial uptake (Williams & Gurtoo, 2012; Ratten & Jones, 2018). Evidence also suggests that in developing countries, individuals, in addition to holding low-income part-time jobs, become necessity entrepreneurs in order to supplement their income (Gautam & Andersen, 2016; Mahama & Maharjan, 2017). Through the same lens, growing up in a family

business exposes the next-generation to the vision, intention and behaviour of the family business (Porfírio et al., 2020), which entails not only the provision of the next-generation employment opportunities but also the safeguarding of the socio-emotional wealth (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2011). Indeed the next-generation family members may feel the obligation and the pressure from the expectations of perpetuating the family business and tradition – a necessity entrepreneurship categorization (Bhola et al., 2006) and hence may opt to join the family business as opposed to founding an independent business. The need to employ the next-generation may be more vivid in developing contexts with high levels of unemployment. Thus motivation to venture may play a role in the entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family members. For example, joining the family business may be viewed by next-generation as a better alternative due to, on one hand, few options of formal and better remunerative employment and on the other hand, the challenges of independent founding due to a lack of an enabling environment for cushioning the liability of newness of start-ups (Yang & Aldrich, 2017). In this case the choice of joining the family business may be viewed as providing a better and higher remunerative opportunity because the next-generation family member can leverage on existing networks and reputation of the established family business to navigate these hostile environments. This study therefore hypothesised that:

H5: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who are motivated by a necessity as opposed to those motivated by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive.

H6: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who are motivated by a necessity as opposed to those motived by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive.

2.3.5 Family Business Involvement

Learning through exposure- vicarious learning- from parental role models is not the only way the family business offspring learns. The family business offspring may also learn through direct means by being involved in the day-to-day happenings and transactions of the family business (Wang et al., 2018). Murphy and Lambrechts (2015) argue that this involvement mainly occurs naturally as the family business offspring is expected to assist in the day-to-day running of the business in their role as family members. Such exposure - "learning by doing"-

instils the family business's offspring with human capital and deep tacit knowledge about the family business concerning its processes, competitors, and customers (Dyer, 1986). In a "forced transgenerational" case study in South Africa where the offspring forced the parent out of the family business, Vardaman and Montague-Mfuni (2021) illustrated that such an involvement allowed the family business offspring to develop a keen eye for business opportunities and decision-making skills. Indeed, Handler (1990) warns that if the offspring of the family business is too involved in the family business, they may easily compromise their personal goals.

This kind of exposure, however, may also expose the challenges associated with running a business. Indeed entrepreneurial intentional studies of University students with family business exposure have revealed what scholars have viewed as a dark side of exposure to family businesses (Gimenez-Jimenez et al., 2020). Mungai and Velamuri (2011), for example, reported that the effect of family business exposure on the propensity to entrepreneurship is reduced by parental failure in entrepreneurship. In a sample of 21,895 individuals from 33 countries, Criaco et al. (2017) also reported that FBE may inhibit entrepreneurial intention. These scholars argued that FBE may, on the one hand, lead to a negative view of entrepreneurship as a career if the offspring is exposed to an unsuccessful business or conversely lead to the development of feelings of inferiority if the exposure is to a very successful family business. While the family business exposure role in informing entrepreneurial behaviour is well-developed in the literature, the transmission mechanism is still under-explored. Therefore the enlivened entrepreneurial spirit through family business exposure is strengthened by family business involvement such that the more involved in the family business the offspring is, the more likely they are to transition to a more independent choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry such as CV in the family business that may still allow them to take advantage of the network and resources in the FB to navigate the institutional environment but which allows for some independence in developing their entrepreneurial ideas. This study, therefore, hypothesized that:

H7: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing CV choice of EME and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who were involved in the family business while growing up than those who were not.

H8: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of CV in the family business and this likelihood is higher for the next generation family members who were involved in the family business while growing up than those who were not.

2.3.6 Formal Employment

By the point they establish their firms, most entrepreneurs usually will have worked for established organizations (Freeman, 1986). Scholars estimate that 9 out of 10 entrepreneurs will have worked for an established organization before launching a new venture (Sørensen & Fassiotto, 2011). Described as prior knowledge (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), a review of scholarship on the role of this human capital indicates its crucial role in the entrepreneurial process (Marvel et al., 2016). Empirical evidence examining the role of human capital in entrepreneurship has focused on venture outcomes in the post-launch phase of entrepreneurship (Grichnik et al., 2014; Cassar, 2014; Zhang, Duysters, & Cloodt, 2014; Block, Thurik, Van der Zwan, & Walter, 2013; Eddleston, Kellermanns, & Zellweger, 2012; Kotha & George, 2012; Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Cetindamar, Gupta, Karadeniz, & Egrican, 2012; Alvarez & Barney, 2007). For example, Zhang et al. (2014) used a sample of 494 students from 10 Universities in China to investigate the effect of human capital on entrepreneurial intention. These authors use entrepreneurial education as a measure of human capital and report a significant positive impact of entrepreneurial education on entrepreneurial intention. Other scholars have noted the crucial role of human capital in conceptualizing business opportunities (Marvel, 2013), in the exploitation of these opportunities through financial resources acquisition (Bruns et al., 2008) and in the accumulation of new knowledge that brings advantages to the newly founded businesses (Bradley et al., 2012). Grichnik et al. (2014) investigated the genesis of bootstrapping behaviour among entrepreneurs. These authors used a sample of 298 nascent entrepreneurs from Germany and Australia. They reported that an individual's human capital measured based on the duration of the socialization process in a specific work context, determines the extent of bootstrapping behaviour.

Various arguments exist in literature on why human capital development through exposure to established organizations is especially vital in the entrepreneurial process (Nanda & Sørensen, 2010; Block et al., 2013; Field et al., 2016). For example, according to Sørensen and Sharkey (2014), established organizations create an environment where people may want to join self-employment. The authors argue that structures of inequality coupled with skills and capabilities

specific to the firm rather than more generally valuable propel individuals to an entrepreneurial career. Furthermore, when exposed to entrepreneurial co-workers, the likelihood of entrepreneurial opportunity exploitation increases (Nanda & Sørensen, 2010).

The combination of external experience, for example, from an organization outside the family firm with the family firm-specific experience has an underexplored influence on the perception of continuance commitment of the family business "successor" as it affects the economic desirability of alternative self-employment options (Pittino et al., 2018). Furthermore, regardless of their feelings towards the family business, later-generation members may or may not have career interests that align with opportunities available within their family firms (Dawson et al., 2015). Therefore, exposure to organisations outside of the FB may reduce the likelihood of a family business entrepreneurial entry route through the inheritance or CV in the FB. This study, therefore, hypothesised that;

H9: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME and this likelihood is lower for the next-generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.

H10: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV and this likelihood is lower for the next-generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.

2.4 Knowledge Gaps

The above literature review has revealed several conceptual, theoretical, empirical and contextual knowledge gaps that this study has enhanced. This section summarises the knowledge gaps identified that resulted in developing a conceptual framework figure 2.3.

Conceptually, some studies have not distinguished prior entrepreneurial exposure from family and non-family organizations and instead have investigated a combined effect of previous entrepreneurial exposure on entrepreneurial behaviour. Most scholarship has also focused on the entrepreneurial intention construct that captures the first stage in the entrepreneurial process when the individual gets inclined towards an entrepreneurial career (Zapkau et al., 2017). Defined as an individual's commitment to start an entrepreneurial venture in future (Krueger, 1993), some scholars have argued that entrepreneurial intention may not be a true reflection of

actual entrepreneurial behaviour with a search for factors that close the intention-action gap. For example, some empirical evidence suggests that the translation of entrepreneurial intention into actual behaviour can be impeded or facilitated by situational and individual-level factors (Bogatyreva et al., 2019). This study enhanced the knowledge of the role of prior family business exposure in the entrepreneurial process by first investigating the influence of parental entrepreneurial exposure and perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards on the choice of EME of the next-generation family business members in the SME sector. The study also examined the role of other under-explored constructs; exposure to enterprising grandparents, family business involvement of the offspring while growing up, necessity/opportunity motivation dichotomy and formal employment in the parental entrepreneurial exposure – EME link.

Studies on the influence of prior family business exposure on entrepreneurial behaviour, particularly at the intention stage, have also yielded mixed findings. Some scholars reported positive relationships, others had no connections, and others had negative relationships. This suggests a need to strengthen the theoretical reasoning of SLT and SCLT in explaining the relationship between FBE and entrepreneurial behaviour by exploring contingent factors that may be responsible for strengthening or weakening this relationship. This study enhanced this theoretical knowledge by developing and testing the role of four moderator variables in the relationship between PEE and EME.

The study examined the role of parental entrepreneurial exposure in the entrepreneurial process in Kenya, a developing country in East Africa. Small family businesses dominate this context, and therefore in the dominant conceptualisation of the entrepreneurial mode of entry in literature as either succession mode or independent own founding mode, succession mode of entry may not be a ready option for smaller family businesses because, first, they may not have an objective of establishing entrepreneurial legacies – common in large family businesses. Second, this option may not be available to all family members. This study enhanced the contribution of small family businesses in the entrepreneurial process by conceptualising the entrepreneurial mode of entry as either joining the family business, corporate venturing into the FB or independent own founding. The geographical context where the study is based is also marred by many obstacles in doing business underpinned by a lack of market-supporting formal structures. Therefore, the choice of independent own founding may be contingent on some of these unique contextual factors. The study thus illustrates the role played by these family businesses in the entrepreneurial process of the next-generation family members by

compensating for the lack of facilitating institutions in developing countries. Scholars have also argued that family businesses in East Africa are unique and may not fit the definition of the family business in most developed countries because, in East Africa, family businesses constitute kinship ties and extended family households (Khavul et al., 2009). Indeed, scholars have called for the contribution of family business research from such contexts. This study responds to this call by examining the role of exposure to self- employed grandparents on the relationship between PEE and EME. These knowledge gaps then lead to the conceptual framework shown in Fig 2.3.

2.5 Conceptual Framework

Following the review and establishment of the gaps in the literature in the preceding sections, the researcher developed the following conceptual framework- figure 2.3- which depicts the conceptualisation of the study variables. These variables were parental entrepreneurial exposure (captured as paternal and maternal business exposure as well as perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards), exposure to self- employed grandparents, necessity/opportunity motivation drive, formal employment outside of the FB and entrepreneurial mode of entry. From these, the researcher developed the hypotheses for the study.

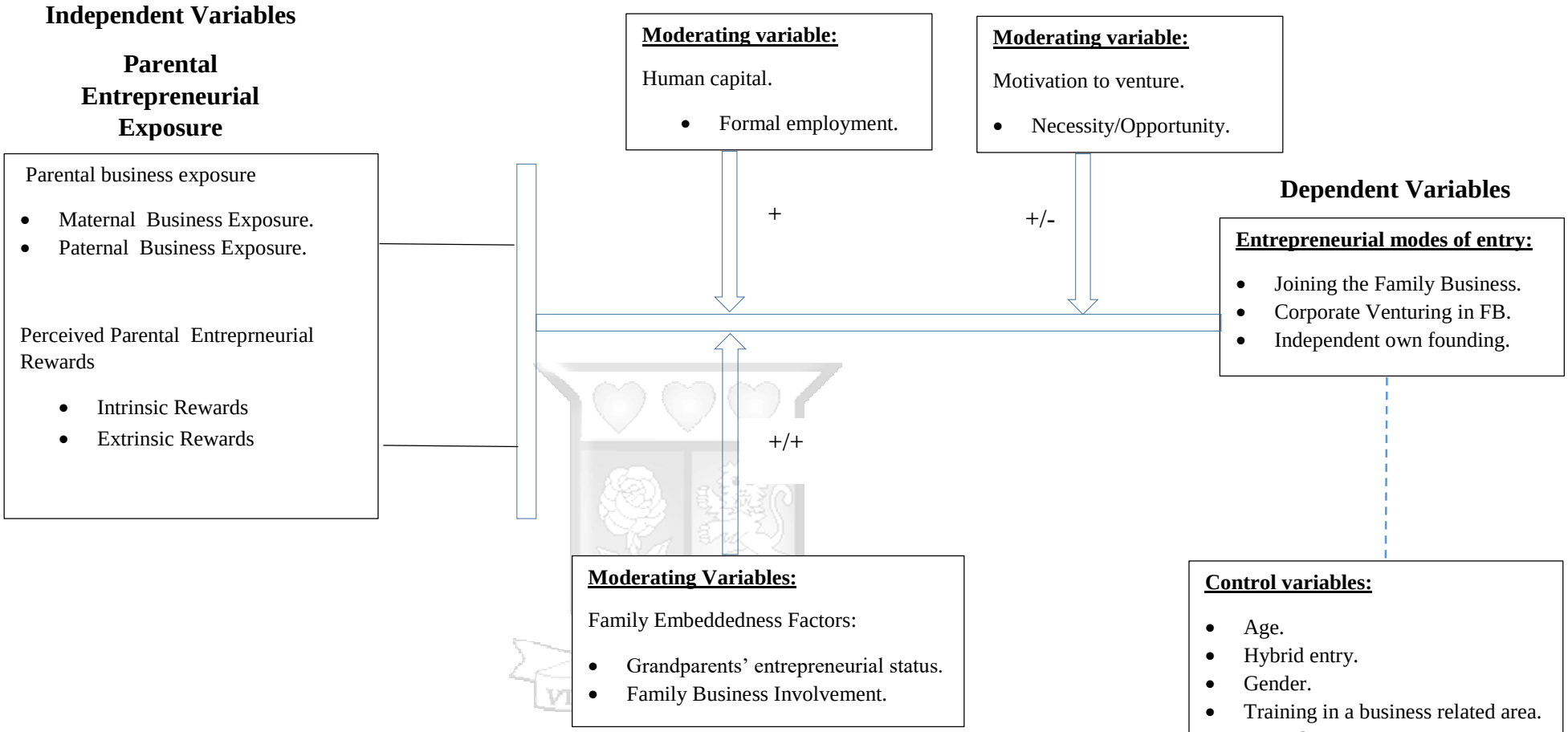

Figure 2. 3: Conceptual Framework

(Source; Author, 2022)

Key

+ = positive moderation

- = negative moderation

2.5.1 Independent Variables

Vicarious learning has been attributed to a parental entrepreneurial status that exposes the offspring to learning by observation as the parents run the business. The researcher captured this effect in two ways; first, through the “parental business exposure”, which in line with previous studies' conceptualisation (Chlosta et al., 2012), was captured using a binary variable to indicate whether the SME owners were exposed to parental self-employment. Exposure to paternal self-employment was coded as 1 if the respondent's father was self-employed or has ever been self-employed and 0 otherwise. Similarly, exposure to maternal self-employment was coded as 1 if the respondent's mother was self-employed or has ever been self-employed and zero otherwise.

Secondly, in line with recent recommendations to open the black box of family business exposure, this study examined the effects of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER) on the next generation family members’ choice of EME. The researcher captured the PPER construct through the scale developed by Neblett and Cortina (2006). Wang et al. (2018) have also used this scale to examine the effects of family business exposure on the entrepreneurial intention of university students with FBE. This scale assessed an individual's reflected appraisal of their parents' intrinsic and extrinsic rewards while running the family business. Intrinsic rewards had questions like "starting a business gave my parents a good feeling about themselves", while extrinsic rewards had questions like "starting a business provided my parents with an income that satisfied them. These two constructs formed the independent variables of the study.

2.5.2 Moderator Variables

This study examined the role played by four moderator variables in the relationship between PEE and EME. These were; the role of exposure to self- employed grandparents, motivation to venture captured through necessity/opportunity dichotomy, family business involvement (FBI) and formal employment.

In line with previous conceptualization (Laspita et al., 2012), exposure to self–employed grandparents was taken to mean the entrepreneurial status of parents' own parents. It was a dummy variable that took the value of 1 if the answer to the question “does your grandparent own or have ever owned a business” is yes, 0 otherwise. Similarly, motivation to venture was

a dichotomous variable that captured entrepreneurial entry through the pull and push factors, i.e. necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship. For each category, it took a dummy variable of 1 if the answer to the question “I started/joined my business to earn a decent income for survival”, a proxy for necessity entrepreneurship, is yes and 0 otherwise. Similarly, a dummy variable that took the value of 1 if the answer to the question “I started/ joined my main business to fill an open opportunity in the market” a proxy for opportunity-motivated entrepreneurship is yes and 0 otherwise.

Family business involvement measured the degree to which an individual was involved in the day-to-day running of the family business while growing up. It was evaluated based on a scale developed by Van Auken, Stephens, et al. (2006a). Sample questions included; "my family used to take me to work with them" and "my family used to teach me about managing a business". Finally, formal employment was taken as the period of exposure to other organizations other than the FB through formal work. It was captured as a dummy variable that took the value of 1 if the answer to the question “how many years of work experience outside of your family business did you have before starting your business, was less than 1 year, a value of 2 if the answer was 1-3 years and a value of 3 if the answer was more than 3 years.

2.5.3 Control Variables

Several control variables were included in the study. First, the business owner's age was included for several reasons: Previous studies have shown that the propensity towards an entrepreneurial career is more pronounced when an individual is a young adult (Mungai & Velamuri, 2011). Further, the opportunity to engage in self-employment increases with age (Lee & Vouchilas, 2016). Age also biases the entrepreneurial type such that the propensity for opportunity versus necessity has been reported to rise with an individual’s age (Zhang & Acs, 2018). The researcher also included the effects of gender (1 male 0: female). Scholars have reported that exposure to role models enhances the intention to choose an entrepreneurial career more in women than in men (Kickul et al., 2008). Furthermore, entrepreneurial motivation studies have reported that the push and pull motivation to venture is influenced by gender. in addition, the propensity for necessity entrepreneurship is higher in women than men as they look for a flexible employment alternative to accommodate family life (Orhan & Scott, 2001).

The level of education and training has also been shown to bias not only entrepreneurial career decisions but the mode of entrepreneurial entry (Parker & Van Praag, 2012). Prior knowledge has also been critical in opportunity realization and exploitation (Marvel et al., 2016). The

researcher, therefore, included dummy variables to capture the highest education attainment that took the value of 1 if the answer to the question “what is your highest level of education?” is university education and 0 otherwise. In the same vein, the researcher included the duration of time that the respondent has run their businesses as a dummy variable that took the value of 1 if the entrepreneur has run their business for more than three years and zero otherwise. Previous studies have reported that entrepreneurial parents increase the odds of running a business for over three years (Bhola et al., 2006).

A hybrid entrepreneurial mode of entry has also become a prevalent mode of entrepreneurial entry, especially in areas of underemployment. It has been defined as a “parallel business career” alongside full-time employment (Demir et al., 2020). Therefore, the researcher included a dummy variable to capture if the business owner was employed outside of their self-employed activity simultaneously that takes the value of 1 if the answer to the question “are you employed with a company outside of your self-employed activity? " was yes and 0 otherwise. The researcher further examined the marital status of the respondents by asking whether they lived with a partner or not. Previous studies have reported that most individuals who opt for self-employment are either married or engaged in a partnership (Woronkowicz & Noonan, 2019). Marital status was coded as a dummy variable with a value of 1 if yes and 0 otherwise.

2.5.4 Dependent Variables

Entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME) was the dependent variable that depicts the choice of entrepreneurial entry for the-next generation family members between joining the family business, corporate venturing in the family business or independent own founding. Entrepreneurial mode of entry took dummy variables for each category between joining in the parent’s business, CV and independent own founding. It, therefore, takes a value of 1 if the answer to the question “I became an entrepreneur by joining my parent’s business” is yes, 0 otherwise, a dummy variable that took the value of 1 when the next-generation business owner entered into an entrepreneurship career by starting a line of businesses whose origin is in the family businesses, 0 otherwise and finally a dummy variable that took the value of 1 1 if the answer to the question “I became an entrepreneur by founding an independent business from my parents” is yes, 0 otherwise. According to previous studies' conceptualization, these are the approximations of the entrepreneurial mode of entry (Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Bastié et al., 2013; Guerrero & Peña-Legazkue, 2013).

2.6 Research Hypotheses

Several hypotheses were developed from the study variables illustrated in the conceptual framework (Fig 2.3). These are recaptured below:

1. H1a: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with a paternal business exposure entering into entrepreneurship under the choices of joining the FB or CV mode of entrepreneurial entry as opposed to independent own founding choice of EME.
2. H1b: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with a maternal business exposure entering into entrepreneurship under the choices of joining the FB or CV mode of entrepreneurial entry as opposed to independent own founding choice of EME.
3. H2a: Perceived intrinsic rewards influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members such that there is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER (intrinsic) and the joining of entrepreneurship through the family business entry choice or CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding.
4. H2b: Perceived extrinsic rewards influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members such that, there is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER (extrinsic) and the joining of entrepreneurship through the family business entry choice or CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding.
5. H3: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who did not.
6. H4: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who did not.
7. H5: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next- generation family members who are motivated by a necessity as opposed to those motivated by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive.
8. H6: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is

higher for the next-generation family members who are motivated by a necessity as opposed to those motived by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive.

9. H7: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choices of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who were involved in the family business while growing up than those who were not.
10. H8: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of CV or joining the FB categories of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next generation family members who were involved in the family business while growing up than those who were not.
11. H9: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choices of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is lower for the next-generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.
12. H10: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV choices of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is lower for the next generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the theoretical framework that formed the bases of the conceptualisation of the study variables. The chapter has further explored the empirical literature underpinning the study variables, summarised the knowledge gaps, presented a conceptual model that depicts the relationship among the study variables, and discussed the operationalization of these study variables. The chapter has concluded by re-capturing the study hypotheses formulated for the study. The study aimed to examine the relationship between parental entrepreneurial exposure (PEE) on the entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family members (EME). PEE was decomposed using two constructs, parental business exposure effect on EME (both paternal and maternal business exposure were captured) and through PPER construct, where both perceived parental intrinsic rewards and perceived parental extrinsic rewards effects were examined on the choice of EME of the next generation family members. Further, the study sought to investigate several factors' roles in the relationship between PEE and EME. These were; exposure to self- employed grandparents,

motivation to venture through necessity versus opportunity-driven dichotomy, the role of family business involvement while growing up, and the effects of exposure to formal employment outside of the family business.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the employed research design and the research methodology. It begins with a discussion of the adopted research philosophy followed by research design, population and sampling and data collection methods. It also summarizes the data analysis procedures, including the analytical techniques employed and discusses the ethical considerations upheld throughout the research process.

3.2 Research Philosophy

The methods used to answer the research questions underpinning a research study are determined by the research philosophy adopted (Creswell, Plano, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). In other words, the methods a researcher assumes to answer the research questions in a particular study are influenced by the researcher's philosophical scientific orientation (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Holden and Lynch (2004) explain that research philosophy is about a researcher's belief in data gathering on a phenomenon, its analysis and its use. Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) further added that the researcher must make assumptions about the study's ontology, epistemology and methodology. These authors explain the term ontology as that angle of research dealing with the nature of reality and help researchers to recognise how certain they can be about the existence and nature of the objects of the study in question. Burrell and Morgan (1979) further assert that ontology predicates all other assumptions a researcher make; hence, it is viewed as the cornerstone of all other assumptions. The next section explains the ontological and epistemological approaches adopted in this study.

3.2.1 Ontological Approach

Two fundamental beliefs considered under ontology are objectivism and subjectivism (Diesing, 1966; Mouzelis, 2000). According to Diesing (1966), in objectivism, the researcher believes that one truth exists and does not change. These authors also explain that the role of the researcher is to investigate this truth using objective rather than subjective measures. The knowledge about the phenomena can only be uncovered through measurement and sense observation without the personal view of human actors. Thus the choice of the EME by the next generation can be discovered through the determination of various relationships, which can be measured without the subjective influence of the next-generation family members.

Under subjectivism, multiple realities exist, and the truth is shaped by context (Diesing, 1966). Chandler and Lyon (2001) assert that, under subjectivism, reality evolves and changes depending on the individual's experiences and social phenomena under view and is created from social actors' perceptions and consequent actions. This is a continuous process in that, through interaction, these social phenomena are in a constant state of revision (Creswell et al., 2003). Thus under this approach, the factors influencing the choice of EME of the next-generation family members would be determined by the shared beliefs and influences of individual and collective cultures that exist in the individual minds of the next-generation family members. This study adopted an objectivism ontological stance.

3.2.2 Epistemological Approach

Epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge (Saunders et al., 2009) as well as what constitutes acceptable, valid and legitimate knowledge (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). It underpins the limits of inquiry, its nature, and its validity (Rosenau, 1991). Rosenau (1991) asserts that differing methods adopted by various researchers are informed by the research philosophies adopted. This view is shared by several other scholars, such as Creswell et al. (2003), Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler (2008) and Bell, Bryman, and Harley (2018). According to Saunders et al. (2009), the various research philosophies that guide particular study methods and specific disciplines include positivism, interpretivism, constructivism, realism and pragmatism. The authors opine that social science research is commonly guided by three epistemological orientations; positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. These are further elaborated on in the below paragraphs.

The interpretivism approach emphasizes that it is only through interaction with the phenomena of study that truth is established (Saunders et al., 2009). Interaction is deemed necessary to generate an in-depth knowledge of the phenomenon under study. The potential influence of the researcher on what is being studied is acknowledged; it's sometimes avoided or sometimes embraced (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Ontologically, this approach uses subjectivism because the truth is shaped by context; hence, multiple realities exist as reality evolves and changes depending on people's experiences (Saunders et al., 2009).

Pragmatism epistemology, on its part, emphasizes the use of more than one research approach to answer the question under inquiry, as one approach is not enough to answer the nature of the investigation given multiple views that may exist on the subject (Saunders et al., 2009). On the

other hand, constructionism is based on cognitive psychology. It is an orientation that holds the view that the way the human mind processes the environment shapes reality; hence, reality can be subjective (Saunders, 2011). Realism epistemology judges truth at the sensory level, meaning that what the senses show us as reality is the truth (Saunders et al., 2009). Objects are viewed as being independent of the human mind.

Positivism epistemology views reality as stable, emphasizing that reality is described objectively (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Therefore, knowledge about a phenomenon can be discovered through impartial observation and measurement as it is independent of the observer's mental state (Holden & Lynch, 2004). As such, positivist research is grounded on hypotheses concerning cause and effect laws about objective reality, emphasising that reality can be accurate through scientific knowledge. The researcher uses large samples of data with a highly structured methodology to allow for the generalisation and replication of the findings (Gill & Johnson, 2010). A post-positivism approach emerged as a critique of positivism, emphasising that the absolute truth of knowledge does not exist and that the reality that exists can be approximated and become more fully known through scientific knowledge (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). It stresses the importance of acknowledging that individuals can be biased in their observations (Creswell, 2014). This bias is attended to through methodological decisions such as adopting multiple researchers to provide some control for the bias, validating the research instrument, adopting a peer review process to provide additional oversight, and abiding by external ethical codes such as institutional review boards. Just like positivism, in post-positivism, the data is collected with the senses, for example, through observation, interviewing and self-report and by ensuring that the research is separated from what is being researched (Groff, 2004).

Given the analysis above, this research adopted a post- positivism epistemology that allowed for hypotheses development, testing and elucidation of the cause and effect among the study variables. A large sample of survey data was collected, and analysis was done through quantitative research methods. This facilitated the generalization, and the potential replication of the research findings, as Saunders et al. (2009) recommended. Validation of the study and adherence to the Strathmore University Ethical reviewed board policies and procedures also helped determine any possible bias towards the research.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is described as a blueprint, a structure or a plan that the researcher conceives to investigate the study's research questions (Creswell, 2002). Thus, the researcher describes the relationships among variables to gain empirical evidence of these relationships (Adams & Schvaneveldt, 1991). In developing a research design, Saunders et al. (2009) posit that no single research design exists in isolation. To facilitate for triangulation of results and enhancement of research validity, this author recommends a combination of different research designs.

First, this study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. Churchill and Iacobucci (2006) define a cross-sectional design as the collection of data on more than one case, for example, on an individual and or a company, at a single point in time to assemble a body of data, both quantitative and qualitative about two or more variables to establish patterns of association, a definition akin to Bryman (2016). On the other hand, a longitudinal design extends over a period of time, and hence it's more advantageous in dealing with common method variance than a cross-sectional design (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). A longitudinal design is also criticized for having a high attrition rate among the respondents (Bryman, 2016). Due to these restrictions, and in consistency with the proposed research questions and line with previous studies on the relationship between prior FBE and entrepreneurial process (Chlosta et al., 2012), a cross-sectional survey design was deemed most appropriate for this study. Descriptive studies aim at establishing characteristics of a phenomenon under inquiry and hence were used to describe the features of the next-generation family members and the possible reasons for the choice of their entrepreneurial mode of entry. Secondly, inferential statistics were used to allow for prediction from the cross sectional data collected (Saunders et al., 2016). Since descriptive statistics alone do not infer causation association of the study variables (Creswell, 2002), an econometric model (Multinomial logit model) was used to rigorously determine the cause and effect of the study variables hypothesized.

3.4 The Population of the Study

The target population for this study was all SME owners with prior parental entrepreneurial exposure, that is, next-generation family business members. Owner managers were selected because according KNBS (2010) baseline survey, most businesses in Kenya tend to be run by owner managers and the entrepreneurial spirit in mostly embodied in these owner managers in

the SME sector. However, obtaining a database containing information on the next-generation business owners in family businesses was challenging. Scholars have attributed this to the main reason there is little research on next-generation family business owners (Prügl & Spitzley, 2021). The researcher, therefore, targeted the population of SMEs in the Nairobi Metropolitan Service (NMS), explicitly focusing on four counties; Nairobi, Kajiado, Kiambu and Machakos. These counties were selected due to the restriction of movement necessitated by the COVID-19 Pandemic during the data collection phase from October to December 2020. Despite these restrictions, these counties have also been argued to represent most scenarios expected in the whole country in the form of all urban, a mixture of urban and rural, nomadic and all rural areas (KNBS,2016). The MSME baseline survey (KNBS, 2016) approximates that these four counties have 445,700 registered micro, small and medium enterprises. The distribution per county is as shown in Table 3.1. The unit of analysis was SME firms, while the respondents were entrepreneurs with prior parental business exposure in these firms. The SME sector was chosen because this is the sector that comprises the majority of entrepreneurial ventures (Pasanen, 2003; Blackburn, 2016).

Table 3. 1: Distribution of Licensed Businesses in Kenya

County	Total
Total	**445700**
Nairobi	268100
Kajiado	46100
Kiambu	92400
Machakos	39100

(Source: KNBS, 2016)

3.5 Sampling Design

The sampling design is a calculation based on a mathematical function that indicates the probability of the sample being drawn. The sample size was determined based on the level of precision (confidence level) as well as the acceptable margin of error (confidence level). In line with many social science studies (Israel, 1992; 2013), this study adopted a confidence interval of ± 5 with a 95% confidence interval. The calculation of the sample was based on Yamane's 1967 formula (Israel, 1992). At a 95% confidence level and 0.05 alpha level, the sample size n is computed as;

$$n = \frac{N}{\quad}$$

$1+N(e^2)$

Where:

N = Population Size

e= Precision rate

n= Sample size

$$n = \frac{564061}{1+564061(0.05^2)} = 400 \text{ Entrepreneurs}$$

This gives us a sample size of 400 next generation family members with entrepreneurial entities to constitute the study's sample. To account for possible non-response rates, the study adopted Israel's (1992) recommendation of adding 10% to the computed sample and a further 30% to account for those the researcher may not be able to contact. Previous scholarly work that has followed a similar approach includes a marketing study by Nyongesa (2018).

The adjusted sample size, therefore, was as follows;

40%*400 =160

160+ 400= 560 Next generation family members with prior parental entrepreneurial exposure constituted the planned sample size.

A multi-level mixed methods sampling was then adopted to arrive at a sample of respondents that could address the study's research questions (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Teddlie & Yu (2007) posits that a multi-level mixed sampling technique is done when different units of analysis are nested and scholars are interested in answering questions related to two or more levels. In this case, the researcher was interested in entrepreneurs in the SME sector who were next-generation family members. Since there is no database with pure next-generation family members in the SME sector, the researcher randomly selected 850 SME owners from the statistical register of licensed businesses updated and maintained by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) after seeking and gaining approval from the KNBS body (see appendices F, G and I). This register consists of a list of establishments and enterprises engaged in different economic activities in the country. It also contains stratification variables such as the number of employees, economic activity (sector), legal ownership status and physical location (including county). The sample drawn was proportionately distributed to the study area. The frame was first stratified according to the size, where this size classification was based on the number of employees. A micro business was categorized as having 4-9 employees, while a

small enterprise was classified as having 10-49 employees. The sectoral distribution of the sample was as indicated in Table 3.2. To arrive at the sample that corresponded to the set criteria- the next-generation family members, the researcher adopted the recommendation of Cooper and Schindler (2006) and used purposive non–probability sampling.

Table 3. 2: Distribution of the sample

S/No.	Sector Groupings	Micro (4-9 employees)	Small (10-49 employees)	Grand Total
1	Agriculture	2	1	3
2	Food Processing	4	3	7
3	Wearing apparel	1	1	2
4	Industry except food processing and wearing apparel	18	28	46
5	Construction+Real estate	96	34	130
6	Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	163	88	251
7	Transport and storage	10	13	23
8	Accommodation	1	8	9
9	Food and beverage service activities	8	16	24
10	ICT, Finance, Professional + Administration	151	84	235
11	Education, Health + Other Services	59	61	120
	Grand Total	**513**	**337**	**850**

Sample distribution Source from Statistical Register – KNBS 2020

3.6 Procedures for Data Collection

Several steps underpinned the survey data collection exercise. These included hiring and training research assistants, conducting a pilot test, and administering the questionnaire. These are explained in detail below:

3.6.1 Hiring and Training of Research Assistants

Ten research assistants who assist the KNBS in their data collection exercises were commissioned to conduct the survey. Their experience in collecting survey data from the MSME sector on behalf of KNBS was considered in the decision to hire them. These research assistants had all completed secondary education. Despite their experience, training was done to ensure they understood the questions in the research instrument to minimize interview errors. The training was an online classroom model and role-playing in line with previous social research studies (Mayhew & Swindell, 1996). The training incorporated aspects of building a rapport with the respondents and strict adherence to ethical practices. Further, the training included the COVID- 19 Pandemic protocol observance since the exercise occurred during the Pandemic. These protocols entailed wearing a mask and keeping the recommended social distance while conducting the interviews.

3.6.2 Pre-testing the Data

A pilot study was conducted to ensure the reliability and validity of the research instrument. The reliability of the research is described as the consistency of measurements (Drost, 2011). This means that the measures used in the study should be stable, giving the same results when different persons conduct the same research (Bryman, 2016). In assessing the reliability of a measure, Bell, Bryman, and Harley (2018) suggest the consideration of three factors; checking the stability of a measure over time so that the results from a particular measure do not fluctuate, and internal reliability – which entails checking whether the indicators that comprise a scale are consistent and inter-rater reliability that checks for lack of consistency in the decisions made by several raters in research that entails activities such as recording and use of human judgement. Nunnally (1978) posits that the assurance of a well-written research instrument that the research assistants understand can be achieved by conducting a pilot test. Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002) also highlight the additional importance of conducting a pilot study, such as; giving advance warning of the likelihood of the main project failure, convincing funding bodies of the worth of the research and identifying potential practical problems in following the research procedure.

Thus, a pilot study was conducted to test the questionnaire to achieve these benefits. This trial data collection exercise was done by conducting two interviews per research assistant. Cronbach alpha test, suggested by Cronbach (1951) and recommended by social science researchers such as Tavakol and Dennick (2011), was computed to test for the reliability of the research instrument. This is a test that measures the internal consistency of the data. It shows the extent to which the measures used correlate with each other. The coefficient ranges between 0 (no internal consistency) and 1 (complete internal consistency). Depending on the nature of the research, different researchers have recommended different coefficient alpha values. Davis (1964) suggests a coefficient alpha of 0.75 for individuals and below 0.5 for groups over 50. Davidshofer and Murphy (2005) give an acceptable level of 0.6, while Nunnally (1978) recommends 0.7 for preliminary research, 0.8 for basic research and 0.9 for applied research. This study adopted a coefficient alpha of 0.7, recommended as a robust measure of reliability for business and social science studies (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Table 3.3 below depicts that the alpha values surpassed the recommended threshold of 0.7 for all constructs.

Table 3. 3: Cronbach's Alpha Test

Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient
Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry (EME)	3	0.9580
Perceived Parental Entrepreneurial Rewards (PPER)	5	0.9604
Family Business Involvement (FBI)	5	0.9449

3.6.3 Test of Validity

A test of the validity of the data was also conducted. Validity refers to the issue of whether a set of indicators developed to measure a construct really measures that construct (Bell et al., 2018). In quantitative research, there are four main types of validity: Face validity, content validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Saunders et al., 2009).

Face validity must be established when a researcher develops a new measure to ensure that the designed measures reflect the concept in question. There are two types of construct validity; convergent and discriminant (Bell et al., 2018). Discriminant validity ensures that a measure used to measure one construct is different in content from a measure used for another construct. In contrast, construct validity ensures that the theoretical framework used or the hypotheses developed are not misguided. Convergent validity checks the closeness with which a measure converges to a given construct (Drost, 2011). It checks that two measures established to be similar theoretically are, in fact, similar. This can be achieved by checking the correlations between different measures. A low correlation indicates that the measures are not identical. On the other hand, discriminant validity checks that two scales used to measure a construct do not correlate (Campbell & Fiske (1959).

The study was deductive in nature, with hypotheses developed from multiple theories, and therefore convergent and discriminant validity was established. In the pre-test sample, all the measures of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards and family business involvement

passed the factor analysis, with all factor loadings being higher than 0.6 and without cross-loadings.

3.6.4 Administering the Questionnaire

The pilot test led to re-writing a few ambiguous questions so that the questionnaire could be well adapted to the study context. Once this exercise was completed, the data collection exercise commenced. The data was collected in the period between October 2020 and December 2020. Since it was during the COVID-19 Pandemic, a low response rate was expected. According to Mathers et al. (2007), a personal interview survey is better when a low response rate is expected because it is likely to have higher acquiescence. Thus, a phone call to the potential respondents to schedule an interview was made to 850 business owners. Upon acceptance, the researcher then visited the business premises of the respondents and administered the questionnaire through an oral interview. An introductory letter from Strathmore University after a rigorous ethical review by the Strathmore ethical board and a Kenyan license issued by the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) facilitated the process (see appendix C, D and E).

The survey instrument comprised a structured questionnaire (appendix H). The questionnaire had closed-ended questions. The questionnaire had both binary-type and Likert–type scale questions ranging from strongly disagree (1) to (6) strongly agree. It had seven sections arranged according to study variables. Section A covered the family business exposure variable, where it checked for the presence of paternal, maternal, grandparents and relative business exposure. Section B examined the perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards variable, and Section C captured the degree of the next generations' FBI. Section D captured the human capital variables, while Section E captured the motivation to venture variables as necessity-driven, opportunity-driven, or both. Section F captured the independent variable EME, while Section H captured the respondents' biographical data. Questionnaire items though slightly modified to suit the context of the study were based on existing literature.

3.7 Operationalization of the Study Variables

After an in-depth exploration of the literature, the study variables were measured using a combination Likert-type multi-item scale and categorical dichotomous questions. In the Likert-type scale, the respondent answers several statements by indicating the extent to which they strongly agree, agree, are undecided, disagree or strongly disagree (Likert, 1932). Saunders et al. (2009) assert that the summated weighted scales of the questions in a construct effectively capture the attitudes and perceptions of the respondent, which may be challenging to articulate in reality. Several entrepreneurship scholars have relied on the Likert- type scale to assess, for example, the perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards among University students (Wang et al., 2018) and the role of perceived desirability on entrepreneurial intentions in student populations (Fitzsimmons & Douglas, 2011; Guerrero et al., 2008). Categorical variables, on their part, are utilized in research when the sought response is limited or fixed into one or more possible variables, thus requiring the respondent to assign themselves to a particular group (Starnes et al., 2010). In the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) studies, Reynolds et al. (2005) utilized a categorical variable to group entrepreneurship behaviour out of necessity or opportunity. Other scholars examining the entrepreneurial mode of entry decisions have also categorized this choice as either business take over or independent own founding (Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Bastié et al., 2013), while family business scholars have examined the mode of entry of the next-generation family members as either joining the family business or independent own founding (Zellweger et al., 2011).

The dependent variable was captured as a categorical variable examining the choice between joining the family business, corporate venturing into the FB and independent own founding away from the FB (Pittino et al., 2018; Block et al., 2013; Bastié et al., 2013; Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Guerrero & Peña-Legazkue, 2013). Parental entrepreneurial exposure was captured by examining the presence of parental business exposure as maternal or paternal business exposure. The respondents had to answer a yes or no question on whether their father or mother owned a business while growing up. It was also captured through perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER), a Likert-type scale developed by Neblett and Cortina (2006). Wang et al. (2018) have also used this scale to examine the effects of family business exposure on the entrepreneurial intention of university students. This scale assessed an individual's reflected appraisal of their parents' intrinsic and extrinsic rewards while running the family business. Intrinsic rewards had questions like "starting a business gave my parents a good

feeling about themselves", while extrinsic rewards had questions like "starting a business provided my parents with an income that satisfied them".

The role of several factors in the relationships between the independent and dependent variables was also assessed. Frist, the effect of exposure to self-employed grandparents,' was evaluated through a yes/no categorical question as used by Laspita et al. (2012). Secondly, the role of the next generation's motivation to venture assessed through the dichotomy of necessity versus opportunity motivation was also captured through categorical variables in line with previous literature. Family business involvement (FBI) role in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables was the third factor that was assessed. FBI was captured through a Likert-type scale developed by Van Auken et al. (2006). The scale captured the degree to which an individual was involved in the day-to-day running of the family business while growing up. Sample questions included; "my family used to take me to work with them" and "my family used to teach me about managing a business. Finally, the role of human capital captured as the number of years that the next generation family member was employed outside the family business prior to choosing the mode of entry was also examined on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Table 3.4 summarises the operationalization of these study variables, the supporting literature and the section where the questions are to be found in the study instrument.

Table 3. 4: Operationalization summary

Variable	Indicators	Measures	Questionnaire Item	Supporting Literature
Parental Entrepreneurial Exposure (Independent Variable)	• Present or Absent	Categorical variable Yes/NO	Section A	Chlosta et al., 2012
Perceived Parental Business Exposure	• Intrinsic Reward • Extrinsic Reward	6 point Likert- Scale; 1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= Slightly Disagree 4= Slightly agree 5= Agree 6= Strongly Agree	Section B	Neblett & Cortina, 2006) Wang et al., 2018
Grandparents' Entrepreneurial status (Moderating variable)	• Presence or Absence of exposure from an enterprising paternal or maternal grandparent	Categorical Yes/No	Section A	(Laspita et al., 2012)
Motivation to Venture (Moderating Variable)	• Necessity Entrepreneurship • Opportunity Entrepreneurship	Categorical Dummy variables	Section E	(Mota et al., 2019) (Block et al., 2015) (Sahasranamam & Sud, 2016) (Reynolds et al., 2005)
Formal Employment (Human Capital) (Moderating effect)	• Labour Market experience	Ordinal scale	Section D	(Dimov, 2010): (Grichnik et al., 2014) (Parker & Van Praag, 2012)
Family Business Involvement (Moderating Variable)	• Degree of family business involvement	Likert-Type scale 1= Never 2= Seldom 3= Sometimes 4= Often 5= Almost Always	Section C	(Van Auken, Stephens, et al., 2006b)

Variable	Indicators	Measures	Questionnaire Item	Supporting Literature
Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry	• Joining the FB(inheritance) • Joining the FB through CV • Independent Own founding	Categorical variable	Section F	Parker & Van Praag, 2012 ;Pittino et al., 2018)

Source: Current Researcher (2022)

3.8 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis commenced with data cleaning, which took place after data collection. According to Hox and Boeije (2005), data cleaning in the Social Sciences should be done by checking and removing incomplete and inconsistently answered questionnaires and discarding those with extreme values. The complete questionnaires were coded and keyed into SPSS version 25.0. Data analysis was also done using SPSS. Common themed responses were combined and put into their respective categories. The data was first analysed through descriptive statistics and an econometric multinomial logit model. These levels of analysis are further explained below:

3.8.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were first generated to summarise the data and the profile of the respondents by generating frequency distribution, mean score, measures of spread such as variance and standard deviation, and measures of central tendency such as mean and median. Descriptive statistics are essential to communicate the most extensive and basic information about the data in a simple format (Bickel & Lehmann, 2012).

3.8.2 Econometric Model

A multinomial logit model (MLM) was chosen for a rigorous data analysis capable of showing the significance of the independent variables on the dependent variables. A multinomial logit model is adopted when there are more than two unordered categorical outcomes. The model simultaneously runs two binary logistic regressions on the three categories, always comparing the probability of one of the categories to the reference category (Lee, 1983; Freese & Long, 2000). Thus in this study, the explained variables, the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry, was captured through unordered categorical variables taking values of 1,2 and 3 for joining the family business, CV in the FB and independent own founding, respectively. Several entrepreneurship studies have also adopted discrete choice models to predict entrepreneurial choices based on utility or relative attractiveness. For example, Zacher et al. (2012) adopted MLM to show that social demographic characteristics such as gender and age and personality factors such as risk-taking behaviour were associated with the likelihood of following a continuous self-employment pattern compared to other employment patterns. DeTienne and Chandle (2007) also adopt MLM to demonstrate that gender influences the likelihood of the choice of opportunity identification sequence captured into four categories; learn/replicate, learn/acquire, innovate/ educate and finally, learn/innovate.

Thus, to analyze the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry among the three alternatives, the study adopted the MNL proposed by Muro-Rodríguez et al. (2017). The discrete choice of different entrepreneurial mode of entry that the next generation family member may make are were; joining the family business, corporate venturing in the FB and independent own founding. The functional form of the multinomial logistic regression models for the joining the FB, CV and independent own founding are represented by:

$$P(a) = P(U_a \geq U_b \geq U_c) = \frac{e^{aVa}}{e^{cVa} + e^{bVa} + e^{aVa}}$$

Where; U represents the total utilities of joining the FB (a), corporate venturing (b) and Independent own founding (c). V represents the deterministic utility component.

Assuming linearity of V with respect to the parameters, therefore:

$$P(a) = \frac{e^{a\boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{X}a}}{e^{c\boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{X}a} + eb\boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{X}a + ea\boldsymbol{\beta}\mathbf{X}a}$$

Where $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ represents the vector of coefficients and $\mathbf{X}$ represents the vector of explanatory variables

The main explanatory variables are parental business exposure (maternal and paternal) and PPER.

Given the three entrepreneurial mode of entry choices, the multinomial logit model was computed as follows:

$$\text{Prob}(Y_i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta}_k \mathbf{X}_{ki})}} = \frac{e^{\alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta}_k \mathbf{X}_{ki}}}{1 + e^{\alpha + \boldsymbol{\beta}_k \mathbf{X}_{ki}}}$$

Using the above equation and setting category 3 (own founding) as the reference category. The probabilities of choosing the three alternatives were computed in the formula below;

$$\text{Prob}(Y_i = 3) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\boldsymbol{\alpha 2} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{12}\mathbf{X}_{1i+} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{22}\mathbf{X}_{2i}} + e^{\boldsymbol{\alpha 3} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{13}\mathbf{X}_{1i+} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{23}\mathbf{X}_{2i}}}$$

(reference category)

$$e^{\boldsymbol{\alpha 2} + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{12}\mathbf{X}_{1i+} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{22}\mathbf{X}_{2i}}$$

$$\text{Prob } (Y_i = 2) = \frac{}{1 + e^{\alpha 2 + \beta_{12}X_{1i+} \beta_{22}X_{2i}} + e^{\alpha 3 + \beta_{13}X_{1i+} \beta_{23}X_{2i}}}$$

$$\text{Prob } (Y_i = 1) = \frac{e^{\alpha 3 + \beta_{13}X_{1i+} \beta_{23}X_{2i}}}{1 + e^{\alpha 2 + \beta_{12}X_{1i+} \beta_{22}X_{2i}} + e^{\alpha 3 + \beta_{13}X_{1i+} \beta_{23}X_{2i}}}$$

3.8.2.1 Goodness of Fit

To measure whether the non-linear model fits the data well, Pseudo R squared is computed. In the OLS model, R- Squared or Adjusted R- squared is used to explain how much variance Is explained by the independent variables through the sum- of squared computation. In non-linear models, however, the pseudo- R squared, also called McFadden's, is obtained by comparing a null and a full model (Kenny & Judd, 1984). A null model has no explanatory variables and only a constant. A second model with full covariates is then estimated, and the log-likelihood function is compared. The ratio of how better the full model is then provided as the pseudo -R squared. It is mathematically computed as follows;

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\ln \hat{L}(M_{Full})}{\ln \hat{L}(M_{Intercept})}$$

M_{full} = Model with predictors

M_{int}

$M_{intercept}$ = Model without predictors

$\hat{L}$ = Estimated likelihood

A small ratio of the log-likelihood is an indication of a better full model than the intercept model. The pseudo-R-squared was therefore estimated to establish the goodness of fit of the MNL. A further deviance Chi-Square and Person Chi Square were estimated as additional measures of goodness of fit of the MLM. Non-significant test results are indicators that the model fits the data well (Petrucci, 2009; Field, 2013).

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethical principles must be maintained throughout the research process as they form a critical criterion against which the research outputs are judged (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher ensured this by informing the respondents who she was, what the study was about and the importance of their participation. The researcher ensured the participants' privacy by not applying undue pressure on the participants to grant access to data collection (Robson, 2002; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Once access was given, the researcher ensured that there was no deviation from the research objectives, as to do so would be another type of deceit (Zikmund et al., 2013).

Since data was collected during the COVID-19 Pandemic, the protocol to ensure safe distance during the data collection and wearing of masks was strictly adhered to according to the national guidelines. Maintaining objectivity throughout the research process and not allowing subjective selectivity, for example, during random sampling, was also underpinned by the reliability and validity of the research (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher maintained confidentiality and anonymity, particularly regarding addresses, names and other personal information. In addition, clearance to conduct the research was sought from the Strathmore University ethics committee and National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) before proceeding to data collection. Such approval denoted that the proposed research process posed no harm to the respondents.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the research philosophy underpinning this study, the research design used, and the population and sampling used. It has further elaborated on the data collection procedures highlighting the recruitment and hiring process of the research assistant, the pilot study and tests of validity and reliability done. It then proceeded to explain the data analysis procedure that was employed. It finally concluded with the ethical considerations upheld throughout the research process.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings highlighting the descriptive and inferential statistics of the study. The study sought to examine the entrepreneurial behaviour of the next-generation family members in the SME sector by examining whether they have taken the FB or independent own founding route – their entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME). This EME was conceptualised as the choice among three categories; joining the FB, CV in the FB or independent own founding. The influence of parental business exposure (maternal and paternal business exposure) and perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER) on EME were examined. Several factors were also examined in these relationships; exposure to self-employed grandparents, motivation to venture through necessity versus opportunity dichotomy, family business involvement (FBI) while growing up, and the role of human capital inform of formal employment away from the FB. Data for this study was collected through a structured questionnaire. The data is presented under the following headings; 4.2 response rate, 4.3 overview of the study variables, 4.4 summary descriptive statistics, 4.5 correlation analysis, 4.6 multinomial logit regression analysis, and 4.7 a summary of the chapter.

4.2 Response Rate

This study utilized a descriptive cross-sectional survey targeting 560 next-generation family business members in the SME sector in Kenya. The data was gathered between the months of October 2020 and December 2020. Since it was during the COVID-19 Pandemic, a low response rate was expected. To mitigate against this risk, personal interviews were conducted as Mathers et al. (1998) recommended. The researcher received 440 usable responses, a 78.6% response rate, as tabulated in table 4.1 below. In the criteria set up by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) for checking for a reasonable response rate before data analysis, this rate corresponded to their "very good rate" criteria. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) postulate that a 50% response rate can be adequate, 60% good, and over 70% very good. The researcher attributes this success to having well-trained and experienced research assistants, a personal interview data collection exercise, a license from NACOSTI and an ethical clearance letter from Strathmore University. In comparison, a prior study by Odalo (2018) on the entrepreneurial mindset of innovation among SMEs in the hospitality sector had a response rate of 92%. Similarly, Miriti's (2014) investigation of family firm characteristics and their performance yielded a response rate of 72%.

Table 4. 1: Questionnaire Response Rate

Questionnaires Targeted	Questionnaires Completed	Response Rate
560	440	**78.57%**

4.3 Overview of the Study Variables

This section highlights the overview of the study variables used in this study. It starts with a description of the demographic profiles of the respondents and then proceeds to present the profile of the key study variables.

4.3.1 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

In this section, the demographic characteristics of the respondents are described. Several variables were included to capture the profile of the respondents of the study. These included gender, marital status, education, training in a business-related area, entrepreneurial teams, years of self-employment, and weekly hours spent on the main business and the main sector in which they operated their main business.

Gender was essential because entrepreneurship scholars have been keen to understand women's issues related to entrepreneurial behaviour. This is not surprising because entrepreneurial entry is one of the avenues for women to break the glass ceiling experienced in many organizations, especially in emerging economies (Salahuddin et al., 2022; Madichie, 2009). Marital status has also been shown to be a key consideration in the choice of self-employment career decisions (Davis & Shaver, 2012), as well as securing financial resources for the growth of a business venture. For example, Carter et al. (2007) found evidence that marital status was a significant consideration by loan officers (predominantly female ones) in granting a business loan as it was indicative of personal stability and financial responsibility. The effects of entrepreneurial team behaviour in the growth and development of a business is also a common source of inquiry in entrepreneurship literature, as the growth and success of an entrepreneurial venture are enhanced by the experience and diverse knowledge as well as the passion of the founding team members (Klotz et al., 2014; Cardon et al., 2017). Explorative strategic choices which underpin diversification strategies in organizations are common among entrepreneurial founding teams with diverse experience (Beckman, 2006).

Education and training are aspects of human capital variables that are important in discovering and exploiting business opportunities (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Marvel et al., 2016). Meta-analytic reviews on human capital's role in entrepreneurial behaviour reveal that academic and training-focused interventions in entrepreneurship significantly influence entrepreneurial outcomes (Martin et al., 2013). The entrepreneurial experience captured as years of running the business has also been shown to significantly impact the performance and longevity of entrepreneurial ventures (Zapkau et al., 2017). Finally, entrepreneurial labour – captured as the number of hours that the entrepreneur works post–entry- has been found to strengthen the effect of human capital on entrepreneurial outcomes, especially success (Lee, 2018). The number of hours an entrepreneur works has also been relied on to capture the self-employment construct (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006).

The descriptive statistics revealed that the respondents were predominantly male, approximately 85%, compared to females, 15%. This is probably because, despite a high entrepreneurial entry among women entrepreneurs in developing countries, reviews of studies of women entrepreneurship in Sub–Saharan economies reveal that most of these entrepreneurial initiatives are in the informal sector and are primarily unlicensed businesses established for subsistence purposes (De Vita et al., 2014). 92.73% of the respondents were married or living with a partner. 50.91% of the sample had attained a university degree, while 16.14% had a postgraduate degree, indicating that the respondents were highly educated. Furthermore, 27.95% had trained in strategic management, 18.86% in sales and marketing, and 20.23% in taxation. These critical areas in business facilitate the opportunity exploitation stage. Of the participants surveyed, 27.27% run the business with one partner, 22.50% with two partners and 16.36% with three partners. Thus, as discussed in the previous paragraph, a considerable proportion had diversity in knowledge, facilitating quality decision-making. A proportion of 55.68% was self-employed for more than ten years, and 35.68% were employed for 6-10 years. Further, 64.09% spent more than 40 hours, while 35.00% spent 20-40 hours weekly on their main business. A proportion of 22.73% was in the trade/retail sector, 7.50% in manufacturing, 8.41% in repair and construction, and 6.36% in information technology and computer services, as shown in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4. 2: Demographics Variables

Variable		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	370	84.09

	Female	70	15.91
Marital Status	Single	19	4.32
	Married	408	92.73
	Separated	7	1.59
	Widowed	5	1.14
Education level	KCPE- Primary Education	1	0.23
	KCSE-Secondary Education	17	3.86
	Certificate/Diploma	127	28.86
	Undergraduate Degree	224	50.91
	Postgraduate Degree	71	16.14
Training in a business-related area	None	85	19.32
	Legal Training	14	3.18
	Sales and Marketing	83	18.86
	Strategic Management	123	27.95
	Taxation	89	20.23
	Other	46	10.45
Running the main business with a team or alone	Own	149	33.86
	With 1 partner	120	27.27
	With 2 partners	99	22.50
	With 3 partners or more	72	16.36
Years of Self-Employment	Less than 1 year	1	0.23
	1-2 years	2	0.45
	3-5 years	35	7.95
	6-10 years	157	35.68
	More than 10 years	245	55.68
Weekly Hours Spent on Main Business	Less than 20 hours	4	0.91
	20-40 hours	154	35.00
	More than 40 hours	282	64.09
Sector for the Main Business	Manufacturing	33	7.50
	Trade/Retail	100	22.73
	Food/Restaurant	11	2.50
	Hotels	7	1.59
	Hair/Beauty Care	3	0.68
	Repair/construction	37	8.41
	IT/computer services	28	6.36
	Agriculture/Forestry	3	0.68
	Other	218	49.55

4.3.2 Parental Business Exposure

The study examined whether the respondents grew up in an environment of parental business either from the mother or the father. In the intergenerational entrepreneurial behaviour literature, family business exposure avails family role models, particularly parents, who may act as a good example and help orient the offspring towards an entrepreneurial career (Chlosta et al., 2012; Giménez-Nadal et al., 2022). Indeed family businesses are described as the seedbed for nurturing an entrepreneurial mindset (Hopp et al., 2019). This study, therefore, examined the role of parental business exposure on the choice of EME among the next-generation family members. Table 4.3 below shows that 52.05% had paternal business exposure, while 23.64% reported that their mother currently or had ever owned a business. This suggests that the majority of the respondents had been exposed to an entrepreneurial father. This is not surprising as studies in most countries reveal that men are responsible for sustaining the family through an earned living and hence are viewed as more career oriented with a focus on attainment of status than women (Eddleston et al., 2006).

On the other hand, mothers' priorities are viewed as those that appertain to running the household and taking care of children. When they engage in (self) employment, they do so to supplement the household income and on a part-time basis (Chlosta et al., 2012). The profile also confirms the studies on the gender-gap in entrepreneurship that report that self–employment is more prevalent in men than in women (Langowitz et al., 2005).

Table 4. 3: Parental Business Exposure

Item		Frequency	Percentage
Paternal entrepreneurial exposure	Yes	229	52.05
	No	211	47.95
Maternal entrepreneurial exposure	Yes	104	23.64
	No	336	76.36

Source: Primary Data

4.3.3 Perceived Parental Entrepreneurial Rewards (PPER)

The respondents were also examined on their perception of their parents' entrepreneurial rewards, both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. This was done through a Likert- type scale developed and validated by (Neblett & Cortina, 2006) and as used by Wang et al. (2018) in examining the effects of parental entrepreneurial rewards in informing the entrepreneurial intention of university students. This scale assessed an individual's reflected appraisal of their parents' intrinsic and extrinsic rewards while running the family business.

Table 4.4: Perceived Parental Entrepreneurial Rewards

Item	N	Mean score	Standard Deviation	Coefficient of variation
Having a business gave my parents a good feeling about themselves	440	4.82	1.22	1.49
Having a business made my parents feel like they were accomplishing something important	440	4.70	1.23	1.51
Having a business gave my parents interesting and challenging things to do	440	4.75	1.23	1.52
Having a business gave my parents a feeling of being respected by others	440	4.72	1.26	1.58
Having a business provided my parents with an income that satisfied them	440	4.64	1.38	1.92

Source: Primary Data

Table 4.4 above presents the mean scores from a Likert scale of 1-6, where 1 strongly agree and 6 strongly disagree. Perceived intrinsic rewards question "having a business gave my parents a good feeling about themselves scored the highest mean score (mean 4.82, SD 1.22 and CV 1.49), an indication that the family business offspring may have perceived their parents to be happy even in instances where extrinsic rewards were not obvious or visible. The parents themselves could have been enjoying the freedom of being their own boss, but this could have been visible to the offspring and could have had a lasting impression on them. This was also reflected in the appraisal of the other two questions capturing perceived intrinsic rewards "having a business made my parents feel like they were accomplishing something important (mean 4.70 an average of 4.82 SD=1.22) and having a business gave my parents a feeling of being respected by others (Mean 4.72, SD 1.26, CV 1.58). Perceived extrinsic reward questions captured the offspring's appraisal of the extrinsic rewards they could perceive emanating from the enterprising parents. Two questions captured perceived extrinsic rewards: having a business gave my parents interesting and challenging things to do (Mean 4.75, SD 1.23, CV 1.52) and 'having a business provided my parents with an income that satisfied them (Mean 4.64, SD 1.38, CV 1.92). This last question had the lowest mean, indicating the difficulty of observing parental income. This could suggest that conversations about earnings between parent and child in the East African context hardly exist.

4.3.4 Exposure to Self-employed Grandparents

Another independent variable (moderator) variable examined in this study was the exposure to self-employed grandparents. A proportion of 40% indicated that their grandparents currently or had ever owned a business, as shown in table 4.4. Scholarly work on the role of enterprising grandparents is scarce. Yet, their role in raising their grandchildren could be more critical in developing contexts where the parents may experience limited resources, unemployment, separation/divorce or even parental death (Dunifon & Bajracharya, 2012). Enterprising grandparents also facilitate the flow of resources intergenerationally (Laspita et al., 2012). A 40% proportion of enterprising grandparents could be indicative of an improving life expectancy even in developing countries, where in Kenya, it is estimated to be at 70 years, and this implies that more grandparents can remain active in their self-employment endeavours and continue to have sustained associations with their grandchildren.

Table 4. 5: Grandparents own or have ever owned a business

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	176	40.00
No	264	60.00

Source: Primary data

4.3.5 Motivation to Venture

The respondents were also examined on the push and pull factors towards entrepreneurship- the necessity-driven or opportunity-driven entrepreneurial uptake. 32.73% were motivated by the need to earn a decent income for survival - a necessity entrepreneurial motivation, while 45.45% were driven by the need to fill an open market opportunity- an opportunity entrepreneurial motivation, as shown in Table 4.5 below. 21.82% expressed a combination of both drives. However, this last indication was not analysed further. This indicates that more entrepreneurs were motivated by a perceived business opportunity than forced into entrepreneurship. This is not surprising because our sample comprised a more educated group of entrepreneurs. Over half of the sample had completed a University degree, and almost 40 % had undergone training in a business-related area. Necessity/opportunity scholars have observed that entrepreneurs' human capital increases the likelihood of opportunity entrepreneurship (Arshed et al., 2021; Baptista et al., 2014; Naiki & Ogane, 2022). Though 21% was not included in the study, ongoing scholarly work seems to suggest that entrepreneurs

may be influenced by both necessity or opportunity or, in some cases, the necessity entrepreneurs may change to become opportunity entrepreneurs with time (Dencker et al., 2021; Coffman & Sunny, 2021)**.**

Table 4. 6: Motivation to Venture

Item	Frequency	Percentage
I started/joined the business in order to earn a decent income for survival	144	32.73
I started/joined the main business to fill an open opportunity in the market	200	45.45
A combination of both	96	21.82

Source: Primary Data

4.3.6 Family Business Involvement (FBI)

Family business involvement measured the degree to which an individual was involved in the day-to-day running of the family business while growing up. It was evaluated based on a scale developed by Van Auken, Stephens, et al. (2006a). This scale provides various statements depicting the family business activities in which the family business offspring was involved while growing up. The descriptive statistics of the scale are shown in table 4.7 below:

Table 4. 7: Family Business Involvement

Item	N	Mean score	Standard Deviation	Coefficient of variation
My family/ relatives used to take me to work with them	440	2.93	1.31	1.72
My family/ relatives used to take me to business meetings	440	2.57	1.35	1.83
My family/relatives used to teach me about managing the business	440	3.14	1.44	2.07
My family/ relatives used to discuss work/business with me	440	3.11	1.37	1.88
My family/ relatives used to encourage me to get to know their employees and partners	440	2.90	1.42	2.01

Source: Primary Data, 2022

This construct was approximated using a Likert scale of 1-5, where 1 was -Never and 5 was-Always. The highest mean score was on the question "my family/relative used to teach me about managing the business (Mean 3.14, SD 1.44, CV 2.07), followed by "My family/relatives used to discuss work/ business with me. This indicates that other than vicarious learning (learning through observation), the family business offspring was also engaged actively by being taught about the affairs of the family business. Scholars have argued that together with emotional support, tangible support also facilitates the entrepreneurial behaviour of the family business offspring (Edelman et al., 2016). The question 'my family/ relative used to take me to work with them' (Mean, 2.93, SD 1.31 and CV 1.72) is indicative of the offspring's cognition of the parental endeavours beyond the perceptions they formed about their parental rewards as highlighted by Van Auken, Stephens, et al. (2006a) and cited by Wang et al. (2018). It thus shows that the offspring has the know-how of the family business operations.

4.3.7 Formal Employment

Formal employment was taken as exposure to other organizations other than the parents' business through formal work. It was captured as a dummy variable that took the value of 0 if the answer to the question "how many years of work experience outside the FB did you have before starting your business" was less than 1 year, a value of 1 if the answer was "1 to 3 years" and a value of 2 if the answer was more "than 3 years". A proportion of 5.7% had less than a year of experience outside FB, about 17% had one to three years of experience, and the majority (about 77%) had more than three years of experience outside the FB before beginning their businesses, as depicted in Table 4.8 below.

Table 4. 8: Years of work experience outside FB

	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 year	25	5.7
1 to 3 years	76	17.3
More than 3 years	339	77.0

Source: Primary Data

This indicates that about three–quarters of the next-generation family members had acquired human capital inform of work experience prior to starting their entrepreneurial ventures, confirming scholars' approximation that at least 9 out of 10 entrepreneurs usually will have

worked for an established organization before launching a new venture (Sørensen & Fassiotto, 2011). This also indicates that these entrepreneurs had advantages in the acquisition and exploitation of their business ideas, as studies highlight that the prior knowledge gained in working for an organization before beginning an entrepreneurial venture facilitates the conceptualization of a business opportunity (Marvel, 2013) and resource mobilization for the new business venture (Grichnik et al., 2014). This external employment is viewed as an important way of training a potential successor in the family business (Ward, 2016) as the cumulative knowledge becomes the family human capital (Sorenson & Bierman, 2009) that is linked to the longevity of the family firm (Chirico, 2008).

4.3.8 Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry

EME was the dependent variable defined as a distinction of the choice of entrepreneurial entry path of the next generation family members by joining the family business, corporate venturing in the FB or independent own founding away from the FB. The respondents were required to answer the question, "did you start your business by (a) joining the family (inheritance), (b) starting a new line of business but within your parent's business, or (c) independently beginning your business away from the parent's business. These conceptualizations were in line with previous studies conceptualization of joining the family business (succession), corporate venturing in the FB and independent own founding (Parker & Van Praag, 2012; Bastié et al., 2013; Guerrero & Peña-Legazkue, 2013; Sharma & Chrisman, 2007). A proportion of 7.05% became entrepreneurs by joining their parent's business, 28.86% by corporate venturing and 64.09% founded their own independent ventures.

Table 4. 9: Entrepreneurship Mode of Entry

Item	Frequency	Percentage
Joining the FB	31	7.05
Corporate venturing in FB	127	28.86
Independent Own founding	282	64.09

Source: Primary data

The descriptive statistics show that most next-generation family members opted to found their own independent business (64.09%) rather than joining the family business 7.05% or corporate venturing (28.86%). This is not surprising as evidence from student entrepreneurship across fifty countries reveals that only a minuscule 1.9% of the family business offspring considered employment in their parent's business (Sieger et al., 2016). These low statistics have been

linked to the next generation's perception of losing individual autonomy upon joining their parents' business (Zellweger et al., 2011). However, the CV entrepreneurial mode of entry was higher than joining the family business (28.86%). As highlighted in the literature review section in chapter two, CV has been encouraged deliberately by some family businesses to groom the next successor of the family businesses (Au et al., 2013). CV may also be a preference of the next-generation family members who may wish to maintain their autonomy from the family businesses and who are in contexts where many obstacles mar independent own founding, as is the case in many developing and emerging contexts. In developing economy contexts, evidence suggests that most micro and small businesses (MSE) close during the first three years of operation (Liedholm & Mead, 2013). This is because new businesses' are often resource-constrained, particularly in informational resources, delays in government permits and approvals and the process itself is usually time-consuming (Van Gelderen et al., 2011). As can be confirmed by the statistics in table 4.9, there is a case for next-generation preference for corporate venturing efforts in the family business of origin, as evidence suggests that next-generation family business members who engage in entrepreneurial initiatives (Cruz & Nordqvist, 2012) are primarily a millennial cohort (Hidayati et al., 2020) who would prefer more autonomy at work and are motivated by progression, especially in the use of technology (Parry & Urwin, 2011).

4.4 Summary Descriptive Statistics

In this section, the descriptive statistics are summarized and presented in table 4.10 below. A proportion of 7% became entrepreneurs by joining their parents' business, about 29% by corporate venturing in their parent's business, while about 64% became entrepreneurs by founding a new venture from the parent's business. Additionally, 24% reported that their mother currently or had ever owned a business, while 52% affirmed that their father currently or had ever owned a business. Further, 40% indicated that their grandparents currently or had ever owned a business. Regarding motivation for starting their businesses, 33% were motivated by the need to earn a higher income, while 45% were driven by the need to fill an open market opportunity.

Moreover, 65% reported that having a business gave their parents a good feeling about themselves. A proportion of 61% affirmed that having a business provided their parents with an income that satisfied them. Furthermore, 35% confirmed that their family and relatives used

to teach them about business management, a proxy for family business involvement, while 68% were employed before starting their business. In the EME variable, about 7% became entrepreneurs by joining their parent's business, about 29% through CV in the parent's business and about 64% through independent own founding choice.

For the control variables, approximately 84% were males, while 67% were trained in business-related areas before starting a business. The average age was 46 years, with a standard deviation of 7 years. The minimum age reported was 29 years, and the maximum was 72 years. Moreover, the findings revealed that 93% were married, and 9% of the respondents were currently employed with a company outside their self-employment activity. An average of 71% indicated that their relatives owned or had ever owned a business. Furthermore, 86% had operated their main business for more than 3 years, while 21% of the respondents had attained a university degree before starting their firm.

Table 4. 10: Summary Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

Variable Name	Description of Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Entrepreneurship Mode of Entry						
Joining FB/Inheritance	I became an Entrepreneur by Inheritance of my parents' business, yes=1	440	0.07		0	1
CV in the FB	I started a new line of business, but within my parent's business, yes=1	440	0.29		0	1
Independent own founding	I became an Entrepreneur by Founding a New Venture, yes =1	440	0.64		0	1
Parental Business Exposure						
MothrExp	Mother currently owns or has ever owned a business, yes =1	440	0.24		0	1
FathrExp	Father currently owns or has ever owned a business, yes =1	440	0.52		0	1
Grandparents' Entrepreneurship Exposure						
GrandPdExp	Grandparents currently own or have ever owned a business, yes =1	440	0.40		0	1
Motivation to Venture						
Necessity	Started their main business to earn a higher income, yes=1	440	0.33		0	1

Variable Name	Description of Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Opportunity	Started their main business to fill an open opportunity in the market, yes=1	440	0.45		0	1
Perceived Parental Entrepreneurship Reward						
dFeeling	Having a business gave my parents a good feeling about themselves, yes=1	440	0.65		0	1
dIncome	Having a business provided my parents with an income that satisfied them, yes=1	440	0.61		0	1
Family Business Involvement						
dManagmt	My family/relatives used to teach me about managing a business, yes=1	440	0.35		0	1
Formal Employment						
PrevEmpl	Employed before starting your business, Less than 1 year=1	440	2			
Control Variables						
Gender	Male, yes=1	440	0.84		0	1
dTrained	Trained in a business-related area prior to starting own business, yes =1	440	0.67		0	1
Age	Age in years	440	46.09	7.29	29	72

Variable Name	Description of Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
dOutsideEmpl	Currently employed with a company outside their self-employed activity, yes=1	440	0.09		0	1
RelatExp	Relatives own or have ever owned a business, yes =1	440	0.71		0	1
YearExep	Operating their main business for more than 3 years, yes=1	440	0.86		0	1
MaritalST	Married, yes=1	440	0.93		0	1
Education	Attained university degree prior to starting own firm, yes=1	440	0.21		0	1

Source: Primary Data (2022)

4.5 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was first established to check whether significant associations existed between the study variables. The degree of this association was measured using Pearson product-moment correlation (r), which indicates the strength and direction of the association between variables. Its range is from +1 to -1, where positive values denote a positive correlation while negative values denote a negative correlation. According to Saunders et al. (2016), a coefficient of < 0.3 shows a weak correlation, while > 0.3< 0.5 shows a moderate correlation and > 0.5 is an indication of a strong correlation. A no correlation between variables occurs when the Pearson coefficient is at 0. The following section presents the results of the correlation analysis for each independent variable.

4.5.1 Pairwise Correlation between Parental business exposure and Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry (EME)

Table 4.11 presents the pairwise correlation between the dependent variable EME and the independent variables maternal business exposure and paternal business exposure. The explained variable (EME) was a categorical variable denoted by either joining the family business, CV in the family business or independent own founding. Joining the family business mode of entrepreneurial entry proxied by InheritanceE is positively significantly but weakly correlated with maternal self-employment status (MothrExp) (r=.20, p< 0.01), positively significantly weakly correlated with CV mode of entry proxied by corporatevE (r=.24, p< 0.01) and negatively significantly and moderately correlated with independent own founding proxied by ownventurE (r=-.33 p< 0.01). With regard to paternal business exposure proxied as FathrExp , joining the family business was positively, significantly but weakly correlated with paternal business exposure (r=.19, p< 0.01), positively and weakly correlated with CV (r=.24, p< 0.01) and negatively, strongly correlated with independent own founding (r=-.59 p< 0.01). With regard to the other variables in the model, exposure to grandparent's self-employment proxied by GrandPdExp had a positively significant but weak correlation with joining the family business (r=.21, p< 0.01), positively but weak significant correlation with CV (r=.28, p< 0.01) and moderately significant negative correlation with independent own founding choice (r=-.37, p< 0.01).

These results are in line with intergenerational transmission of the entrepreneurial behaviour literature (Hopp et al., 2019; Giménez-Nadal et al., 2022), where these studies indicate that the offspring embeddedness in the family business, whether from enterprising mothers, fathers or grandparents, influences their entrepreneurial career choice. The findings on exposure to grandparents are akin to the findings of Laspita et al. (2012), which show that grandparents influence the entrepreneurial behaviour of their grandchildren. The results thus echo the findings of Zhang and Li (2019) that grandparents' influences on their grandchildren's career choices persist even in adulthood. Family business Involvement (FBI) proxied by dMagemnt was positively significantly but weakly correlated with joining the FB ($r=.22$, $p< 0.01$), moderately and significantly correlated with CV ($r=.45$, $p< 0.01$) and strongly and negatively correlated with independent own founding choice of EME ($r=-.55$, $p< 0.01$). Thus, the results align with previous studies that have reported that the degree of the offspring's involvement in the FB influences their entrepreneurial process (Wang et al., 2018). This study extends these findings by showing that the degree of the offspring's involvement in the FB positively influences the choice of joining the family business either through an inheritance mode of entry or through a fine-grained CV entry within the family business.

Concerning the motivation to venture, necessity motivation shows a negative, weak but significant correlation with CV choice of EME ($r=-.01$, $p< 0.01$), while opportunity-driven entry shows a negative, weak but significant correlation with joining the family business choice of EME ($r=-.01$, $p< 0.01$). Thus the choice of EME is influenced by whether the motivation to venture e was out of necessity or out of the opportunity. With regard to the period of formal employment proxied by YearsExpe, the results of having worked for a business outside of the FB for more than three years shows a negative but significant moderate correlation with joining the family business ($r=-.08$, $p< 0.1$), a negative but significant correlation between CV choice of EME ($r=-.11$, $p< 0.01$) and positive and significant correlation with independent own founding choice of EME ($r=.15$, $p< 0.01$). This confirms previous studies that show entrepreneurs are organizational products (Freeman, 1986; Nanda & Sørensen, 2008; Nanda & Sørensen, 2008). This study extends these findings by showing that the next-generation family members who have worked for other organisations other than the family business prefer to join entrepreneurship through independent own founding rather than join the existing family business. Thus, the findings reflect the influence of human capital explained in HCT in entrepreneurship behaviour.

Table 4. 11: Pairwise Correlation for PEE and EME

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. InheritanceE	1															
2. CorporatevE	-.18***	1														
3.OwnventurE	-.37***	-.85***	1													
4. MothrExp	0.20***	0.24***	-.33***	1												
5. FathrExp	0.19***	0.51***	-.59***	.38***	1											
6. RelatExp	0.14***	0.32***	-.38***	.31***	.57***	1										
7. lnAge	-0.02	0.05	-0.03	0.02	0.002	0.04	1									
8. Gender	0.07	0.13	-.16	0.07	.18***	0.11**	.17***	1								
9. YearExep	-0.08*	-0.11**	.15***	0.10**	.15***	.19***	.17***	0.06	1							
10. MaritalST	0.04	0.04	-0.06	0.07	0.08*	-0.01	.18***	.21***	0.09**	1						
11.Education (university)	-0.21**	0.28***	-.37***	.25***	.36***	.30***	0.03	.12***	0.07	0.04	1					
12.GrandPdExp	0.21***	0.50***	-.59***	0.30***	.58***	0.48***	0.07	.18***	0.08*	.16***	0.36***	1				
13.dManagmt	0.22***	0.45***	-.55***	.40***	.54***	.48***	0.05	.14***	0.18***	0.10**	0.49***	0.56***	1			
14. MotivStartINC	0.05	-0.10**	0.07	-0.02	-0.04	-0.005	0.07	0.05	-.20***	0.06	0.03	0.08*	-.04	1		
15. MotivStartOPP	-.09*	0.01	0.04	-0.01	-0.03	-0.03	0.06	-0.09*	0.12***	-0.06	-0.02	-.11**	0.02	-.64***	1	
16. PrevEmpl	-.25***	-.25***	0.37***	-.19***	-30***	-.14***	0.08*	-0.08	-0.08*	-0.08*	-.12***	-.33***	-.35***	0.06	.10**	1

Source: Primary data. This table presents pairwise correlations among dependent (EME) and independent variables. The sample includes 440 next-generation family-owned firms in Kenya. *, ** and *** denote significance at the 10%, 5% and 1% levels respectively.

4.5.2 Pairwise Correlation between Perceived Parental Entrepreneurial Reward (PPER) and Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry (EME)

Table 4.12 below presents the pairwise correlation between the second independent variable, PPER with EME. This variable was captured as perceived parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards proxied by dfeeling and perceived parental extrinsic rewards proxied by dincome. This section reports the correlation analysis between these two variables and the three choices of EME. The results indicated a positive moderate, but significant correlation between PPER intrinsic rewards (dFeeling) with joining the family business choice ($r = .18$, $p < 0.01$), positive, moderate and significant correlation with CV in the family business choice of EME ($r = .41$, $p < 0.01$) and a negative, moderate and significant correlation with independent own founding choice of EME ($r = -.48$, $p < 0.01$). With regard to perceived parental extrinsic rewards (dIncome), the results indicate a similar pattern, a positive, weak but significant correlation with joining the FB ($r = .13$, $p < 0.01$), a positive moderate significant correlation with CV in the family business ($r = .38$, $p < 0.01$) and a moderate negative correlation with independent own founding ($r = -.43$, $p < 0.01$).

These results indicate that the perception that the next-generation family members had concerning the entrepreneurial performance of their parents influenced their choice of either engaging with the family business through an inheritance route, through the development of new ventures within the family business or through an independent own founding of their business away from the FB. The results thus confirm the findings of Wang et al. (2018) that parental entrepreneurial rewards influence the siblings' entrepreneurial entry process. This study extends these findings further by showing that the perception of entrepreneurial rewards has a positive effect in the choice of joining the family business or CV entry route of the next-generation family members.

Several control variables were also significantly correlated with various choices of EME: training in a business-related area was positively, weakly but significantly correlated with CV in the FB ($r = .13$, $p < 0.01$) and negatively, weakly correlated with independent own founding choice of EME ($r = -.10$, $p < 0.01$). In the same vein attaining a university education was negatively weakly but significantly correlated with joining the family business ($r = -.21$, $p < 0.01$) and moderately negatively significantly correlated with independent own founding ($r = -.37$, $p < 0.01$). These results further underscore the previous finding on the significant role of

human capital in the entrepreneurial process. For example, Parker and Van Praag (2012) reported that the level of education and training influences not only entrepreneurial career decisions but also the mode of entrepreneurial entry. Prior knowledge has also been reported to influence the opportunity realization and exploitation process. Hybrid entrepreneurial entry was also significantly and moderately correlated with independent own founding ($r = .10$ $p < 0.01$).

Table 4. 12: Pairwise Correlation for PPER and EME

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. InheritanceE	1														
2. CorporatevE	-.18***	1													
3.OwnventurE	-.37***	-.85***	1												
4. dFeeling	0.18***	0.41***	-.48***	1											
5. dIncome	0.13***	0.38***	-.43***	0.78***	1										
6. Gender	0.07	0.13	-.16	0.15***	0.12***	1									
7. dTrained	-0.03	0.13***	-.10**	0.12***	0.08	-0.01	1								
8. Age	-0.02	0.05	-0.03	0.05	-.003	0.17***	-0.05	1							
9. Marital Status	0.04	0.04	-0.06	0.09*	0.06	0.21***	0.01	0.18***	1						
10. Hybrid Ent	-0.05	-0.07	0.10**	-0.10**	-.10**	0.001	-0.07*	0.03	-0.07	1					
11.GrandPdExp	0.21***	0.50***	-.59***	0.57***	0.47***	0.18***	0.05	0.07	0.16***	-.15***	1				
12.dManagmt	0.22***	0.45***	-.55***	0.50***	0.43***	0.14***	0.07	0.05	0.10**	-.09*	0.56***	1			
13. MotivStartINC	0.05	-0.10**	0.07	0.04	-0.01	0.05	-0.04	0.07	0.06	0.03	0.08*	-0.04	1		
14. MotivStartOPP	-0.09*	0.01	0.04	-0.04	-0.01	-.09*	0.02	0.06	-0.06	0.03	-.11**	0.02	-.64***	1	
15. PrevEmpl	-.25***	-.25***	0.37***	-.24***	-.19***	-0.08*	0.03	0.08*	-0.08*	0.17***	-.33***	-.35***	0.06	0.10***	1

Source: Primary data. This table presents pairwise correlations among dependent (EME) and independent variables. The sample includes 440 next-generation family-owned firms in Kenya. *, ** and *** denote significance at the 10%, 5% and 1% levels respective

4.6 Multinomial Logit Regression Analysis

An MLM was estimated to determine the influence of parental business exposure and perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER) and moderation effects of grandparents' entrepreneurial status, motivation to venture, family business involvement and formal employment on the choice of EME. The dependent variable was EME's choice of either joining the family business, corporate venturing in the family business or independent own founding. It was coded as a dummy variable of 1 if the next-generation family member became an entrepreneur by joining the family business choice, 2 if the next-generation family member became an entrepreneur through corporate venturing in the family business and 3 if the next-generation family member became an entrepreneur through independent own founding. The next section indicates the model-fitting information of the MLM analysis.

4.6.1 Model Fitting Information

Table 4.13 below shows the results from a likelihood ratio chi-square test (LR test) comparing the model's fit with a complete set of predictors with an intercept only or null model (no predictors).

Table 4. 13: Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria			Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	AIC	BIC	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	P-value
Intercept Only	595.084	602.633	591.084			
Final	452.787	633.966	356.787	234.297	46	0.000

Based on the LR test, the model containing the full set of predictors represents a significant fit relative to a null model [LR $\chi^2(46) = 234.297$, $p<.001$]. Thus there was evidence of a relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. The next stage entailed examining the goodness of fit of the model.

4.6.2 Pearson and Deviance Chi-square tests

An additional Chi-square goodness of fit of the model was established through the Pearson Chi-square and the deviance Chi-square. When non-significant, they provide further evidence of a well-fitting model. Table 4.14 below shows the results of these two tests.

Table 4. 14: Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-square	Df	P-value
Pearson	597.366	570	.207
Deviance	350.771	570	1.000

The Pearson's and Deviance Chi-square tests indicate that the model fits the data well. The Pearson Chi-square is [$\chi^2(570 = 597.366, p=.207]$ while Deviance Chi-square is [$\chi^2(570) = 350.771, p=1.000]$. Both the P values are not significant an indication of a good fit (Petrucci, 2009).

4.6.3 McFadden's Pseudo R Square

In order to establish the proportionate improvement in the model fit relative to the null model, the cox and snell, Nagelkerke and Mcfadden indexes were established as recommended by prior scholars (Cameron & Windmeijer, 1997). Researchers have recommended using McFadden Pseudo R square for interpretation in a logistic regression as it satisfies almost all of the Kvålseth (1985) eight criteria of a good R square (Allison, 2013).

Table 4. 15: Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.517
Nagelkerke	.612
McFadden	.392

Based on McFadden's Pseudo-R-Square in Table 4.15, the full model containing our predictors represents a 39.2%% improvement in fit relative to the null model. As a rule of thumb, the Pseudo R square of between 0.2 and 0.4 represents a good fit to very good fit of the model. The model thus corresponds to a very good fit criterial.

4.6.4 Likelihood Ratio Tests

Table 4.16 below presents the likelihood ratio tests of the overall contribution of each independent variable to the model. From the table, there exists strong evidence to suggest a strong relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables. The effects of maternal business exposure and both perceived parental intrinsic and extrinsic reward are significant at a threshold of 0.05.

Table 4. 16: Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria			Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	AIC of Reduced Model	BIC of Reduced Model	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	P-value
Intercept	452.787	633.966	356.787a	.000	0	
Father	452.787	633.966	356.787a	.000	0	
Mother	454.955	628.584	362.955	6.168	2	.046
PPER| Extrin	459.794	633.423	367.794	11.007	2	.004
PPER Intrin	455.669	629.298	363.669	6.882	2	.032
Marital Status	450.175	623.805	358.175	1.388	2	.500
Gender	451.398	625.027	359.398	2.611	2	.271
Training	460.548	603.981	384.548	27.761	10	.002
Education	444.418	595.400	364.418	7.631	8	.470
Age	452.523	626.153	360.523	3.736	2	.154
PPER Extrin * Grandparents	483.145	656.775	391.145	34.358	2	.000
Mother * Necessity	454.916	628.545	362.916	6.129	2	.047
Father * Necessity	455.109	628.738	363.109	6.322	2	.042
Necessity * PPER Intri	460.082	633.711	368.082	11.295	2	.004
Experience * Father	467.496	633.576	379.496	22.709	4	.000
Father * FBI	466.532	640.161	374.532	17.745	2	.000

Source: Primary data

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final and reduced models. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

a. This reduced model is equivalent to the final model because omitting the effect does not increase the degrees of freedom.

Several interaction effects are also significant in the model: Both maternal and paternal business exposure significantly interacts with necessity entrepreneurial motivation. Similarly, perceived parental intrinsic rewards significantly interact with the necessity entrepreneurial motivation. Paternal business exposure also significantly interacts with the period of formal employment outside of the family business and family business involvement while growing up. Training in a business-related area (control variable) also significantly affected the model. The results are further explained in the next section, which presents the parameter estimates on the choice of EME given these independent variables.

4.6.5 Parameter Estimates of the Model

To further determine which of the independent variables significantly predicted whether the next generation family member chose to join the family business (category 1) versus independent own founding (reference category) or corporate venturing (category 2) versus independent own founding (reference category), the parameter estimates of the model were obtained and the results are as shown in table 4.17. The results thus provide information comparing each category of EME against the reference category (independent own founding). Specifically, the regression coefficients indicate which predictions significantly discriminate between those persons who chose to enter into entrepreneurship through joining the family business and those who chose to join through own founding; between those persons who chose to join through corporate venturing in the family business and those who chose to join through own founding. The findings in table 4.17 are further elaborated by examining the results through the proposed hypotheses of the study.

Table 4. 17: Parameter Estimates

The Reference Category is Independent Own founding

EME[a]	Independent variable	B	Std. Error	Wald	df	P-value	Exp(B)	95% CI for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Joining the FB (inheritance)	Intercept	-2.047	4.439	.213	1	.645			
	Father Exposure	3.679	3.719	.978	1	.323	39.595	.027	57973.028
	Mother Exposure	1.756	.756	5.398	1	.020**	5.787	1.316	25.450
	PPER Intrinsic	.125	.526	.056	1	.813	1.133	.404	3.178
	PPER Extrinsic	-.204	.525	.151	1	.697	.816	.292	2.280
	Married	-.778	1.390	.313	1	.576	.459	.030	7.002
	Gender	.884	.960	.847	1	.357	2.420	.368	15.893
	[Training=None]	-1.495	.900	2.763	1	.096	.224	.038	1.307
	[Training=Legal]	.994	1.285	.598	1	.439	2.703	.218	33.572
	[Training=Sales]	-2.015	.861	5.474	1	.019**	.133	.025	.721
	[Training=Strategic]	-.924	.755	1.498	1	.221	.397	.090	1.743
	[Education=KCSE]	-1.344	1.831	.539	1	.463	.261	.007	9.432
	[Education=College]	.342	.860	.158	1	.691	1.408	.261	7.594
	[Education=Degree]	-1.011	.816	1.533	1	.216	.364	.073	1.803
	Age	-1.773	1.087	2.662	1	.103	.170	.020	1.429
	PPER Extrinsic* grandparents	.429	.125	11.869	1	.001**	1.536	1.203	1.961
	Mother Exposure* Necessity(ref oppo)	-2.999	1.261	5.659	1	.017**	.050	.004	.590
	Father Exposure * Necessity	-5.379	3.504	2.356	1	.125	.005	4.795E-6	4.433
	Necessity * PPER Intrinsic	1.158	.666	3.027	1	.082*	3.183	.864	11.733
	PPER Extrinsic*FBI	.084	.112	.562	1	.453	1.087	.873	1.354
	Experience* Father Exposure	4.250	1.261	11.366	1	.001**	70.118	5.926	829.711
	Father Exposure* FBI	.457	.324	1.982	1	.159	1.579	.836	2.982
	Mother Exposure* grandparents	1.380	1.232	1.255	1	.263	3.974	.356	44.431
	PPER Extrinsic*Experience(ref 3yrs)	1.888	.824	5.24	1	.325	3.293	.894	12.761

Corporate venturing	Intercept	1.212	2.196	.304	1	.581			
	Father Exposure	-.117	.894	.017	1	.896	.890	.154	5.127
	Mother Exposure	.283	.479	.350	1	.554	1.328	.519	3.394
	PPER Intrinsic	-.805	.268	8.990	1	.003**	.447	.264	.757
	PPER Extrinsic	.633	.274	5.332	1	.021**	1.882	1.100	3.220
	Married	-.809	.697	1.346	1	.246	.446	.114	1.746
	Gender	.800	.542	2.181	1	.140	2.226	.770	6.440
	[Training=None]	-.981	.642	2.334	1	.127	.375	.106	1.320
	[Training=Legal]	.915	.957	.914	1	.339	2.496	.383	16.282
	[Training=Sales]	-1.461	.576	6.446	1	.011	.232	.075	.717
	[Training=Strategic]	-.044	.508	.007	1	.931	.957	.354	2.590
	[Training=Taxation]	1.654	.757	4.773	1	.029	5.227	1.185	23.047
	[Education=KCSE]	-.946	1.160	.666	1	.414	.388	.040	3.768
	[Education=College]	.533	.576	.859	1	.354	1.705	.552	5.266
	[Education=Degree]	-.075	.475	.025	1	.875	.928	.366	2.356
	Age	-1.124	.684	2.704	1	.100	.325	.085	1.241
	PPER Extrinsic* grandparents	.417	.082	25.969	1	.000***	1.517	1.292	1.780
	Mother Exposure* Necessity(ref opp)	-.635	.790	.645	1	.422	.530	.113	2.495
	PPER Extrinsic * FBI	1.195	1.494	.639	1	.424	3.303	.177	61.806
	Necessity * PPER Intrinsic	-.378	.284	1.773	1	.183	.685	.393	1.195
	Experience* Father Exposure	1.135	1.172	.937	1	.333	3.111	.312	30.965
	Father Exposure* FBI	.782	.201	15.190	1	.000***	2.187	1.475	3.241
	Mother Exposure* grandparents	-1.544	.679	5.178	1	.289	.297	3.031	21.625
	PPER Extrinsic*Experience (ref 3 yrs)	-.255	.425	.360	1	.549	.775	.337	1.783

Source: Primary data 2022

Key

(ref opp) indicates the reference category for necessity entrepreneurship in the analysis was Opportunity entrepreneurship

(ref 3 yrs) indicates the reference category for 0-1 experience, which was more than 3 years of experience

4.6.1.1 Hypothesis 1a and 1b: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with a paternal/maternal business exposure entering into entrepreneurship under the choices of joining the FB or CV mode of entrepreneurial entry as opposed to independent own founding choice of EME

Hypothesis one was split into two and predicted that paternal and maternal business exposure influences the choice of EME. Under joining the family business (inheritance) category, maternal business exposure was a significant predictor (b=1.756, s.e.=.756, p<.05). This indicates that the next generation family members who had a maternal business exposure were 5.8 times more likely to join entrepreneurship through inheritance of their parent's business than founding their own independent business. Though the paternal business exposure results are positive in this category, they are not significant.

Under the CV category, both paternal business exposure and maternal business exposure were not significant. In line with social learning theory, exposure to parental entrepreneurial behaviour offers vicarious learning through observation of parents as they run the family business and determine the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next generation family members. The results show a high likelihood that the next generation family members exposed to a maternal business may choose to join the family business mode of entrepreneurial entry. These findings are akin to the results of Parker and Van Praag (2012), who concluded that entrepreneurs who face a higher start-up cost and risk are likely to join an existing business rather than begin a start-up independently. These findings also complement the arguments of Dunn & Holtz-Eakin (2000) and Hoffmann et al. (2015) on the importance of exposure to enterprising parents in motivating the next generation to join the family business.

4.6.1.2 Hypothesis 2: Perceived intrinsic/extrinsic rewards influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members such that, there is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER (intrinsic, extrinsic) and the joining of entrepreneurship through the family business entry choice or CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding.

Hypothesis 2 was split into two, predicting a relationship between PPER intrinsic and extrinsic and EME. Under the joining of the family business category, PPER intrinsic and PPER extrinsic are insignificant. However, under the CV category, both PPER extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are significant predictors; (b= -.805 s.e.=.268, p<.05); and (b= .633 s.e.=.274, p<.05) respectively. This shows that the next-generation family members observant of the parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards reduced the likelihood of joining entrepreneurship through

CV as opposed to independent own founding by approximately 48%. Interestingly, the perception of extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of joining entrepreneurship through CV by approximately 1.9. Perceived parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards decreased the likelihood of the choice of CV, while perceived parental extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the likelihood of CV choice. These results are akin to the findings of De Massis et al. (2016), who concluded that the next generation's attitude towards intra-family succession is influenced by situational factors such as the perceived positive entrepreneurial performance of their parent's business. Venter et al. (2005) also argued that potential successors might also leave the firm if they perceive unattractive future monetary and non-monetary rewards from the existing small business model. They may therefore prefer to opt for an independent own founding. The attractiveness of intrinsic rewards that the parents have, however, may have a negative effect on the resolve to join the family business through corporate venturing efforts. The results thus underscore the role of SCLT in explaining the relationship between perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards and the choice of EME. SCLT emphasizes that outcome expectancy is likely to influence the individual's behaviour. The theory further argues that the higher the value the individual places on the outcome, the more willing they are to imitate the behaviour.

4.6.1.3 Hypotheses 3: There is a higher likelihood of the next generation with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who didn't.

Hypothesis 3 predicted the moderation of self-employed grandparents on the relationship between maternal and paternal business exposure and EME. From table 4.17, in both joining the family business and CV categories of EME, the analysis demonstrated that both interactions of maternal business exposure and self-employed grandparents were not significant.

4.6.1.4 Hypotheses 4: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV choices of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who didn't.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that exposure to enterprising grandparents moderated the relationship between perceived parental intrinsic rewards and EME and perceived parental extrinsic rewards and EME. From table 4.17, the interaction between perceived parental extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards and exposure to self-employed grandparents is positive and significant

(b= .429 s.e.=.125, p<.001). This indicates that observing parental entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of the next-generation family members joining entrepreneurship through the inheritance of their parent's business. This probability was 1.6 more for those next-generation members who had exposure to self-employed grandparents than those who didn't. Similarly, in the CV category, The interaction between perceived parental entrepreneurial extrinsic rewards and self-employed grandparents is significant (b= .417 s.e.=.125, p<.001), an indication that observing the extrinsic parental entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of the next-generation choice of joining entrepreneurship through CV in the family business as opposed to joining through independent own founding. This probability was 1.5 times higher for the next-generation family members who had self-employed grandparents than those who did not. These results compliment the findings of Laspita et al. (2012), who found that enterprising grandparents' reinforce the vicarious learning that occurs in parental entrepreneurial exposure and improves the entrepreneurial intention of the family business offspring. This study extends these findings by showing that this resolve may be manifested by the next-generation family member's choice of joining the family business.

4.6.1.5 Hypothesis 5: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choices of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who are motivated by a necessity as opposed to those motivated by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive

Hypothesis five predicted that necessity-driven and opportunity-driven entrepreneurial motivation moderated the relationship between parental business exposure and EME. From table 4.17, in the joining the family business category, the interaction of necessity-driven motivation and maternal entrepreneurial exposure was a significant predictor (b=-2.99, s.e.=.1.261, p<.05). This indicates that the next generation family members with a maternal business exposure and who were driven to join entrepreneurship through necessity as opposed to opportunity drive were less likely to join through inheritance of their parent's business as opposed to joining through independent own founding by a probability of 5%. In the CV category, maternal and paternal business exposure was not a significant predictor. This finding underscores evidence that necessity entrepreneurial uptake is more prevalent in developing economies than in developed ones (Wierenga, 2020). These findings also agree with conclusions on necessity-driven entrepreneurial uptake as a way of supplementing the house hold income. Scholars agree that necessity entrepreneurship is motivated by a need to increase

income/earnings (Dawson & Henley, 2012; Block & Wagner, 2010), particularly in developing countries in SSA where the choice between employment and entrepreneurship is curtailed by few and less remunerative employment opportunities that drive this "necessity driven survival" entrepreneurial uptake (Williams & Gurtoo, 2012; Ratten & Jones, 2018). Evidence also suggests that in developing countries, individuals, in addition to holding low-income part-time jobs, become necessity entrepreneurs in order to supplement their income (Gautam & Andersen, 2016; Mahama & Maharjan, 2017). The next-generation family members with maternal business exposure may view an alternative of starting their own business as offering a better chance of remuneration than joining their mother's business.

4.6.1.6 Hypothesis 6: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV choices of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members are motivated by a necessity as opposed to those motived by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive.

Hypothesis six predicted that the relationship between perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards and EME is moderated by the next generation's family members' motivation to venture. In the joining of the family business category, perceived parental entrepreneurial intrinsic rewards interaction with necessity-driven motivation was a significant predictor but at a 10% significant level ($b= 1.159$, $s.e.=.666$, $p<.01$). This is an indication that the perception of the parent's entrepreneurial intrinsic rewards increased the probability of the next generation choice of EME through joining the family business by 3.2 times for persons driven by necessity motivation as opposed to opportunity motivation. Opening the black box of parental business exposure confirms the argument of Zellweger et al. (2012), who reported that "necessity succession" in developing economies may be more prevalent than in developing countries. This necessity succession is the choice of joining in the family business as opposed to independent founding due to a lack of a better alternative source of employment. Observing the parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards may increase the resolve to join the family business as opposed to independent own founding in contexts where there are few options of formal and better remunerative employment and where there are challenges of independent own founding due to a lack of an enabling institutional environment. In this case, joining the family business may be viewed as providing a better and higher remunerative opportunity because the next-generation family member can leverage the existing networks and reputation of the established family business to navigate these hostile environments.

4.6.1.7 Hypothesis 7: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing CV or joining the FB categories of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who were involved in the family business while growing up than those who were not.

Hypothesis seven examined the moderation of FBI on the relationship between maternal business exposure and EME and paternal business exposure and EME. In joining the family business category, maternal and paternal business exposure interaction with FBI are not significant. However, in the CV category, the interaction of father exposure and FBI was a significant predictor (b= .782, s.e.=.201, p<.001). This indicates that the next generation family members with paternal business exposure and who were also involved in the running of the family business while growing up were 2.2 times more likely to choose the CV mode of entrepreneurial entry than those not involved in the family business while growing up. Thus, the results confirm that other than vicarious learning, the offspring of the family business may also learn directly through involvement in the day-to-day running of the family business, as illustrated by Van Auken, Stephens, et al. (2006a) and cited by Wang. This study extends these findings by showing that such exposure may be instrumental in shaping the choice of the next generation to come up with new lines of business within the family business of origin. - a CV mode of entrepreneurial entry.

4.6.1.8 Hypothesis 8: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of CV or joining the family business categories of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who were involved in the family business while growing up than those who were not.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that FBI moderated perceived parental intrinsic and extrinsic rewards influence on the choice of EME. However, from table 4.17, for both categories of EME (joining the family business and CV in the FB), the relationship was not significant.

4.6.1.9 Hypothesis 9: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is lower for the next-generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.

The ninth hypothesis predicted a moderation of formal employment outside of the FB in the relationship between parental business exposure (maternal and paternal business exposure) and EME. From table 4.17, the interaction effect of paternal business exposure and experience (0 to 1-year category) is significant (b= 4.250, s.e.=.750, p<.001). This indicates that the next generation family business members who had paternal business exposure and who also had a formal experience of 0 to 1 year in a business outside of their parent's business were 70 times more likely to join entrepreneurship through joining their parent's business than those next-generation family members with paternal business exposure and with more than three years of experience outside the family business. For the CV category, the results are not significant.

These results are akin to the findings of Pittino et al. (2018). These scholars reported that outside employment might affect the commitment of potential successors to the family business as it affects the economic- desirability of alternative employment options. This external exposure (outside of the family business) may lead to the development of other career interests that do not align with the current opportunities in the family business (Dawson et al., 2015). The study's results indicate that the lower the level of experience outside the family businesses, the more likely the next-generation family members will want to join their parents' business.

4.6.1.10 Hypothesis 10: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is lower for the next-generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.

The tenth hypothesis predicted that the period of formal employment outside of the family business moderates the relationship between PPER and the choice of EME. However, both perceived parental intrinsic rewards and perceived parental extrinsic rewards interaction with formal employment were not significant.

4.6.1.11 Control Variables

Several control variables were included in the model. These were marital status, gender, age, education level (captured as KCPE coded as 0, KCSE 1, Certificate or diploma 2,

undergraduate degree 3 and post-graduate degree 4) and training in a business-related area (categorised as none coded as 1 in the model, sales and marketing 2, strategic management 3 taxation 4 and other 5). In the model, only training in a business-related area was significant. In the joining of the family business category, strategic management training was a significant predictor (b= -2.015, s.e.=.861, p<.05). This implies that the next-generation family members who had training in strategic management were 13% less likely to join the family business than those who had other trainings. This underpins studies of the effects of human capital in the entrepreneurial process from intention to actual behaviour. Meta-analytical studies have confirmed that training in relevant areas results in entrepreneurial behaviour and success (Marvel et al., 2016; Unger et al., 2011). This study extends these findings by showing that strategic management may instil confidence in the next-generation family members and may inform their choice of starting a business away from their parent's business.

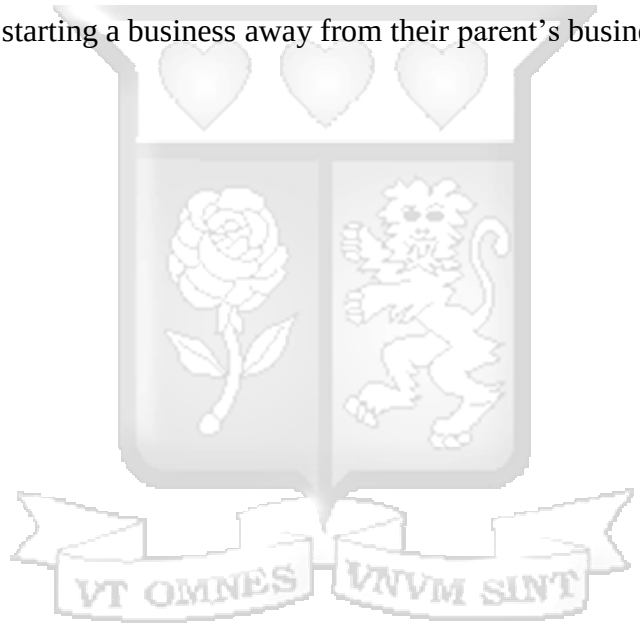

Table 4. 18: A summary of hypotheses tests

Objective	Hypotheses	Choice of EME(Joining the FB and CV as opposed to Independent own founding	Beta Coefficient	Standard Error	P- Value	Ex(beta)	Interpretation	Conclusion
1. **To investigate the influence of parental entrepreneurial exposure (PEE) on the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME) of the next-generation family members**	H1a: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with a paternal business exposure entering into entrepreneurship under the choices of joining the FB or CV mode of entrepreneurial entry as opposed to independent own founding choice of EME.	Joining the FB choice of entry	3.68	1.76	p>.05	39.6	The next- generation family business members who had paternal business exposure were 39.6 times more likely to enter into entrepreneurship through joining the FB as opposed to independent own founding	Though not significant, these results align with many scholarly findings on the role of social learning, particularly vicarious learning, in informing the career choices of the family business offspring.
		CV choice of entry	-.117	.894	p>.05	1.33	The next- generation family business members who had paternal business exposure were 1.3 times less likely to enter into entrepreneurship through CV in the FB as opposed to independent own founding	These results were not significant
	H1b: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with a maternal business exposure entering into entrepreneurship under the choices of joining the FB or CV mode of entrepreneurial entry as opposed to independent own founding choice of EME.	Joining the FB choice of entry	1.756	.756	p<.05	5.78	This indicates that the next-generation family members who had maternal business exposure were 5.8 times more likely to join entrepreneurship through inheritance of their parent's business than founding their own independent business	These results were significant.
		CV choice of entry	.283	.479	p>.05	1.33	This indicates that the next generation family members who had	These results were not significant

							maternal business exposure were 1.3 times more likely to join entrepreneurship through CV in the parent's business than founding their own independent business	
Objective	**Hypotheses**	**Choice of EME**	**Beta Coefficient**	**Standard Error**	**P-value**	**Ex (Beta)**	**Interpretation**	**Conclusion**
	Hypothesis 2a: Perceived intrinsic rewards influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members such that, there is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER (intrinsic) and the joining of entrepreneurship through the family business EME choice or CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding.	Joining the FB choice of EME	.125	.526	p>.05	1.1	This shows that the next-generation family members observant of the parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the likelihood of entrepreneurial entry through joining the family business as opposed to independent own founding by approximately 1.1 times	These results were not significant
		CV Choice of EME	-.805	.268	p<.05	.48	This shows that the next-generation family members observant of the parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards reduced the likelihood of joining entrepreneurship through CV as opposed to independent own founding by approximately 48%.	These results were significant.
	Hypothesis 2b: Perceived extrinsic rewards influence the choice of EME of the next-generation family members such that, there is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER (extrinsic) and the joining of entrepreneurship through the family business entry choice or CV in the family business as	Joining the FB choice of EME	.204	.526	p<.05	.82	This shows that the next generation family members observant of the parental extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards reduced the likelihood of joining entrepreneurship through joining the	These results were not significant

	opposed to independent own founding.						family business as opposed to independent own founding by approximately 82%.	
Objective	**Hypotheses**	**Choice of EME(Joining the FB and CV as opposed to Independent own founding**	**Beta Coeffici ent**	**Standard Error**	**P- Value**	**Ex(beta)**	**Interpretation**	**Conclusion**
		CV choice of entry	.633	.274	p<.05	1.9	This shows that the next generation family members observant of the parental extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the likelihood of joining entrepreneurship through CV as opposed to independent own founding by approximately 1.9 times	These results were significant.
2: To assess the role of exposure to self- employed grandparents on the relationship between PEE and EME	H3: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who did not.	Joining FB choice of EME	1.380	1.232	p>.05	4.0.	This shows that the next-generation family members with maternal business exposure were more likely to enter into entrepreneurship by joining the family business as opposed to independent own founding. This probability was 4 times higher for those who had exposure from enterprising grandparents than those who did not.	These results were not significant
		CV in the family business choice of EME	-1.544	.679	p>.05	.3	This shows that the next generation family members with maternal business exposure were more likely to enter into entrepreneurship by CV in the family business as opposed to	These results were not significant

							independent own founding. This probability was 30% less for those who had exposure from enterprising grandparents than those who did not.	
Objective	**Hypotheses**	**Choice of EME**	**Beta Coefficient**	**Standard Error**	**P-value**	**Ex (Beta)**	**Interpretation**	**Conclusion**
	H4: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who had a self-employed grandparent than those who did not.	Joining the family business	.429	.125	p<.05	1.6	This indicates that observing parental entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of the next-generation family members joining entrepreneurship through the inheritance of their parent's business. This probability was 1.6 more for those next-generation members who had exposure to self-employed grandparents than those who didn't.	These results were significant
		CV Choice of EME	.417	.125	p<.05	1.5	This indicates that observing parental entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of the next-generation family members joining entrepreneurship through CV in their parent's business. This probability was 1.5 more for those next-generation members who had exposure to self-employed grandparents than those who didn't.	

Objective	Hypotheses	Choice of EME(Joining the FB and CV as opposed to Independent own founding	Beta Coeffici ent	Standard Error	P- Value	Ex(beta)	Interpretation	Conclusion
3. To investigate the role of motivation to venture on the relationship between PEE and EME	H5: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who are motivated by a necessity as opposed to those motivated by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive.	Joining the FB Maternal Exposure* necessity	-2.99	1.261	p<.05	5% (0.05)	This indicates that the next generation family members with maternal business exposure and who were driven to join entrepreneurship through necessity as opposed to opportunity drive were less likely to join through inheritance of their parent's business as opposed to joining through independent own founding by a probability of 5%	These results are significant. In line with social learning theory, exposure to parental entrepreneurial behaviour offers vicarious learning through observation of parents as they run the family business and determine the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next generation family members.
		Cv choice of EME	-.635	.125	p>.05	5%	This indicates that the next generation family members with maternal business exposure and who were driven to join entrepreneurship through necessity as opposed to opportunity drive were less likely to join entrepreneurship through CV in their parent's business as opposed to joining through independent own founding by a probability of 5%	These results were not significant.
	H6: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who are motivated by a necessity as	Joining the FB choice of EME	1.158	.666	p>.05	3 times	This is an indication that the perception of the parent's entrepreneurial intrinsic rewards increased the	Results not significant

	opposed to those motived by an opportunity entrepreneurial drive.						probability of the next generation's choice of EME through joining the family business by 3.2 times for persons driven by necessity motivation as opposed to opportunity motivation	
4. To assess the role of family business involvement (FBI) on the relationship between PEE and EME	H7 There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family members with PBE choosing CV or joining the FB categories of EME as opposed to independent own founding. This likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members involved in the family business while growing up than those not.	Joining the FB choice of EME	.457	.324	p>.05	1.6 times	This indicates that the next-generation family members with paternal business exposure and who were also involved in the running of the family business while growing up were 1.6 times more likely to choose to join the family business entrepreneurial mode of entry if they had been involved in the family business than whose who had not been involved in the FB	These results were not significant
		CV choice of EME	.782	.020	p<.05	2.2 times	This indicates that the next generation family members with paternal business exposure and who were also involved in the running of the family business while growing up were 2.2 times more likely to choose CV mode of entrepreneurial entry than those not involved in the family business while growing up.	These results were significant. The results confirm the argument that other than vicarious learning, offspring of the family business may also learn directly through involvement in the day-to-day running of the family business

	There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of CV or joining the family business categories of EME as opposed to independent own founding and this likelihood is higher for the next-generation family members who were involved in the family business while growing up than those who were not.	Joining the FB	.084	.112	p>.05	1.5 times	This indicates that the next-generation family members' observance of parental extrinsic rewards increased the likelihood of entering into entrepreneurship through joining the FB and this likelihood was 1.5 times higher for those next-generation family members who were involved in the running of FB compared to those who were not	These results were not significant
		CV Choice of EME	1.195	1.494	p>.05	3.3 times	This indicates that the next-generation family members' observance of parental extrinsic rewards increased the likelihood of entering into entrepreneurship through joining the CV choice of EME and this likelihood was 3.3 times higher for those next-generation family members who were involved in the running of the FB compared to those who were not	These results were not significant
5: To assess the role of formal employment outside the FB on the relationship between PEE and EME	H9: There is a higher likelihood of the next-generation family with PBE choosing joining the FB or CV choice of EME and this likelihood is lower for the next-generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.	Joining the FB choice of EME	4.25	.75	p<.05	70times	This indicates that the next generation family business members who had paternal business exposure and who also had a formal experience of 0 to 1 year in a business outside of their parent's business were 70 times more likely to join entrepreneurship	These results were significant

							through joining their parent's business than those next-generation family members with paternal business exposure and with more than three years of experience outside the family business.	
		CV choice of EME	1.135	1.172	p>.05	3.1 times	This indicates that the next generation family business members who had paternal business exposure and who also had a formal experience of 0 to 1 year in a business outside of their parent's business were 70 times more likely to join entrepreneurship through joining their parent's business than those next-generation family members with paternal business exposure and with more than three years of experience outside the family business.	Results not significant
	H10: There is a higher likelihood of a positive relationship between PPER and the choice of joining the FB or CV and this likelihood is lower for the next-generation family members who were in a longer formal employment period outside the FB than those who were in a shorter period.	Joining the FB choice of EME	1.888	.824	p>.05	3.4 times	This indicates that the next generation observance of parental extrinsic rewards was more likely to enter into entrepreneurship through joining their parent's businesses, and this likelihood was 3.4 times more for those next-generation family members who also had a formal experience of 0 to 1 year in a business outside of their	

							parent's entrepreneurship compared to those who had more than three years of work experience outside of the FB	
		CV choice of EME	.255	.425	p>.05	0.7	This indicates that the next generation observance of parental extrinsic rewards results were more likely to enter into entrepreneurship through CV in the family business, and this likelihood was 70% less for those next generation family members whoo had a formal experience of 0 to 1 year in a business outside of their parent's entrepreneurship compared to those who had more than three years of work experience outside of the FB	Results not significant

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of this study. It first provided the profile of the respondents through descriptive statistics presented in the form of mean scores, standard deviation, frequency distribution and coefficient of variation. It further presented the results of the correlation analysis between the dependent variables and the independent variables. Further, the chapter also presented the results of inferential statistics from the formulated hypotheses. An econometric multinomial logit regression analysis was used to analyse the study hypotheses, and the confirmed hypotheses were anchored into the existing literature.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

While the previous chapter presented the major findings derived from the study, this chapter critically discusses these findings, highlighting the consistent and inconsistent areas of prior studies. An explanation is offered when the study findings are inconsistent with previous empirical work. From these, the theoretical and practical implications of the research are derived. The discussion is organized according to the study objectives. The overall aim of this study was to examine the intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurial behaviour by examining its effects on the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family members. From this, several hypotheses were formulated based on existing literature and gaps thereof, including an examination of the effect of several contingent factors that may affect the intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurial behaviour. A conceptual framework showing these relationships was developed in figure 2.1 in chapter two, which indicates the relationship between the study variables examined. A multinomial logit model was designed to test the study hypotheses. The analysis results showed parental business exposure influences the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next-generation family members. These results are further explained in the following sections.

5.2 Interpreting the Results of the Relationship between Parental Business Exposure and EME

The effect of family businesses as avenues for developing and growing entrepreneurs have interested entrepreneurship scholars in the last decade leading to a consensus that family businesses are a seedbed for nurturing an entrepreneurial mindset and entrepreneurial parents beget entrepreneurial offspring (Mungai & Velamuri, 2011; Lindquist et al., 2015; Almer et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). Most of the scholarly work, however, has focused on the intention stage in the entrepreneurial process resulting in calls to examine the effect of prior family business exposure in the entrepreneurial process beyond the intention stage (Zapkau et al., 2017). The first objective of this study sought to examine the effect of parental entrepreneurial exposure (captured as maternal business exposure and paternal business exposure) on the entrepreneurial mode of entry –a choice between joining the family business, CV in the family business and independent own founding among SME owners in Kenya.

The results from the multinomial analysis figure 4.17 revealed that the next-generation family members with maternal business exposure were 5.7 times more likely to join entrepreneurship by an inheritance choice of entry as opposed to independently founding their own business away from the FB (b=1.756, s.e.=.756, p<.05). Paternal business exposure also increases the likelihood of joining the FB as opposed to independent own founding by 39.6 times though the results are not significant. Thus parental business exposure increases the preference of joining FB as opposed to starting an independent business among the next-generation family members. These findings are contrary to entrepreneurial intention studies that reported that potential heirs of the family business prefer founding an independent business from their parents (Zellweger et al., 2011). Zellweger et al. (2011) concluded that the results were brought about by perceptions of loss of personal autonomy upon joining the family business that may deter the next generation from choosing the joining of the FB route. The contrary results, however, underpin the argument among entrepreneurial scholars that entrepreneurial intention may not fully reflect actual behaviour as the translation process may be enabled or impeded by situational and individual factors (Bogatyreva et al., 2019).

Thus, the differing results, in this case, could have been brought about by the geographical context of the family businesses to which the offspring were exposed. Unlike the study by Zellweger et al. (2011), start-ups in developing economies are marred by many obstacles. They are often resource-constrained, particularly in informational resources, delays in government permits and approvals and the process itself may be time-consuming (Van Gelderen et al., 2011). In developing economy contexts, evidence suggests that most micro and small businesses (MSE) close during the first three years of operation (Liedholm & Mead, 2013). A lack of market-supporting formal infrastructure also characterizes these contexts. Therefore, exposure to a family business may legitimize the family business as a better alternative than own founding mode of entry because of the perceived challenges of independently starting a business in these contexts. This is akin to the conclusions of Ge et al. (2019), who argue that family ties compensate for the lack of these facilitating institutions in such contexts. In the same vein, entrepreneurial mode of entry scholars have reported that individuals who face a high potential of risk and cost are likely to join an existing business rather than independently begin a start-up (Parker & Van Praag, 2012).

5.3 Interpreting the Results of the Relationship between PPER and EME

This study also sought to examine the relationship between perceived parental intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on the choice of EME of the next-generation family members. This implies that as the next-generation grows up exposed to enterprising parents in a family business, they can perceive the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards that their parents derived or are still deriving from running the family business. Even in instances where the extrinsic rewards may not be so clearly visible to the offspring, they can still perceive their parents to be satisfied and happy. The parents may be only enjoying the freedom of being their own bosses, but this could positively impact the offspring's entrepreneurial transition behaviour.

From table 4.17, the results indicate that under the CV category, both PPER extrinsic and intrinsic are significant predictors; (b= -.805 s.e.=.268, p<.05); and (b= .633 s.e.=.274, p<.05) respectively. This shows that the next-generation family members observant of the parental extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards reduced the likelihood of joining entrepreneurship through CV entrepreneurial mode of entry as opposed to independent own founding by approximately 48%. Interestingly, however, the perception of intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of joining entrepreneurship by approximately 1.9. The results are akin to the findings of De Massis et al. (2016), who argued that their attitude towards intra-family succession is influenced by situational factors such as the perceived positive performance of the parents' business, underscoring further the role of SCLT in explaining the effects of PPER in EME. Venter et al. (2005) also argued that potential successors might also leave the firm if they perceive unattractive future monetary and non-monetary rewards from the existing small business model.

Opening the black box of the family business exposure and examining the role of parental rewards in the entrepreneurial process revealed interesting and underexplored entrepreneurial entry-paths of the next-generation family business members. Scholars have only examined joining the family business or independent own founding entry paths. However, as highlighted in the literature review, these two conceptualisations of the mode of entrepreneurial entry may not be readily available for family businesses in developing and emerging economies. This is because most family businesses in these economies tend to be small family businesses (Ramírez-Pasillas et al., 2021) and, therefore, may not accommodate every next-generation family member. On the other hand, independent own founding may be an alternative option.

Still, start-ups in these economies face many obstacles, such as resource constraints and delays in government permits, and the formalisation process may be lengthy.

Consequently, the own–founding versus joining in the family business conceptualisation cannot fully illustrate the entrepreneurial career choices available to the offspring of business families. Evidence also suggests that next-generation family business members who engage in entrepreneurial initiatives (Cruz & Nordqvist, 2012) are primarily a millennial cohort (Hidayati et al., 2020) who would prefer more autonomy at work and are motivated by progression, especially in the use of technology (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Thus a CV route may be an option for this need for autonomy. Though the CV entry by the next-generation has been understudied in literature, the results of this study are an extension of the entrepreneurial intention study done by Wang et al. (2018) that reported that PPER significantly and positively influences the entrepreneurial intention of the family business offspring. Our study extends these findings by showing that PPER (intrinsic rewards) also informs the resolve for CV efforts by the next-generation family members.

5.4 Interpreting the Results of the Moderating Effect of Grandparents' Entrepreneurial Status on the Relationship Between PPER and the Choice of EME

This study further sought to examine the role of exposure to self-employed grandparents on the relationship between PPER and EME. From table 4.17, the interaction between perceived parental extrinsic rewards and exposure to self-employed grandparents is positive and significant (b= .429 s.e.=.125, p<.001). This indicates that observing the parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of the next-generation family members joining entrepreneurship through the inheritance of their parent's business. This probability was 1.5 times higher for next-generation members who had exposure to self-employed grandparents than those who didn't. Similarly, in the CV category, the interaction between perceived parental entrepreneurial extrinsic rewards and self-employed grandparents is significant (b= .417 s.e.=.125, p<.001), an indication that observing the parental extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of the next-generation choice of joining entrepreneurship through CV in the family business as opposed to joining through independent own founding. This probability was 1.5 times higher for the next-generation members with self-employed grandparents.

Though few studies have examined the critical role of grandparents in their grandchildren's occupational choices, these results are akin to the findings of a survey done by Laspita et al. (2012). They reported that grandparents have a reinforcing role in the vicarious learning the offspring get from their enterprising parents and its effects on the transmission of entrepreneurship behaviour. The findings also corroborate scholarly work on the kinship approach in entrepreneurship that illuminates the role of the extended family in facilitating the next generation's entrepreneurial process and providing the rationale for start-ups by the next generation family members (Verver & Koning, 2018). The current study hinges the moderation of grandparents' entrepreneurial status in this argument. They may act as a reinforcing force for the provision of learning given by the parents while growing up, shaping their resolve to join their parents' (family) business. The next generation of family members – the grandchildren- also strongly trusts the ideas that emanate from the grandparents.

In particular, these results add credence to the qualitative study by Khavul et al. (2009), who illustrated that East-African family business owners are characterized by strong family ties that constitute extended families, unlike family businesses in North America and Europe. This speaks to the argument of Zellweger et al. (2012) that in societies with loose family ties and high regard for autonomy, the next-generation family business members are less likely to choose a succession mode of entry. Grandparents are thus viewed as a source of wisdom by their grandchildren, as argued by Griggs et al. (2010). They influence the economic status of their grandchildren by transferring knowledge, values and family ethos (Portes et al., 2009). They can therefore be instrumental in the succession process in family businesses - in the grooming process of the next heir to the family business as they influence the resolve to join the family business through CV as opposed to independently starting a business. The grooming process of the next heir has been reported as a critical challenge for many family businesses (Sieger et al., 2016; Serna et al., 2021); thus, this study shows the role that grandparents can play in facilitating this process.

5.5 Interpreting of Moderating Effects of Motivation to Venture on the Relationship between Parental Business Exposure and EME

This study further sought to examine the role of the next-generation family member's motivation to venture captured from necessity/opportunity-driven dichotomy in the relationship between parental business exposure (maternal and paternal business exposure) and

the choice of EME. From table 4.17, in the joining the family business category, the interaction of necessity-driven motivation and maternal business exposure was a significant predictor (b=-2.99, s.e.=.1.261, p<.05). This indicates that the next generation family members with a maternal business exposure and who were driven to join entrepreneurship through necessity as opposed to opportunity drive were less likely to join through inheritance of their parent's business as opposed to joining through independent own founding by a probability of 5%.

This study reveals that the next-generation small business owners in Kenya from family businesses have a higher probability of choosing independent own founding than joining the FB when the motivation drive is a need for a higher income- a necessity entrepreneurial uptake. These results underscore the report of De Vita et al. (2014) that women entrepreneurship in SSA economies is mostly in the informal sector and is primarily unlicensed businesses established for subsistence purposes. Thus, the next generation family members exposed to their mother's businesses may opt to establish an independent business in search of better remuneration. The study also underscores evidence that the necessity entrepreneurial uptake is more prevalent in developing and developed economies (Wierenga, 2020) as a way of supplementing income. Scholars agree that necessity entrepreneurship is motivated by a need to increase income/earnings (Dawson & Henley, 2012; Block & Wagner, 2010), particularly in developing countries in SSA where the choice between employment and entrepreneurship is curtailed by few and less remunerative employment opportunities that drive this "necessity driven survival" entrepreneurial uptake (Williams & Gurtoo, 2012; Ratten & Jones, 2018). Evidence also suggests that in developing countries, individuals, in addition to holding low-income part-time jobs, become necessity entrepreneurs in order to supplement their income (Gautam & Andersen, 2016; Mahama & Maharjan, 2017). The next-generation family members may view an alternative of starting their own business as offering a better chance of remuneration than joining their mother's business.

5.6 Interpreting the Moderating Effects of Motivation to Venture on the Relationship between PPER and EME

A further role of motivation to venture into the relationship between PPER and EME was examined. In table 4.17, In the joining of the family business category, perceived parental entrepreneurial intrinsic rewards interaction with necessity-driven motivation was a significant predictor but at a 10% significant level (b= 1.159, s.e.=.666, p<.01). This is an indication that the perception of the parent's entrepreneurial intrinsic rewards increased the probability of the

next generation choice of EME through joining the family business category by a probability of approximately 3.2 for persons driven by necessity motivation as opposed to opportunity motivation. Necessity drive, therefore, was a reinforcing factor in the choice of joining the family business for individuals who perceived their parents as intrinsically enjoying their entrepreneurial rewards.

These results underscore the argument of Zellweger et al. (2012) that necessity succession may be more prevalent in developing countries than in developed countries due to high unemployment rates and a lack of supportive market infrastructure. These findings underscore a need for greater support for the next-generation family members, maybe through training and mentoring to build their knowledge and skills that may improve the quality of their entrepreneurial activities even as they choose to join the family business. Indeed, as Kandade et al. (2021) illustrate in their interpretation of narratives of 24 next-generation leaders of family businesses in India, the quality of family relationships that entails early affiliation with the business, mutual obligation and mentoring holds the key to transforming family successors to successful business leaders. Next-generation post-entry into entrepreneurship could also be accompanied by clear hands-on training guidelines that entail a developmental path underpinned by innovation and learning, for example, through corporate venturing efforts (Au et al., 2013) that stress opportunity identification and exploitation. The need for such exposure in grooming the strategic orientation of the next-generation family members was also underscored by Jaskiewicz et al. (2015) in their interpretation of the narratives of inductive inquiry from 21 wineries in their 11th generation in Germany. These scholars reported that exposure mechanisms coupled with conversations from previous owners about their experiences and entrepreneurial achievements that underscore resilience were key in motivating the next-generation members to undertake strategic activities that foster growth of the family business and transgenerational entrepreneurship.

5.7 Interpreting the Results of the Moderation of FBI on the Relationship between Parental Business Exposure and EME

The results in table 4.17 also reveal that in the CV category, the interaction between paternal business exposure and FBI was a significant predictor (b= .782, s.e.=.201, p<.001). This indicates that the next generation family members with paternal business exposure and who were also involved in the running of the family business while growing up were 2.1 times more

likely to choose the CV mode of entrepreneurial entry than those not involved in the family business while growing up.

The involvement of the family business offspring may occur as a natural behaviour as they are expected to help the family business in their role as family members (Murphy & Lambrechts, 2015). Through "learning by doing, " the family business's offspring acquires human capital and deep tacit knowledge about the family business concerning its processes, competitors, and customers (Dyer, 1986). The current study underscores the effects of such exposure by showing that the more involved in FB the offspring is, the more their entrepreneurial spirit is enlivened, and the more likely they are to transition to the family business through corporate venturing efforts.

The argument is that while the paternal business exposure may influence the decision of the next-generation family members to join the family business, the involvement in the operations of the family business may reveal the finer details of how the family business is run and hence provide more knowledge on other untapped areas of business which the next -generation may be ready to explore through a CV approach. This is akin to the recent findings of Vardaman and Montague-Mfuni (2021), where the involvement of the potential successor led to an awareness of the business processes at every step of the production and shipping in a textile family business. Through this awareness, the offspring of the family business could also develop a keen eye for business opportunities and decision-making skills. Family business involvement may also expose the culture of the family business to the next-generation, who may wish for more autonomy to escape this dominant culture. For example, scholars have reported a dark side of family business exposure, such as parental failure in entrepreneurship, which reduces the entrepreneurial intention of the family business offspring (Gimenez-Jimenez et al., 2020; Mungai & Velamuri, 2011). Criaco et al. (2017) showed that family business exposure (FBE) might inhibit entrepreneurial intention. They observed that FBE may, on the one hand, lead to a negative view of entrepreneurship as a career if the offspring is exposed to an unsuccessful business or conversely lead to the development of feelings of inferiority if the exposure is to a very successful family business. Corporate venturing may therefore be an attractive avenue to practice their entrepreneurial capacity in order to enhance their entrepreneurial self-efficacy in running a business.

5.8 Interpreting the Results of the Moderating Role of Formal Employment on the Relationship Between Parental Business Exposure and the Choice of EME

The results from the interaction effects between paternal business exposure and formal employment were a significant predictor, as shown it table 4.17 (b=4.250, s.e.=.750, p<.001). This indicates that the next-generation family business members who had paternal business exposure and who also had a formal experience of 0 to 1 year in a business outside of their parents' business were 70 times more likely to join entrepreneurship through joining their parents' business than those next-generation family members with paternal business exposure and with more than three years of experience outside the family business. This indicates that the more experience outside the family business, the more likely the next generation will opt for a more independent choice of entry from the FB.

As highlighted in the literature review, most entrepreneurs usually will have worked for established organizations (Freeman, 1986). Some scholars have estimated this effect to be 9 out of 10 entrepreneurs who will have worked for an established organization before launching a new venture (Sørensen & Fassiotto, 2011). Family businesses seeking intergenerational continuity expect the offspring to want to take over the family business. However, formal employment might have an under-explored effect on this transition. For example, it might delay or dissuade a youngster of a family business from joining the family business, mainly if the family business is not a successful venture. If formal employment is attractive and well-managed with a reward system, it may dissuade a youngster from joining the family business. This study confirms this argument by showing that the lower the exposure period in formal organisations other than the FB, the more likely the next generation will choose to join the family business as opposed to independent own founding.

The longer an individual is exposed to a formal organisation other than the FB, the more likely they will discover alternative opportunities and have the capital needed to exploit them. Therefore, the next-generation business owners may opt for a different mode of entrepreneurial entry, such as independent own founding, when they have more formal work experience because they have the financial means to try out their entrepreneurial capabilities. Formal employment may also offer a competing experience from the experience gained while growing up in a business family. It may even persuade or dissuade a family business's offspring from joining the family business, depending on how successful and well-managed it is. Attachment to a well-managed and well-compensated formal employment may also deter joining the family

business. These findings underpin the notion that an individual's work environment plays a significant role in shaping entrepreneurial decisions (Nanda & Sørensen, 2008).

5.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a critical analysis of the study findings indicating explanations for the results of the analysis and highlighting consistent and inconsistent areas with existing literature. The study's main aim was to examine the intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurial behaviour among the next-generation family business members, specifically examining this influence on their choice of EME. A multinomial logit analysis was done to investigate the likelihood of the next generation choice of EME categorised into three: joining the family business, corporate venturing in the family business or independent own founding away from the FB. The influence of parental business exposure captured as either maternal or paternal business exposure on the choice of EME was examined. Further, the black box of this exposure was opened, and the influence of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards (PPER) captured as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards was also examined on the choice of EME. The role of several other factors was also examined: the role of exposure to self-employed grandparents, motivation to venture captured through necessity/ opportunity dichotomy, the role of the degree of the offspring family business involvement and the role of the period of formal employment outside of the family business.

From the analysis, parental business exposure (maternal) was a significant predictor. It increases the probability of joining the family business as opposed to EME's independent own founding choice. PPER was also a significant predictor. Perceived parental intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding, while perceived parental extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards reduced the likelihood of CV choice of EME as opposed to independent own founding. The role of grandparents in the choice of EME was also confirmed in this study. Observing the parental intrinsic and extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of the next-generation family members joining entrepreneurship through an inheritance and CV choices of EME. This effect was 1.5 times more in both cases than the choice of independent own founding for those next-generation members who had exposure to self-employed grandparents than those who didn't. The role of motivation to venture also revealed interesting findings. The next generation family members with a maternal business exposure and who were motivated by a need to earn a higher income – a proxy for necessity entrepreneurship as opposed to opportunity

entrepreneurship drive were less likely to join through inheritance of their parent's business than independent own founding. In this case, the opening of the black box of parental business exposure revealed that perception of the parental entrepreneurial intrinsic rewards increased the likelihood of the next-generation choice of EME through joining the family business by 3.2 times for persons driven by necessity motivation as opposed to opportunity motivation.

A further role of the degree of family business involvement revealed that that the next generation family members with a paternal business exposure and who were also involved in the running of the family business while growing up were 2.1 times more likely to choose CV mode of entrepreneurial entry than those who were not involved in the family business while growing. Finally, the interaction effect of paternal business exposure and formal employment was also a significant predictor such that the next generation family business members who had paternal business exposure and who also had a formal experience of 0 to 1 year in a business outside of their parents business were 70 times more likely to join entrepreneurship through joining their parents business than those next generation family members with paternal business exposure and with more than three years of experience outside the family business. In each result, this chapter has critically discussed the findings and has anchored them to existing studies.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

This study sought to investigate the intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurial behaviour among SME owners in Kenya who have had a family business exposure by examining their choice of EME. EME was conceptualised as a choice of either joining entrepreneurship through joining the family business (inheriting the family business), corporate venturing in the FB or independent own founding. This chapter summarises the study's findings, suggests the implication of the research to theory, practice and policy and suggests avenues for future research. It begins with an introduction in section 6.1, recaps the study objectives in section 6.2, the research methods adopted in section 6.3, a summary of the findings in section 6.4 and the research conclusion in section 6.5. It then gives the study's contribution in section 6.6 and the limitations of the study as avenues for further research in section 6.7.

6.2 Research Objectives

The study sought to examine the intergenerational influence of entrepreneurship by examining several objectives. The first objective sought to establish the relationship between parental entrepreneurial exposure on the choice of entrepreneurial mode of entry of the next generation family members. This objective sought to illustrate the influence of maternal, paternal and parental entrepreneurial rewards on the choice of EME of the next-generation family members. The second one established the role of exposure to self- employed grandparents on the relationship between parental entrepreneurial exposure and the choice of EME. The third objective was the role of motivation to venture captured as a dichotomy of necessity driven versus opportunity driven motivation on the relationship between parental entrepreneurial exposure and the choice of EME. This motive aided in the understanding of the quality of entrepreneurial uptake of the next-generation family members. It would therefore assist family businesses and policy makers to better engage the next heir in the succession process. A further investigation of the effect of the degree of family business involvement on the relationship between PEE and EME was also established in order to offer practical guidance to family businesses on the critical role of hands-on approach in grooming the next heir. Finally, the role of formal employment outside the FB on the relationship between PEE and EME was also

established to understand better the factors that may shape the decision of the next generation family member's choice of association with the FB.

6.3 Research Methods

The study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional research design. The researcher adopted an objectivism ontological approach to uncover the choice of EME of the next-generation family members through the determination of various relationships measured without the subjective influence of the next-generation family members. A post-positivism epistemological approach was also adopted in line with a quantitative research design where hypotheses were developed to uncover the cause and effect of an objective reality. The study targeted 560 next-generation family members. The response rate was, however, 440 next-generation family members. Analysis was done at the descriptive level and inferential levels. A multinomial logit model was chosen for a rigorous data analysis capable of showing the significance of the independent variables on the dependent variables.

6.4 Summary of the Findings

This section summarises the research findings organised according to the study's objectives. It begins with a summary of the descriptive analysis and then proceeds with an overview of the findings summarised by each aim of the study.

6.4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Primary data through questionnaires was collected through a personal interview approach. The targeted respondents were formal SME owners in four counties in Nairobi Metropolitan Service (NMS) in Kenya; Nairobi, Machakos, Kiambu and Kajiado. The collected data was cleaned, coded and input into SPSS version 25 before commencing the analysis. SPSS was then used to conduct the data analysis at two levels: descriptive statistics and inferential analysis.

From the descriptive analysis, the respondents were predominantly male, 84% in comparison with 15% female, a confirmation that most women-owned businesses in developing countries are in the informal sector. The respondents also had high general and specific human capital. This is confirmed by the fact that over half of them had attained a university degree, and about 66% had been trained in business-related areas such as taxation and strategic management. Furthermore, over 86% also operated their main business for over three years. Regarding the study variables, about 52% had paternal business exposure, and about 24% had maternal

business exposure. On the entrepreneurial mode of entry (EME) variable, about 7% became entrepreneurs by joining their parents' businesses.

In comparison, about 29% through CV in their parents' business and about 64% chose to start their own independent business away from their parents. For the grandparents' entrepreneurial status, 40% indicated that their grandparents own or have ever owned a business. On necessity/opportunity-motivated entrepreneurial uptake, about 33% indicated they became entrepreneurs motivated to earn a higher income, while about 45% were motivated by a need to fill an open opportunity in the market. In the perceived parental entrepreneurial reward variable, 61% affirmed that having a business provided their parents with an income that satisfied them- a proxy for intrinsic rewards. In the family business involvement variable (FBI), 35% indicated that their family taught them how to manage the business as a proxy for FBI. Finally, on exposure to formal work outside of the FB, about 6% had less than 1 year of experience in an organisation other than the FB, about 17% had 1 to 3 years of experience, and about 80% had more than 3 years of experience.

6.4.2 The Relationship between Parental Entrepreneurial exposure and EME

The study's first objective sought to investigate the relationship between parental entrepreneurial exposure (PEE) and the choice of EME among the offspring of the FB. This PEE was decomposed into maternal business exposure, paternal business exposure and perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards. The PPER was further examined as either perceived parent intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards or perceived parental extrinsic rewards. The choice of EME was conceptualised as comprising three categories: joining the FB, CV in the FB and independent founding away from FB.

In inferential statistics, the relationship of these study variables was established by first establishing the extent to which the study variables are dependent on each other through correlation analysis and secondly by establishing the likelihood of the next generation family member's choice of either joining the FB or CV in the family business as opposed to independent own founding (reference category) through a multinomial logit analysis. Maternal and paternal business exposure was positively correlated with joining the family business mode of entry, positively correlated with CV in the FB and negatively correlated with independent own founding. A multinomial analysis further revealed that individuals with paternal and maternal business exposure were more likely to enter into entrepreneurship by joining their parents' business though only maternal business exposure was a significant predictor. This

implied that vicarious learning through parental business exposure positively influences joining the family business among the next-generation family members and dissuades independent founding. These results suggest that in Kenya, growing up in a family business legitimizes the family business as a better alternative to an independent start-up. Family businesses provide a sense of security for the next-generation family members as a more accessible avenue for starting a business in contexts where many obstacles mar the start-up process. Therefore, family businesses in Kenya may compensate for the lack of or minimal formal market-supporting infrastructure. The next-generation family members may view them as a less costly and less risky avenue for self-employment.

Opening the black box of parental business exposure and examining the effects of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards revealed that extrinsic and intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards positively correlated with the choice of joining the family business and CV in the family business but negatively correlated with independent own founding. The results of the multinomial analysis showed that the next-generation family members' perception of their parents' extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards reduced the likelihood of joining entrepreneurship through CV mode of entry as opposed to independent own founding by approximately 48%. Interestingly, however, the perception of intrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased the probability of joining entrepreneurship by approximately 1.9. These results underscore previous studies that have argued that the next heir's attitude towards intra-family succession is influenced by the family business situational factors such as perceived positive/negative performance of the parent's business or perception of unattractive future monetary or non-monetary rewards.

6.4.3 The Role of Exposure to Self-employed Grandparents on the Relationship between PEE and EME

In this objective, the analysis revealed that the PPER-EME link is reinforced by exposure to enterprising grandparents. Specifically, the next generation's observance of the parental intrinsic and extrinsic entrepreneurial rewards increased their probability of choosing to join the FB and CV as opposed to independent own founding for individuals who had self-employed grandparents as opposed to those who did not. These results thus underscore the critical reinforcing role that grandparents may have in the intergenerational succession process of family businesses in Kenya. The results underscore the scholarly work on the kinship approach

in entrepreneurship that illuminates the role of the extended family in facilitating the next generation's entrepreneurial process and providing the rationale for start-ups by the next generation family members (Verver & Koning, 2018).

6.4.4 The Role of Motivation to Venture on the Relationship between PEE and EME

In the analysis of the moderation of the motivation to venture, the study revealed that the next generation family members with maternal business exposure have a higher probability of choosing independent own founding than joining the FB when the motivation drive is a need for a higher income- a necessity entrepreneurial uptake. These findings explain how exposure to small family businesses affects the next-generation family members. Exposure to small subsistence family businesses may increase the drive to establish new independent businesses in an effort to develop supplementary income or better remunerative businesses. These conclusions were further reinforced by the findings of the moderation effect of motivation to venture into the relationship between PPER and EME. Observing the parental rewards increase the probability of joining the FB as opposed to own founding for individuals whose drive was out of necessity. The study thus highlights the importance of support mechanisms for the next heir of the family business through training underpinned by innovation and hands-on training in order to bolster the quality of their entrepreneurial uptake.

6.4.5 The Role of FBI in the Relationship between PEE and EME

In the analysis of the role of the degree of the next-generation's family business involvement in the relationship between PEE and EME, the next-generation family business members with paternal business exposure and who were also involved in the running of the business while growing up were more likely to join entrepreneurship through CV in the family business than through independent own founding. Exposure to the family business through learning by doing offers a route for the next generation to learn about the business and production processes, which may provide a platform for strategic thinking and renewal. This strategic renewal leads to the growth of the family business across generations.

6.4.6 The Role of Formal Employment Outside the FB on the relationship between PEE and EME

The moderating role of the period of formal employment outside of the family business was also examined. The results indicated that the longer the next-generation family member stays

in outside employment, the less likely they will want to engage with the family business either through joining the FB (an inheritance approach) or through the CV in the FB. Exposure to formal employment may reveal alternative opportunities and provide the capital needed to exploit newly conceived opportunities. Therefore, the next-generation business owners may opt for a different mode of entrepreneurial entry, such as independent own founding, because they have the financial means to try out their entrepreneurial capabilities. Formal employment may also offer a competing experience from the experience gained while growing up in a business family. It may even persuade or dissuade a family business's offspring from joining the family business, depending on how successful and well-managed it is. Attachment to a well-managed and well-compensated formal employment may also deter joining the family business. These findings underscore the role of the work environment in shaping entrepreneurial decisions (Nanda & Sørensen, 2008).

6.5 Conclusion

The study sought to examine the intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurial behaviour among next-generation family members in Kenya who are owner-managers in the SME sector. This post-entry entrepreneurial behaviour was examined through the lens of entrepreneurial mode of entry conceptualised as the choice of joining the FB, corporate venturing in the FB or independent own founding. The influence of parental entrepreneurial exposure on these choices of EME was examined. Parental entrepreneurial exposure was captured as maternal business exposure, paternal business exposure and perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards. Several factors were also examined in the relationship between PEE and EME: Exposure to self-employed grandparents, motivation to venture (necessity driven/ opportunity driven), the degree of the offspring's family business involvement and finally, the role of formal employment outside of the FB.

From the significant results of the influence of PEE on EME, the study concluded that small family businesses– the dominant form of family businesses in developing countries- also act as suppliers of entrepreneurs for these economies. Thus exposure to enterprising families has the advantage of developing entrepreneurs, especially among the offspring of the family business. Post-entry behaviour of this effect reveals that this vicarious learning results in the likelihood of joining the family business of origin as opposed to starting their own independent business. Moderating results of exposure to self- employed grandparents also were interesting because they revealed that in such contexts, family businesses have the advantage of tapping

into extended households, such as grandparents, during the intergenerational succession process as they may help improve the resolve of the next-generation family members to join the family business- a common challenge among many family businesses, either through succession or corporate venturing in the FB. The moderating results of motivation to venture to inform of necessity/opportunity dichotomy revealed that the next-generation family members become entrepreneurs motivated by a need to earn a higher income- a necessity entrepreneurial motivation, which increases their likelihood of independent own founding when they are exposed to a maternal business. In addition, the next generation's perception of their parent's entrepreneurial rewards also increases the probability of joining the FB, motivated by the need to earn a higher income. These results thus caution the intergenerational succession process of family businesses in Kenya to be accompanied by post-entry training to develop the entrepreneurial capacity and improve the quality of entrepreneurship post-succession to enhance the growth and longevity of the family business.

From the findings of the significant results of the influence of perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards on the probability of the next-generation's choice of joining the FB or corporate venturing in the FB as opposed to independent own founding of the next-generation family members, the study reinforces existing literature that emphasizes that conversations in the family among enterprising parents and their offspring matter. From these conversations, the offspring appraises what it is like to run a business which leads to an inclination to start a business. Besides, with regard to the entrepreneurial entry mode choices of the family business offspring, these conversations may lead to a conception of independent business ideas which the offspring may be willing to engage in within the family business through corporate venturing. Au et al. (2013), for example, reported that CV could be incorporated into the succession process to develop the entrepreneurial capacity of the next generation of family members. These scholars examined the case of a Hong Kong company that incubates the next-generation family members through a step-by-step process that culminates with the development of new lines of business which are absorbed in the mother company through a shareholding scheme as the next-generation family member joins the top management team. Thus family businesses in Kenya may need to foster family assemblies that deliberately introduce conversations that may underpin the benefits of running a family business. From these, the next-generation can perceive the rewards the parents derive from running the family business.

The moderating results of family business involvement on the association of PEE and EME also revealed that learning by doing further reinforces the probability of the next generation's choice of CV in the FB through participation in the happenings and running of the family business. Thus, family businesses in Kenya need to start engaging the next-generation through internships in the family business when on holiday. This exposes them to strategic areas they may want to venture through CV. The moderating role of formal employment illuminated that the PPER CV relationship is reduced by exposure through formal work in organizations other than the family business. This could indicate that such exposure further reinforces the need for autonomy. One way to bring back the benefits of such exposure to the family business could be to encourage external corporate venturing where the businesses formed are completely autonomous from the family business.

6.6 Contributions of the Study

The findings of this study provide implications for entrepreneurship policy, family business practices, particularly in developing countries with similarities to Kenya and theory. These are further elaborated on in the following sections.

6.4.1 Policy Contribution

This study's findings provide some implications that may be important for entrepreneurship policies in Kenya. Recognizing the role of small family businesses in the supply of entrepreneurs contributes to comprehending how to stimulate entrepreneurs' uptake while considering the role played by families. An understanding of how small family businesses influence entrepreneurial outcomes will not only facilitate the refinement of policies geared towards entrepreneurial uptake but also an understanding of how to foster entrepreneurial families and an appreciation of the critical role of social context and embeddedness for entrepreneurs. At the moment in Kenya, there are no policies or laws that offer guidance on family business practice. this study offers a foundation for the need for fine grained polices that may be geared towards engagement of the next generation family members. This is because a concern for policymakers is the closure of small family businesses due to the dearth of possible successors. This may result in a loss in economic value, especially job losses. Indeed, the media in Kenya is rife with many examples of family businesses that have collapsed due to poor intergenerational succession processes arising from a lack of ready and willing next-generation successors. As Parker and Van Praag (2012) argue, the focus of entrepreneurship policy needs to be complemented with efforts to preserve the economic value already embodied in

established entrepreneurial ventures. Incentives geared towards stimulating the gross entry of entrepreneurship also need to discriminate according to the mode of entry as an entrepreneur considering a business takeover may have different needs from one considering a start-up.

6.4.2 Contribution to Theory

As far as the theoretical contribution of this study is concerned, the study contributes to our understanding of the same related constructs that have been explored in-depth in previous literature concerning the social learning theory (SLT) and social cognitive learning theory (SCLT) and entrepreneurial behaviour in business families, that is, the link between parental entrepreneurial exposure and the offspring entrepreneurial process, examining moderator variables of this link. By so doing, the study aids in gaining better clarity on the mechanisms of the impact of SLT and SCLT on entrepreneurial behaviour among family businesses. In particular, previous empirical findings have yielded mixed results (Zapkau et al., 2017). This research reinforces the necessity to develop integrative conceptual models that acknowledge the relationship between SLT and SCLT and that the individual entrepreneurial process is not straightforward. On the contrary, numerous other variables may reinforce or weaken it. For example, through the adoption of the Kingship model, the study reveals that exposure to self-employed grandparents has a reinforcing role on the next generation's choice of joining the FB as opposed to independent own founding. Similarly, through the push and pull model, the study reveals that the entry into the FB may be out of a necessity drive as opposed to opportunity drive. In the same vein, the study further responds to calls by researchers to open the black box of family business exposure (Wang et al., 2018) and examine the content of this exposure and its effects on the entrepreneurial process. By examining the influence of the perceived parental entrepreneurial exposure on the choice of EME of the next generation, the study further reinforces the SCLT by showing how social contexts may inform the choice of entrepreneurial behaviour.

Thus the integration of several theoretical approaches (SLT, SCLT, push and pull theory and HCT) in various hypotheses may aid in explaining intergenerational transmission of entrepreneurial behaviour. It thus expands the previous studies on the role of family business exposure in the entrepreneurial process based on one theoretical framework, either social learning theory or the theory of planned behaviour and elucidates the complexity of this phenomenon through a multi- theoretical perspective.

Methodologically, the study responds to calls from scholars to examine the role of FBE in the entrepreneurial process beyond the intention stage, as empirical evidence indicates that intention is not a full reflection of entrepreneurial action (Adam & Fayolle, 2015) with evidence suggesting that situational and contextual factors may facilitate or impede the conversion of entrepreneurial intention into entrepreneurial action. This study, however, drew data from the next-generation family members in the SME sector, that is, owner-managers already practising entrepreneurship in Kenya.

Finally, a sample from a developing context in East Africa is helpful to demonstrate what the outcomes of exposure to business families in different cultural contexts are like. The intergenerational succession process may be context-specific as business families differ in various contexts. Khavul et al. (2009) illustration highlight the domination of kinship ties and extended family households in East African business families, unlike in developed countries. The context of the study also further illuminates the findings of the global entrepreneurship monitor that report that lower middle income countries such as Kenya are characterised by large number of subsistence entrepreneurs and few mid-sized and large enterprises (Reynolds et al. 2002). The family business may therefore offer an alternative route to the large number of youngsters who may lack formal employment. The empirical findings from this study indicate the role of enterprising grandparents in reinforcing the resolve to join the family business by the next-generation of family members. Furthermore, East Africa is dominated by small family businesses. Despite the assumption that most small family businesses may not have an objective of establishing entrepreneurial legacies across generations (Ramírez-Pasillas et al., 2021), this study empirically shows that they are a great source of entrepreneurs' supply in the economy.

6.4.3 Contribution to Family Business Practice

The knowledge derived from this study can promote better family business practices that can enhance and better manage the intergenerational succession process. The grooming of the next-generation family members needs to be a hands-on approach through family business involvement, internships during holidays and the corporate venturing approach. This will not only develop their entrepreneurial capacity but also improve the quality of their entrepreneurial undertakings. It will also help increase their readiness to take over the family business and be more opportunity-driven to grow the family of origin. The role of grandparents in the growth and development of their grandchildren also needs to be emphasized. The results indicate that

the succession process is enhanced by exposure to enterprising grandparents. This underscores their role as a reference point to their grandchildren when making career occupational decisions.

The study also reinforces the arguments of Jaskiewicz et al. (2015) and Murphy and Lambrechts (2015) that exposure to the family business effects starts from childhood, and their effects are felt until adulthood. However, this exposure cannot be passive and must comprise conversations on the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards experienced by running the business. As Wang et al. (2018) point out, these conversations could be about the good experiences that family business owners go through while running the family business and the actual rewards received from engaging in the family business. Family business scholars have recommended family assemblies- family meetings- constituting all adult children, including in-laws. Davis (2016) suggests that as soon as children reach the age of 16, they must attend family assemblies. In the family assembly, the family typically learns about the family business through presentations done by managers of the family business (both family and non-family members) about the company's direction. Kenyan family businesses need to incorporate such best practices to foster conversations that can enhance the readiness of potential successors.

6.7 Study Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

This study has several limitations that may be avenues for future research. First, several methodological and theoretical limitations are acknowledged. The study examined the role of SCLT and SLT in explaining the EME choice of the next generation family members. Other theories such as appraisal theory could be used as avenues for future research on this relationship. Other moderators and mediators such as influence of big five personality factors may also be investigated in future research. The study also adopted a cross- sectional survey design that is prone to endogeneity issues and common method bias. Future studies could benefit from adopting a longitudinal design to overcome these limitations. Secondly, the results apply primarily to an emerging country context similar to Kenya. According to the World Bank, Kenya is ranked as a lower-middle-income country with a high unemployment rate of 10.4% (World Bank, 2020). Scholars have thus called for a distinction between various emerging economies as they are different based on their size, economic path and history and may produce different research results (Cao & Shi, 2021). This study did not examine the effects of parental entrepreneurial status on the mode of entrepreneurial entry from middle-income emerging economies such as India and China. Hence, this would be an interesting

avenue for future research to see how the results would differ in response to recent calls to replicate family business studies across contexts (Brinkerink et al., 2022). Thirdly, the study used the push and pull framework to examine the necessity/opportunity dichotomy and its effects on the mode of entrepreneurial entry. Future research could use a needs-based approach to map out the necessity/opportunity motivation in a continuum (Dencker et al., 2021; Coffman & Sunny, 2020). Such results may yield interesting insights for family businesses. Future research could examine other dichotomies prevalent in developing contexts, as the necessity/ opportunity dichotomy could be restrictive. Formal/informal dichotomy, for example, could yield interesting findings (Desai, 2011; Autio & Fu, 2015)

Fourthly, in a perfect setting, the researcher could have collected data not from the SME owners alone but also from their parents. The lack of multiple data sources may affect the study's robustness. Future scholars may examine other sources of data, for example, a qualitative study collecting data from parent entrepreneurs, as the process of socialisation may have different effects on the entrepreneurial process, including the choice of the mode of entry for other individuals (Schmitt-Rodermund, 2004). This study did not also examine the impact of culture on the mode of entrepreneurial entry. Scholarly work across various nations suggests that entrepreneurial rates are influenced by cultural dimensions such as socially supportive versus performance-based cultures (Stephan & Uhlaner, 2010). Kenya is also a multi-ethnic country and each ethnic group may contain its own unique community culture. Future research could benefit from examining the interaction effects of these cultural dimensions on the mode of entrepreneurial entry.

Further, future scholarly work could also explore a hybrid entrepreneurial entry path by the next-generation family members. Described as the "engagement in self-employment activity while simultaneously holding a primary job" (Folta et al., 2010), this form of incremental entry into entrepreneurship has been reported to outnumber pure entrepreneurial entry (Burke et al., 2008). For example, over 50% of nascent entrepreneurs in the United States are also employed on a full-time basis (Reynolds et al., 2004), while the figure is even higher in Germany (64%) (Metzger, 2014). Due to this high prevalence of hybrid entrepreneurs, scholars have emphasized that considering this type of entrepreneurial entry is critical to discriminate the policies geared towards entrepreneurial entry. Disrupting factors in the current economic environment, such as non-standard working hours, changes in career paths and the COVID-19 Pandemic, could be essential in investigating this rising phenomenon. Finally, this study assumed that the next-generation members' choices to either join FB or CV in the FB or own

their business independently were definitive choices and that they did not try one or two of the other choices before settling on one. A follow-up phone call to thirty respondents also confirmed this assumption. Future research could further confirm the entrepreneurial entry paths of the next generation in order to offer a finer-grained understanding of the entrepreneurial behaviour of the next-generation family members.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Step Processing Summary of MLM

Step Summary

Model	Action	Effect(s)	Model Fitting Criteria			Effect Selection Tests		
			AIC	BIC	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square[a]	df	Sig.
0	Entered	Intercept, Father, Mother, Income, Feeling, MaritalStatus, Gender, Training, Education, Age	533.181	661.516	465.181	.		
1	Entered	Income * Grandparents	494.666	630.550	422.666	42.516	2	.000
2	Entered	Father * FBI	476.084	619.517	400.084	22.581	2	.000
3	Entered	Experience * Father	461.869	620.401	377.869	22.215	4	.000
4	Entered	Necessity * Feeling	458.971	625.051	370.971	6.899	2	.032
5	Entered	Father * Necessity	454.916	628.545	362.916	8.055	2	.018
6	Entered	Mother * Necessity	452.787	633.966	356.787	6.129	2	.047

Stepwise Method: Forward Entry

a. The chi-square for entry is based on the likelihood ratio test.

Appendix B: Model Classification of the Dependent Variable

Classification

Observed	Predicted			
	Inheritance	Corporate venturing	Own venturing	Percent Correct
Inheritance	11	13	6	36.7%
Corporate venturing	5	97	23	77.6%
Own venturing	1	20	146	87.4%
Overall Percentage	5.3%	40.4%	54.3%	78.9%

The table above indicates how well the model MNL model performed in correctly predicting category membership on the dependent variable EME. The classification accuracy for a given category is reflected in the row percentage. The model correctly predicted a person falling into joining the family business category/inheritance choice of EME at a rate of 36.7%, Corporate venturing category at a rate of 77.6% and independent own founding at a rate of 87.4%. The model performed well in predicting group memberships across all the three categories of EME (a rate of 78.9% overall).

Appendix C: Introductory letter Strathmore University

Cla Sangalo Rd, Madaraka Estate
P. O Box 59857 - 00200, Nairobi, Kenya.
Cell: +254 703 034 611/612, Twitter: @SBSKenya
Facebook/LinkedIn: Strathmore Business School

Email: info@sbs.ac.ke or visit www.sbs.strathmore.edu

Strathmore UNIVERSITY BUSINESS SCHOOL

21st August 2020

Ref: SBS/ PhDBM009151 /17

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION – MUIGAI, SARAH WATIRI

Greetings from Strathmore Business School (SBS).

This letter serves to confirm that the above named is a student pursuing a PhD programme in Business and Management at Strathmore University Business School, Madaraka Campus.

She is working on her research thesis titled '*Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry of Family Business Offspring.*;' as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the programme. In view of this, she will contact you to request your assistance in data collection.

All data and information collected will be treated with utmost confidentiality and only used for academic purposes.

Any assistance accorded to her will be highly appreciated. Do not hesitate to contact me on sbsdoc@strathmore.edu should you need further clarification.

Yours Sincerely,

For

Lena Gachoki-Njihia

Head, Graduate Programmes

Appendix D: Ethical Clearance Certificate from Strathmore University

Strathmore UNIVERSITY

8th October 2020

Ms Muigai, Sarah
smuigai@strathmore.edu

Dear Ms Muigai,

RE: Transgenerational Effects in Entrepreneurial Behaviour

This is to inform you that SU-IERC has reviewed and **approved** your above research proposal. Your application approval number is **SU-IERC0882/20**. The approval period is **8th October 2020 to 7th October 2021.**

This approval is subject to compliance with the following requirements:

i. Only approved documents including (informed consents, study instruments, MTA) will be used
ii. All changes including (amendments, deviations, and violations) are submitted for review and approval by SU-IERC.
iii. Death and life threatening problems and serious adverse events or unexpected adverse events whether related or unrelated to the study must be reported to SU-IERC within 72 hours of notification
iv. Any changes, anticipated or otherwise that may increase the risks or affected safety or welfare of study participants and others or affect the integrity of the research must be reported to SU-IERC within 72 hours
v. Clearance for export of biological specimens must be obtained from relevant institutions.
vi. Submission of a request for renewal of approval at least 60 days prior to expiry of the approval period. Attach a comprehensive progress report to support the renewal.
vii. Submission of an executive summary report within 90 days upon completion of the study to SU-IERC.

Prior to commencing your study, you will be expected to obtain a research license from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) https://oris.nacosti.go.ke and also obtain other clearances needed.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Virginia Gichuru,
Secretary; SU-IERC

STRATHMORE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE
SU-IERC
08 OCT 2020
TEL: +254 (0)703 034 000
P. O. Box 59857 - 00200
NAIROBI - KENYA

Cc: Prof Fred Were,
Chairperson; SU-IERC

Appendix E: Research Permit: NACOSTI

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 488212

Date of Issue: 26/October/2020

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Ms.. Sarah Watiri Muigai of Strathmore University, has been licensed to conduct research in Kajiado, Kiambu, Machakos, Nairobi, Nakuru, Nyeri on the topic: Transgenerational Effects in Entrepreneurial Behavior for the period ending : 26/October/2021.

License No: NACOSTI/P/20/7366

488212

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

Appendix F: Request Letter to Use KNBS Sampling Frame

Sarah Muigai,

Strathmore University Businesses School,

Po box 59857, 00200.

Nairobi, Kenya.

To:

Director General,

Kenya National Bureau of Statistics,

Po Box 30266.

Nairobi GPO, Kenya.

30th September 2020

RE: REQUEST TO USE KNBS SAMPLING FRAME FOR MY PHD DISSERTATION

My name is Sarah Muigai, a PhD student at Strathmore University business school, as well as an assistant lecturer in the same University. Am currently preparing my dissertation on the effects of prior family business exposure on entrepreneurial opportunity identification (mode of entry) of SME's in Kenya.

I am requesting for support to use the National Sampling Frameworks to collect data for my study

I will be immensely grateful for your support. Looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely,

Sarah Muigai

Appendix G: Acceptance to use KNBS Sampling Frame

KENYA NATIONAL BUREAU OF STATISTICS

KNBS
KENYA NATIONAL BUREAU OF STATISTICS
Keeping You Informed

P.O. BOX 30266
00100 Nairobi GPO, Kenya
Telephone: Nairobi 3317586/8, 3317623, 3317651
Fax: 254-020-3315977
Email: directorygeneral@knbs.or.ke
info@knbs.or.ke
Website: www.knbs.or.ke

Reference No. KNBS/STAT/32

8th October, 2020

Sarah Muigai
Strathmore University Businesses Schools
P.O. Box, 59857. 00200
NAIROBI

RE: REQUEST TO USE KNBS SAMPLING FRAME FOR PHD DESSERTATION

Reference is made to your letter dated 30th September 2020 on the above-mentioned subject.

The Bureau maintains two sampling frames; a household-based and an establishment-based sampling frame. In order to determine the frame which is appropriate for your study, there is need for a meeting to be held with the relevant KNBS officers for you to explain the technical details of your study.

In this regard, I nominate Mr. James Ng'ang'a, who is a sampling statistician from the Bureau, to offer the requested support. You may, therefore, liaise with him through his email address jkinyanjui@knbs.or.ke to arrange for the meeting to discuss details of the study.

Collins Omondi, OGW
For: DIRECTOR GENERAL

Appendix H: Research Instrument

Entrepreneurship Effects of a Family Business Exposure

Survey instrument

Ole Sangale Rd, Madaraka Estate
P. O Box 59857 - 00200, Nairobi, Kenya.
Cell: +254 703 034 414/6/7, Twitter: @SBSKenya
Facebook/Linkedin: Strathmore Business School

Email: **info@sbs.ac.ke** or visit **www.sbs.strathmore.edu**

Strathmore UNIVERSITY BUSINESS SCHOOL

Dear Entrepreneur,

Thank you very much for participating in this survey! This survey was designed by researchers from Strathmore University in Kenya and China Europe international Business School in China as part of a PhD study.

By participating in this survey, you contribute enormously to our research on entrepreneurship and specifically family businesses in developing countries. The overall goal of this research is to foster our understanding on the factors that influence the various careers paths of a family business offspring. With this particular survey, we seek to develop an understanding of the exposure in family business that will help owners of family business as well as policy makers on effective interventions to facilitate transgenerational entrepreneurial behavior.

The Survey is expected to take a maximum of 20 minutes and we highly value your time in filling in all the sections. Please be assured that no sensitive information is asked about you and your responses will be treated in the strictest confidence and always remain anonymous. There is no known risk as this study has been approved by the Strathmore School of Graduate Studies research ethics committee as well as NACOSTI. Please answer all questions as openly and honestly as possible.

I would like to thank you again for your help, support and precious time in advance. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any question regarding my research.

Yours sincerely,

Sarah Muigai: Doctoral Researcher

Email: Smuigai@strathmore.edu Phone: +2540734607753

Research Supervisors:

Professor Ramakrishna Velamuri, Email: rvelamuri@ceibs.edu

Dr. Edward Mungai, Email: Emungai@strathmore.edu

Section A: Family Business Exposure (presence or absence)

	Please respond to the following questions by ticking the most appropriate box	**NO (0)**	**Yes (1)**
A01	Does your mother currently own or have they ever owned a business		
A02	Does your father currently own or have they ever owned a business?		
A03	Do your grandparents currently own or have they ever owned a business		
A04	Does any other relative other than parents and grandparents own or have ever owned a business		

Section B: Perceived parental entrepreneurial rewards

Kindly indicate the level of agreement with regard to your exposure into a family business while growing up. The questions are in a 6-point scale (1= Strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= slightly disagree 4= slightly agree 5= Agree 6 = Strongly agree)

		1	2	3	4	5	6
B01	Having a business gave my parents a good feeling about themselves						
B02	Having a business made my parents feel like they were accomplishing something important						
B03	Having a business gave my parents interesting and challenging things to do						
B04	Having a business gave my parents a feeling of being respected by others						
B05	Having a business provided my parents with an income that satisfied them						

Section C: Family business involvement

Kindly indicate the level of agreement with regard to family business involvement. The questions are in a 5-point scale (1= Never 2= Seldom 3= Sometimes 4= Often 5= Almost always)

		1	2	3	4	5
C01	My family/relatives used to take me to work with them					
C02	My family/relatives used to take me to business meetings					

C03	My family/relatives used to teach me about managing a business					
C04	My family/relatives used to discuss work/ business with me					
C05	My family/relatives used to encourage me to get to know their employees and partners					

Section H: Human Capital

Kindly respond to the following questions related to your experience as an entrepreneur as well as other experiences as an employee.

H01: How many years of work experience, outside of the family business, did you have before starting your business?

Less than 1 year ☐

1 to 3 years ☐

More than 3 years ☐

H02: What was your highest level of education prior to starting your firm?

KCPE ( )

KCSE ( )

Certificate/Diploma ( )

Undergraduate degree ( )

Postgraduate degree ( )

H03: Which business areas of training have you been exposed to prior to starting your business.

None ( )

Legal training ( )

Sales and Marketing ( )

Strategic management ( )

Taxation ( )

Other (Please indicate) ( )

Section E: Necessity versus Opportunity Motivation

I05: Why did you come to star/joint the business venture?

To take advantage of a new business opportunity ( )

In order to earn a decent income for survival ( )

A combination of both ( )

Section F: Entrepreneurial mode of entry

I04: Entrepreneurial Mode of Entry: I became an Entrepreneur by

By joining my parent's business (Inheritance) ( )

By starting a new line of business within my parent's business ( )

By starting a new business away and outside of my parent's business ()

Section N: Biographical Data

Lastly, please provide some demographic and business-related information. Again, be assured that the survey is completely anonymous and that only the researchers and their assistants from the institutions mentioned above have access to the information you provide.

N01: How old are you? _____ years

N02: What is your gender?

Male ( )

Female ( )

N03: For how many years have you been operating your main business?

Less than 1 year ( )

1 – 2 years ( )

3 – 5 years ( )

6 – 10 years ( )

More than 10 years ( )

N04: Do you run your main business on your own or do you run it in a team with business partner(s)?

On my own ( )

I run it with my wife and children ( )

In a team with 1 partner ( )

In a team with 2 partners ( )

In a team with 3 or more partners ( )

Less than 1 year ( )

1 – 2 years ( )

3 – 5 years ( )

6 – 10 years ( )

More than 10 years ( )

N08: How many hours per week do you personally spend working for your main business (on average)?

Less than 20 hours ( )

20 – 40 hours ( )

More than 40 hours ( )

N09: Are you currently employed with a company outside of your self-employed activity?

No ( )

Yes, on a part-time basis ( )

Yes, on a full-time basis ( )

N11: In which sector do you run your main business (which takes the majority of your time)?

Manufacturing ( )

Trade/Retail ( )

Food preparation/Restaurants ( )

Hotels ( )

Hair and beauty care ( )

Repair and construction ( )

IT and computer services ( )

Agriculture/Forestry ( )

Other ( )

N12: How would you describe your family status

Single ( )

Married ( )

Separated ( )

Widowed ( )

Other ( )

No ( )

Yes ( )

If **YES** Indicate the number of years …….

//Thank you for your participation//

Appendix I: Sampled Business Establishments from the Business Register- KNBS

S/No	Firm_Name	Section	Division	Sector Classification
1	RUNDA FARM LIMITED	A	1	1
2	GLOBAL PASTORALIST ORGANIZATION(GPO)	A	1	1
3	MUHORONI FOOD PROCESSORS	C	10	2
4	KILIMANI BAKERIES LIMITED	C	10	2
5	FRIGOKEN LIMITED	C	10	2
6	KEVIAN KENYA LTD	C	11	2
7	FAFI FASHION	C	14	3
8	STELLACOM LIMITED	B	5	4
9	REDROCK KENYA LIMITED	B	8	4
10	FORTUNA INDUSTRIES LIMITED	C	17	4
11	CANOPY SOLUTIONS (K) LIMITED	C	18	4
12	REGIONAL DIESEL AND ELECTRICAL SERVICES	C	18	4
13	STEAM TECH BOILER SPARES	C	18	4
14	ERIC BOULLAY & ASSOCIATES LIMITED	C	18	4
15	DE LUXE PRINTERS LIMITED	C	18	4
16	DESIGN AND PRINT FACTORY LIMITED	C	18	4
17	ROBICHEM INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS LIMITED	C	20	4
18	MITSUI & CO. EUROPE PLC	C	20	4
19	INTERNATIONAL GREEN STRUCTURES MANUFACTURING KENYA LIMITED	C	23	4
20	HADID IRONMONGERS LIMITED	C	24	4
21	SANGA WORKS LIMITED	C	25	4
22	VITAFOAM PRODUCTS	C	31	4
23	NU-MATIC ENGINEERS LIMITED	C	33	4
24	WATER.ORG KENYA	E	36	4

25	NDAKAINI DAM ENVIRONMENTAL CONSERVATION PROJECT	E	39	4
26	OFCON CONSTRUCTION LIMITED	F	41	5
27	GRACELAND ATHI RIVER LIMITED	F	41	5
28	SOUND EQUIPMENT LIMITED	F	41	5
29	HILLTOP ENGINEERING SYSTEMS LIMITED	F	41	5
30	KAIROS CONSTRUCTION LIMITED	F	41	5
31	MIINA CONSTRUCTION COMPANY LIMITED	F	41	5
32	SAAVA ENGINEERING LIMITED	F	41	5
33	SUNSTONE BUILDING MATERIAL COMPANY LIMITED	F	41	5
34	DIDAR CONSTRUCTION KENYA LIMITED	F	41	5
35	MIDO BUILDING & CONSTRUCTION COMPANY LIMITED	F	41	5
36	TAJ-MAHAR CONSTRUCTION COMPANY LIMITED	F	41	5
37	SAVUTI HOMES LIMITED	F	41	5
38	KONZA SOLUTIONS LIMITED	F	41	5
39	DEEP LINK LIMITED	F	41	5
40	GIGA ASSOCIATES LIMITED	F	41	5
41	COMMERCIAL MART LIMITED	F	41	5
42	TRIPPLEAGE INVESTMENT LIMITED	F	41	5
43	RUNDA CONSTRUCTION COMPANY LIMITED	F	42	5
44	SKYEHI LIMITED	F	42	5
45	FUTERECH ELECTRONICS LIMITED	F	43	5
46	POTECH ENGINEERING SERVICES LIMITED	F	43	5
47	BRILLIANT GRAND PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5
48	GOR GOR GENERAL TRADING COMPANY LIMITED	L	68	5
49	WANKIM INVESTMENTS LIMITED	L	68	5
50	WINTEAM INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	L	68	5
51	MIOTONI WOODS LIMITED	L	68	5
52	MAHORA INVESTMENT COMPANY LIMITED	L	68	5

53	MORNINGSIDE OFFICE PARK LIMITED	L	68	5
54	IGAINYA LIMITED	L	68	5
55	ZIYUNGI LIMITED	L	68	5
56	SIGNATURE AFRICA PROPERTY CONSULT LIMITED	L	68	5
57	HEIGHT TWISTERS APARTMENTS LIMITED	L	68	5
58	BAHARI VIEWS LIMITED	L	68	5
59	METRA INVESTMENTS LIMITED	L	68	5
60	WWW BID INVESTMENTS COMPANY LIMITED	L	68	5
61	BEULAH AND ASSOCIATES LIMITED	L	68	5
62	LEICESTER HOLDINGS LIMITED	L	68	5
63	FRIENDS THAT CARE HOLDING COMPANY LIMITED	L	68	5
64	MUKIMA RIDGE EIGHT LIMITED	L	68	5
65	POOJA MANAGEMENT LIMITED	L	68	5
66	MAC APARTMENTS LIMITED	L	68	5
67	DAU INVESTMENTS COMPANY LIMITED	L	68	5
68	BAPS LIMITED	L	68	5
69	GALAXY GARDENS LIMITED	L	68	5
70	BANETI INVESTMENTS	L	68	5
71	SANSORA HOUSING CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY LIMITED	L	68	5
72	DODEC INVESTMENT GROUP LIMITED	L	68	5
73	CAMBERWELL PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5
74	QASWA INVESTMENT GROUP LIMITED	L	68	5
75	SHELTER VENTURES COMPANY LIMITED	L	68	5
76	LEWA GROUP LIMITED	L	68	5
77	WOMEN OF PURPOSE SHG	L	68	5
78	KINGARA PROPERTIES (K) LIMITED	L	68	5
79	PEKAN LIMITED	L	68	5
80	SCORPION PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5

81	VITAL PROPERTIES (K) LIMITED	L	68	5
82	ALMONDS AGENCIES LIMITED	L	68	5
83	HERI HOMES PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5
84	PENTAGON PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5
85	SUBURBS REAL ESTATE LIMITED	L	68	5
86	BLUEBELL PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5
87	MIRA HOLDINGS LIMITED	L	68	5
88	SERENITY MANAGEMENT LIMITED	L	68	5
89	VINEYARD VALUERS	L	68	5
90	REAL ESTATE ASSOCIATES LIMITED	L	68	5
91	ABCON INVESTMENTS LIMITED	L	68	5
92	FIRST WORTH PRODUCTS LIMITED	G	45	6
93	YOU PARTS LTD	G	45	6
94	CAR CARE LIMITED	G	45	6
95	UNITED AUTO ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	45	6
96	MASHALLAH AUTOS LIMITED	G	45	6
97	DENMAR SOLAR SYSTEMS LIMITED	G	45	6
98	VEKARIYA ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	45	6
99	FRATECH AUTO SERVICES LIMITED	G	45	6
100	AUTOSERVE AND HARDWARE SUPPLIES LIMITED	G	45	6
101	BHP PERFORMANCE (K) LIMITED	G	45	6
102	KANOS KENYA MOTORS COMPANY LIMITED	G	45	6
103	HASMA AUTOSPARES LIMITED	G	45	6
104	DERSY MOTORS LIMITED	G	45	6
105	NEW MODEL AUTO PARTS LIMITED	G	45	6
106	DONICA AUTO PARTS	G	45	6
107	CAR BASE LIMITED	G	45	6
108	TENA TRADERS LIMITED	G	45	6

109	STIWAZ AUTO SPARES LIMITED	G	45	6
110	KIBS AUTO WORKS LIMITED	G	45	6
111	KENGOLD AUTOMOBILES LIMITED	G	45	6
112	REHAL SERVICES LIMITED	G	45	6
113	STUTTGART AUTO LIMITED	G	45	6
114	MALIKA MOTORS LTD	G	45	6
115	GREENLIGHT AUTO LIMITED	G	45	6
116	CHAKA MOTORS	G	45	6
117	BATTERY WORLD	G	45	6
118	CEM-COM INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	G	45	6
119	AWAD AUTO LIMITED	G	45	6
120	DOD DEVELOPERS LIMITED	G	46	6
121	VERSA TRADERS LIMITED	G	46	6
122	AGROEXIM EAST AFRICA LIMITED	G	46	6
123	MAHI LIMITED	G	46	6
124	PRIME EQUITY LIMITED	G	46	6
125	RAJ USHANGA (2010) LIMITED	G	46	6
126	MARGDOANE GENERAL SUPPLIES	G	46	6
127	MARUSA HOLDINGS CO. LIMITED	G	46	6
128	FARMTRACK CONSULTING LIMITED	G	46	6
129	INTERNATIONAL PARTNERSHIP SERVICES (E.A) LIMITED	G	46	6
130	PONDERS LIMITED	G	46	6
131	TECHNIQUES GENERAL SUPPLIES LIMITED	G	46	6
132	SUNING HARDWARE LIMITED	G	46	6
133	ZAVIKI LIMITED	G	47	6
134	ADVACOM BUSINESS SOLUTIONS LIMITED	G	47	6
135	DIVINE WORLD LIMITED	G	47	6
136	CLIMATE EVOLUTION AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6

137	NAIROBIRD HOMES LIMITED	G	47	6
138	BEDEN ENTERPRISES	G	47	6
139	CHARLTON MED & EQUIPMENTS LIMITED	G	47	6
140	DIINAARI TEXTILE LIMITED	G	47	6
141	THREE HUNDRED AND TWENTY TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	G	47	6
142	ANYONE LIMITED	G	47	6
143	DIZNEY INVESTMENT SOLUTION LIMITED	G	47	6
144	BERACHAH CHEMIST LIMITED	G	47	6
145	DOMICO GENERAL SUPPLIES	G	47	6
146	ELABORATE ENTERPRISES	G	47	6
147	KENI OFFICE SUPPLIES LIMITED	G	47	6
148	FAST MOBILE CONNECTIONS (K)LIMITED	G	47	6
149	PEEVES SUPPLIES (K) LIMITED	G	47	6
150	REVOCHEM AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6
151	TREND WEAR	G	47	6
152	AZNA FABRICS LIMITED	G	47	6
153	INUKA AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6
154	TROY MEDICARE PHARMACY LIMITED	G	47	6
155	MIGNON FRESH ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
156	HILLARY SHAH ELECTRICAL WORKS SALES & SERVICES	G	47	6
157	SIGNAL WORLD TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	G	47	6
158	QASH KALI LIMITED	G	47	6
159	JAMESON ELECTRICAL AND HEAT-TECHNICS	G	47	6
160	VOLINK COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
161	NIGHTINGALE GROUP LIMITED	G	47	6
162	RICOTECH INDUSTRIAL	G	47	6
163	OLYMPIC CONNECTION LIMITED	G	47	6
164	KEMRI PAINTS LIMITED	G	47	6

165	CORE COMPUTER GARAGE LIMITED	G	47	6
166	FRONT FLATS LIMITED	G	47	6
167	KENBURY INVESTMENTS LIMITED	G	47	6
168	BLUEBIRD PROPERTIES LIMITED	G	47	6
169	GLADICHO INVESTMENT LIMITED	G	47	6
170	ZATULI LIMITED	G	47	6
171	NINE PLANETS APARTMENTS MANAGEMENT LIMITED	G	47	6
172	NGOSHEN INVESTMENTS CO. LIMITED	G	47	6
173	HASGAB ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
174	ZURI VENTURES INVESTMENT LIMITED	G	47	6
175	PHENOMINOL LIMITED	G	47	6
176	WEMSH GENERAL SUPPLIES & MEDICAL ACCESSORIES LIMITED	G	47	6
177	WINDSON COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
178	TIDETWO ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
179	TIMESTECH INVESTMENTS LIMITED	G	47	6
180	KALAMU GROUP HOLDINGS LIMITED	G	47	6
181	INTERTECH AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6
182	SOSET SHINNERS SERVICES LIMITED	G	47	6
183	RBEMI GEN SUPPLIES AND CONTRACTORS LIMITED	G	47	6
184	SPECTRUM LAB SOLUTION LIMITED	G	47	6
185	TRACE GRID TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	G	47	6
186	TRANS-ROYAL INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	G	47	6
187	ECOTASTE WASTE MANAGEMENT LIMITED	G	47	6
188	SYBEC CONSULT LIMITED	G	47	6
189	ANKER LIMITED	G	47	6
190	REMNANT SIX INVESTMENT LTD	G	47	6
191	JEYZI ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
192	GRANDEUR MANAGEMENT SERVICE LIMITED	G	47	6

193	GEVINK ENTERPRISES	G	47	6
194	SKATE DREAM AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6
195	MOBILE HUB KENYA TECHNOLOGIES	G	47	6
196	DUBAI BEAUTY CENTRE (KENYA) LIMITED	G	47	6
197	FORWARD TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	G	47	6
198	EYEVUE OPTICIANS LIMITED	G	47	6
199	MAISHA STELL (EAST AFRICA) LIMITED	G	47	6
200	SOPHYTECH SYSTEMS LIMITED	G	47	6
201	RAPHA MEDICAL AND GENERAL SUPPLIES LIMITED	G	47	6
202	ANILCO CENTRE (KENYA) LIMITED	G	47	6
203	JJ OKWARO AND COMPANY	G	47	6
204	AUTOLITHO LIMITED	G	47	6
205	FLOWER TIME LIMITED	G	47	6
206	IBRANIYA TRADING COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
207	PAKASHA LIMITED	G	47	6
208	MINI TECH TECHNOLOGIES	G	47	6
209	MORNING STAR ENTERPRISE	G	47	6
210	DANJOYCE APARTMENTS LIMITED	G	47	6
211	JUST SELECT LIMITED	G	47	6
212	BANZALINI MENS WEAR	G	47	6
213	STAR TOOLS AND HARDWARE LIMITED	G	47	6
214	SELARC INVESTMENTS	G	47	6
215	FIRST COUSINS INVESTMENTS LIMITED	G	47	6
216	SAMYA HOLDINGS LIMITED	G	47	6
217	TECHNOPRO SOLUTIONS KENYA LIMITED	G	47	6
218	ATLAS HARDWARE LIMITED	G	47	6
219	BLUELINE HOLDINGS LIMITED	G	47	6
220	NAHODHA TELECOMMUNICATION COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6

221	MILLE COLLINES KENYA LIMITED	G	47	6
222	ORBITAL FASTNER LIMITED	G	47	6
223	SNO-CREAM PARLOURS LIMITED	G	47	6
224	WADOR LIMITED	G	47	6
225	RAMBHAI COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
226	ARKSON QUARRIES LIMITED	G	47	6
227	SUNSHINE EAST AFRICA ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
228	RADDY FIBRE SOLUTION LIMITED	G	47	6
229	FANCY HOME APPLIANCES	G	47	6
230	POWERACCESS SYSTEMS LIMITED	G	47	6
231	TECH HUB SOLUTIONS LIMITED	G	47	6
232	PRIME VALUE CHEMICALS LIMITED	G	47	6
233	ATTROCO INNOVATIONS	G	47	6
234	GAZETI LIMITED	G	47	6
235	GADGETS AND GIZMOS LIMITED	G	47	6
236	CAPE3 SERVICES EAST AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6
237	BERVERSAL WEIGHING SCALES LIMITED	G	47	6
238	TALLY SOLUTIONS KENYA LIMITED	G	47	6
239	HASAL ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
240	ADVANTIS MED EAST AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6
241	HAVILAH SPRINGS	G	47	6
242	SUNNYMONEY KENYA LIMITED	G	47	6
243	KALIMONI GREENS	G	47	6
244	AVILAS LIMITED	G	47	6
245	HUD HUD KUKU LIMITED	G	47	6
246	BHAGWAJI SWEET AND FARSAN MART	G	47	6
247	PRINTECH INNOVATIONS LIMITED	G	47	6
248	GEOMAG VENTURES LIMITED	G	47	6

249	AKL INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	G	47	6
250	MOHINDER LOCK SYSTEMS LIMITED	G	47	6
251	ANGRAN LIMITED	G	47	6
252	MANOAH ENTERPRICES LIMITED	G	47	6
253	NATIONAL EDGING EAST AFRICA LIMITED	G	47	6
254	KHUSH TIMBER & HARDWARE LIMITED	G	47	6
255	OCEAN GROUP LOGISTICS LIMITED	H	50	7
256	BLUEWAVE LOGISTICS SERVICES	H	51	7
257	FANTASY FREIGHT SERVICES LIMITED	H	52	7
258	THAKA LIMITED	H	52	7
259	VELOGIC EAST AFRICA LIMITED	H	52	7
260	SKY LOGISTICS LIMITED	H	52	7
261	TOP PARCEL LIMITED	H	52	7
262	ROHARS LIMITED	H	52	7
263	LOGISTICS MATRIX LIMITED	H	52	7
264	FLASH INTERNATIONAL COURIERS LIMITED	H	53	7
265	THE LOFTS MANAGEMENT COMPANY LIMITED	I	55	8
266	SALON THREE SIXTY & EXECUTIVE BARBERSHOP LIMITED	I	56	9
267	FAMILY SIGNATURE LIMITED	I	56	9
268	KIGANDINE INVESTMENTS LIMITED	I	56	9
269	KINGARA GARDENS LIMITED	I	56	9
270	JAVIC FOODS	I	56	9
271	HENMARK PRODUCTS LIMITED	I	56	9
272	VIVID EVENT SOLUTIONS LIMITED	I	56	9
273	FREEZONE MOBILE LIMITED	I	56	9
274	CUSTOMERWARE TECHNOLOGIES SYSTEMS	J	58	10
275	NAIROBI MAP SERVICE LTD	J	58	10
276	NAKIPO INVESTMENTS	J	59	10

277	CATEMMAN MEDIA LIMITED	J	59	10
278	FUNKTION MASTERS LIMITED	J	59	10
279	ONFON GROUP LIMITED	J	61	10
280	WASP AFRICA LIMITED	J	61	10
281	INTRACOM LIMITED	J	61	10
282	AVALID TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	J	61	10
283	INTEGRAT LIMITED	J	61	10
284	DABUSHAR SYSTEMS LIMITED	J	62	10
285	INTRACOM LIMITED	J	62	10
286	SPACE KENYA NETWORKS LIMITED	J	62	10
287	ZENITH BUSINESS SYSTEMS LIMITED	J	62	10
288	IMAGE TRACK TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	J	62	10
289	DECHRIP EAST AFRICA LIMITED	J	62	10
290	FISCH MEDIA LIMITED	J	62	10
291	BIZZLAB KENYA HOLDINGS LIMITED	J	62	10
292	FABIT SYSTMES LIMITED	J	62	10
293	ASTERISK SYSTEMS LIMITED	J	62	10
294	FORFUTURE LIMITED	J	62	10
295	USHAHIDI INC	J	62	10
296	GLOBAL MARK TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	J	62	10
297	INFRASTRUCTURE TECHNOLOGY AFRICAN	J	62	10
298	LEXCO ONE LIMITED	J	63	10
299	RASASI INVESTMENT LIMITED	K	64	10
300	JIREH FUTURE HOLDINGS LIMITED	K	64	10
301	KAFWASO INVESTMENT COMPANY LIMITED	K	64	10
302	MASKA CADE ENTERPRISES LIMITED	K	64	10
303	UNGANA KENYA	K	64	10
304	JUMBO CO-OPERATIVE SAVINGS AND CREDIT SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10

305	HALI CONNECTIONS LIMITED	K	64	10
306	H G M CO-OP SAV AND CR SOC LTD	K	64	10
307	ACORN SACCO AND CREDIT SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10
308	CHEMICHEMI ALLIANCE INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	K	64	10
309	NEW GENERATIONS SAVINGS AND CREDIT COOPERATIVE SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10
310	KENYA ALLIANCE INSURANCE COOPERATIVE SAVINGS & CREDIT SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10
311	GOLF CS & CS LTD	K	64	10
312	PREMIER MOTORS SAVINGS AND CREDIT CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10
313	KIP SAVINGS AND CREDIT CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10
314	MAGESH INVESTMENTS COMPANY LIMITED	K	64	10
315	UTABIBU CO-OP. SAVINGS & CREDIT SOC. LTD	K	64	10
316	DARAJA CAPITAL PARTNERS LIMITED	K	64	10
317	FORWARD SAVINGS AND CREDIT CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10
318	PEUGEOT CO-OP SAV & CR. SOC. L	K	64	10
319	NAKWA SAVINGS AND CREDIT CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETY LIMITED	K	64	10
320	SURGILINKS LTD STAFF PROVIDENT PLAN	K	65	10
321	ICON KENYA LIMITED	K	65	10
322	ZEBRA TRACKS INSURANCE BROKERS LIMITED	K	66	10
323	JIMMY'S LIMITED	K	66	10
324	A H HARKHANI AND COMPANY	K	66	10
325	BAHARI MILLS LIMITED	K	66	10
326	SOLID EXCHANGE BUREAU LIMITED	K	66	10
327	GOLDLINK INSURANCE AGENCY LIMITED	K	66	10
328	EAST AFRICA CAPITAL CONSULTANTS LIMITED	K	66	10
329	DESTAN ENTERPRISES LIMITED	K	66	10
330	FAMOUS INSURANCE AGENCY LIMITED	K	66	10
331	DEEPROOT LIMITED	K	66	10
332	DI CLEAR KENYA LIMITED	M	69	10

333	MWANGI & KAMWARA ASSOCIATES	M	69	10
334	GRANDSCOPE VENTURES LIMITED	M	69	10
335	VISACOM VENTURES LIMITED	M	69	10
336	TECHSITE SOLUTIONS LIMITED	M	69	10
337	DE-PRESTIZ SERVICES	M	69	10
338	INSCAP DEVELOPMENT CENTRE LIMITED	M	69	10
339	JEMCO BUSINESS SOLUTIONS LIMITED	M	69	10
340	JOAN EMMA & COMPANY	M	69	10
341	PSK ASSOCIATES	M	69	10
342	SUMMATION INVESTMENTS LIMITED	M	70	10
343	CULTURE CONNECT	M	70	10
344	BLACKSTONE SYNERGY CONSULTING GROUP LIMITED	M	70	10
345	GL AFRICA ENERGY LIMITED	M	70	10
346	GREAT TANK INVESTMENTS	M	70	10
347	KENLIN INVESTMENTS LIMITED	M	70	10
348	WINLINE LIMITED	M	70	10
349	RICASI CONSULTANCY LIMITED	M	70	10
350	LEEDS CONSULTING COMPANY	M	70	10
351	SKILLS KENYA LIMITED	M	70	10
352	AMANDLA ENERGY LIMITED	M	70	10
353	NATIONAL IRRIGATION BOARD	M	70	10
354	GLOBAL RESEARCH INSIGHTS LIMITED	M	70	10
355	ARCHETYPUM LIMITED	M	71	10
356	PROCON CONSULTING ENGINEERS LIMITED	M	71	10
357	URBAN SAVANNAH DESIGN STUDIO LIMITED	M	71	10
358	TRIOSCAPE LIMITED	M	71	10
359	NILE SURVEYS AND GEOSOLUTIONS LIMITED	M	71	10
360	REASEARCH MASTERS CONSULTING LIMITED	M	72	10

361	BLUE ANTELOPE LIMITED	M	73	10
362	THIRD FLOOR DIGITAL LIMITED	M	73	10
363	MYRIAND LIMITED	M	73	10
364	OOMPH KENYA LIMITED	M	73	10
365	ALLIANCE MEDIA KENYA LIMITED	M	73	10
366	FOURUP DIGITAL LIMITED	M	73	10
367	FIGEANS AGENCY	M	74	10
368	ALTERNATIVES AFRICA LIMITED	M	74	10
369	AQUATECH INDUSTRIES LIMITED	M	74	10
370	SKETCH EXPERIENCE LIMITED	M	74	10
371	APPLIED PROJECT MANAGEMENT (APM) CONSULTING LIMITED	M	74	10
372	ADMARG GRAPHICS LIMITED	M	74	10
373	PRACTICAL CREATORS AND DOERS LIMITED	M	74	10
374	SOURCING AND CONSULT LIMITED	M	74	10
375	PROFAMA SOLUTIONS LIMITED	M	74	10
376	STARLING TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	M	74	10
377	DUALSCOPE K LTD	M	74	10
378	FLORITECH NEWS AGENCY	M	74	10
379	BLUE APPLE AFRICA LIMITED	M	74	10
380	THE BROADSWORD GROUP LIMITED	M	74	10
381	QUANTSCONSULT KENYA	M	74	10
382	SYSTEM-WIDE COMMUNICATION SERVICES LIMITED	M	74	10
383	ZAMCO HOLDINGS LIMITED	M	74	10
384	GLOBAL TRADE SKILLS INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	M	74	10
385	CRESCOM AGENCIES LIMITED	M	74	10
386	PUNTUAL PACKAGING VENTURES	M	74	10
387	PRIME FITTERS LIMITED	M	74	10
388	WILEUN ENTERPRISES LIMITED	M	74	10

389	BRANDZ EXPERTS LIMITED	M	74	10
390	MODERN TECHNOLOGY SERVICES LIMITED	M	74	10
391	REAL TIME HR SOLUTIONS LIMITED	N	78	10
392	SAMEER TECKOM LIMITED	N	78	10
393	ACACIA HOLIDAYS LIMITED	N	79	10
394	EXPERIA TOURS & TRAVEL LIMITED	N	79	10
395	CHAIRMAMA ENTERPRISES LIMITED	N	79	10
396	BUYERS LOGISTICS LIMITED	N	79	10
397	GOLDENGATE SECURITY SERVICES LIMITED	N	79	10
398	EPAD LIMITED	N	79	10
399	LINER CLEANING LIMITED	N	79	10
400	ADVANCED CYBER TECHNOLOGIES AFRICA (ACTA) LIMITED	N	79	10
401	TRIOPALS LOGISTICS LIMITED	N	79	10
402	TRIAD MEDIA LIMITED	N	79	10
403	BIG FOOT ADVENTURES LIMITED	N	79	10
404	SNOWLINE EXPEDITIONS LIMITED	N	79	10
405	EASY GO SAFARIS LIMITED	N	79	10
406	WILD OF CHOICES TOURS AND TRAVEL	N	79	10
407	IBIS TOURS AND TRAVELS LIMITED	N	79	10
408	SULTAN PALACE DEVELOPMENT LIMITED	N	79	10
409	GARDA SECURITY SERVICES LIMITED	N	80	10
410	PAMILL LIMITED	N	81	10
411	ASHOKA EAST AFRICA	N	82	10
412	FLORAL ART LIMITED	N	82	10
413	GOLDMARK LIMITED	N	82	10
414	SHARP ARTECH BUSINESS OPTIONS	N	82	10
415	STANDARD AND MUTUAL LIMITED	N	82	10
416	LANGATA BOTANICAL GARDENS LIMITED	N	82	10

417	UMBRELLA HOLDINGS LIMITED	P	85	11
418	ROSIN PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES	P	85	11
419	VERICARD SYSTEMS LIMITED	P	85	11
420	NURTURE INVESTMENTS LIMITED	P	85	11
421	GLORY DRIVING SCHOOL (E.A) LIMITED	P	85	11
422	BIZSKILLS LIMITED	P	85	11
423	DAUGHTERS OF THE SACRED HEART	P	85	11
424	THE LINDSAR SCHOOLS LIMITED	P	85	11
425	DEFENSIVE DRIVING SYSTEMS LIMITED	P	85	11
426	JAYDEN EDUCATIONAL CENTRE	P	85	11
427	ENDTIMES TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	P	85	11
428	JUNIOR ACHIEVEMENT KENYA	P	85	11
429	AFRICAN BRAILLE CENTRE (ABC)	P	85	11
430	ADARA COSMEDICS LIMITED	Q	86	11
431	CORNER HOUSE MEDICAL LABORATORIES COMPANY LIMITED	Q	86	11
432	AFRICA BIOMEDICAL LABORATORIES LIMITED	Q	86	11
433	MISSIONARY SISTERS OF OUR LADY OF THE HOLY ROSARY	Q	86	11
434	BEFRIENDERS KENYA	Q	86	11
435	CAREVILLE WELLNESS CENTRE LIMITED	Q	86	11
436	HOME HEALTH SOLUTION LIMITED	Q	86	11
437	CHURCARMYDENTALCLINIC	Q	86	11
438	SPECTRALAB ANALYTICAL SERVICES LIMITED	Q	86	11
439	FAMILY HEALTH DENTAL CLINIC	Q	86	11
440	DENT MILELECARE LIMITED	Q	86	11
441	HIGH LAB AFRICA LIMITED	Q	86	11
442	LAINI SABA PROJECT CENTRE AND HOMECARE (C.B.O)	Q	87	11
443	BETHSAIDA COMMUNITY FOUNDATION	Q	87	11
444	LIFE 4 KIDS	Q	87	11

445	KILIMANJARO BLIND TRUST AFRICA	Q	88	11
446	FREEDOM HOUSE EAST AFRICA	Q	88	11
447	UZIMA FOUNDATION	Q	88	11
448	NICE GARDENS LIMITED	R	91	11
449	KITUI ROAD GROUP ASSOCIATION	S	94	11
450	THE KENYA CHAMBER OF MINES COMPANY LIMITED	S	94	11
451	HOUSE OF ZUBYZ	S	96	11
452	TEMAC AFRICA LIMITED	S	96	11
453	NEW ERA PRESS LIMITED	S	96	11
454	OUTSOURCE VENTURES LIMITED	S	96	11
455	ZEBCA LIMITED	S	96	11
456	DAVSO EAST AFRICA CO. LIMITED	S	96	11
457	TUART HILL LIMITED	S	96	11
458	OPTIVEN FOUNDATION	S	96	11
459	ESSAN LIMITED	S	96	11
460	JF SOLUTIONS LIMITED	S	96	11
461	TECH SYSTEMS LIMITED	S	96	11
462	A.C.K ST. AUGUSTINE UMOJA	S	96	11
463	PHALON LIMITED	S	96	11
464	STYLE INDUSTRIES LIMITED	S	96	11
465	AMICI DITTA COMPANY LIMITED	S	96	11
466	LEEVEN HOLDINGS LIMITED	A	1	1
467	MANYATTA	C	10	2
468	HELP SELF HELP CENTRE	C	10	2
469	TURI SPRINGS (MINERAL WATER) LIMITED	C	11	2
470	CEMPACK SOLUTIONS LIMITED	C	13	3
471	JOSHUA & JAMES FURNITURES LIMITED	C	16	4
472	PENTAGON INTERIOR LIMITED	C	16	4

473	INTERGRATED PACKAGING LIMITED	C	17	4
474	PRIME CARTONS LIMITED	C	17	4
475	ARROW DISPLAYS LIMITED	C	18	4
476	MUDHER ENGINEERING WORKS LIMITED	C	18	4
477	STARBRIGHT SERVICES LIMITED	C	18	4
478	PAN AFRICA TRANSFORMERS AND SWITCHGEARS LIMITED	C	18	4
479	KOMAL MANUFACTURERS LIMITED	C	20	4
480	SOILEX PROSOLVE LIMITED	C	20	4
481	SADOLIN PAINTS E.A. LTD.	C	20	4
482	AESTHETICS LIMITED	C	21	4
483	C.G. RETTREAD (NRB) LIMITED	C	22	4
484	TREADSETTERS TYRES LTD.	C	22	4
485	TILE CITY LIMITED	C	23	4
486	APEX STEEL LTD.	C	24	4
487	DIAMOND STRUCTURES LIMITED	C	25	4
488	PATNET STEEL MAKERS MANUFACTURERS LIMITED	C	25	4
489	MULTI MECHANICAL WORKS LIMITED	C	25	4
490	EAST AFRICA BATTERIES LIMITED	C	27	4
491	ONKAR ENGINEERING WORKS LIMITED	C	28	4
492	MOTOR MANIA LIMITED	C	29	4
493	ARCH HOLDINGS LIMITED	C	31	4
494	SOMENI	C	32	4
495	PROPULSION SYSTEMS LIMITED	C	33	4
496	COFFTEA MACHINERY SERVICES LIMITED	C	33	4
497	SIGMA EGINEERING COMPANY LIMITED	E	36	4
498	UMANDE TRUST	E	36	4
499	CARLING WOOD INVESTMENT COMPANY LIMITED	F	41	5
500	NYUMBA BORA LIMITED	F	41	5

501	EARL AND DUKE LIMITED	F	41	5
502	GAMU BROTHERS AGENCIES	F	41	5
503	RAKMAN SERVICES LTD	F	41	5
504	CRINON CONSTRUCTION COMPANY LIMITED	F	41	5
505	VIRAT BUILDERS LIMITED	F	41	5
506	BHOGAL CONSTRUCTION LIMITED	F	41	5
507	SPENCON HOLDINGS KENYA LTD	F	41	5
508	MAGNUM CAR AND ALLIED SERVICES LIMITED	F	41	5
509	SIWA GENERAL CONTRACTORS LIMITED	F	41	5
510	TRUE WAYS CONSTRUCTION LIMITED	F	42	5
511	VIVID INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	F	42	5
512	QUENTAX LOGISTICS LIMITED	F	42	5
513	TRIOLINK CONTRACTORS LIMITED	F	42	5
514	PLUMBUILD AND ENGINEERING LIMITED	F	42	5
515	VAJRA DRILL LIMITED	F	42	5
516	ARORESA COMPANY LIMITED	F	42	5
517	VERITECH LIMITED	F	43	5
518	KENYA LIFT COMPANY LIMITED	F	43	5
519	NIKAM BUILDERS AND RENOVATORS (K) LIMITED	F	43	5
520	TUDOR ENGINEERING LIMITED	F	43	5
521	NAJUM TRADING LIMITED	L	68	5
522	GENERAL PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5
523	CHAKA PLACE LIMITED	L	68	5
524	VIDMERCKPROPERTIES LIMITED	L	68	5
525	SCI KOIMBURI TUCKER & COMPANY	L	68	5
526	FELVIS ENTERPRISES LIMITED	L	68	5
527	GOLD ROCK DEVELOPMENT LIMITED	L	68	5
528	FAHARI PALACE LIMITED	L	68	5

529	ADVENT VALUERS LIMITED	L	68	5
530	REGUS KENYA LIMITED	L	68	5
531	PROGEN COMPANY LIMITED	L	68	5
532	VALLEY VIEW OFFICE PARK LIMITED	L	68	5
533	GOLDEN BRIDGE SHG LIMITED	G	45	6
534	AFRICAN AUTO SUPPLIES LIMITED	G	45	6
535	TYELINK CAR CARE CENTRE LIMITED	G	45	6
536	MERRIMACK ENVIRONMENTAL & SAFETY LIMITED	G	45	6
537	SIGNATURE CARS	G	45	6
538	FORANGE AUTO AND ALLIED SUPPLIES (K) LIMITED	G	45	6
539	SUMMITO AUTO PARTS LIMITED	G	45	6
540	SOROYA MOTOR SPARES LIMITED	G	45	6
541	CHODA LIMITED	G	45	6
542	REGAL EQUIPMENT LIMITED	G	45	6
543	NEPTUNE FLOWERS AGENCIES	G	45	6
544	ROVERLANE MOTORS LIMITED	G	45	6
545	EURO-PETROLEUM PRODUCTS (E.A) LIMITED	G	45	6
546	SEHMI ENTERPRISE COMPANY	G	45	6
547	MIRK GENERAL AGENCIES LIMITED	G	45	6
548	IX GLOBAL LIMITED	G	45	6
549	SILVER RANO MOTORS LIMITED	G	45	6
550	A-ONE AUTO SERVICES LIMITED	G	45	6
551	AUTO VILLAGE	G	45	6
552	ZAYN AUTO CARE LIMITED	G	45	6
553	ROCKPET LIMITED	G	46	6
554	SAPPHIRE TRADING AND MARKETING LIMITED	G	46	6
555	DEROSO LOGISTICS	G	46	6
556	SUPA COSM PRODUCTS LIMITED	G	46	6

557	AKIRA LIMITED	G	46	6
558	JOHN DEERE (PROPRIETARY) LIMITED	G	46	6
559	KRISH TADING COMPANY	G	46	6
560	KEN MATCH (E.A) LIMITED	G	46	6
561	CORRINGTON BUSINESS SYSTEMS	G	46	6
562	FINTON LOGISTICS LIMITED	G	46	6
563	G.NORTH AND SON LIMITED	G	46	6
564	SARUK DIGITAL SOLUTIONS LIMITED	G	47	6
565	PRINTCON TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	G	47	6
566	LARGE NEEMA SUPERMARKET LIMITED	G	47	6
567	ERMER LIMITED	G	47	6
568	FLOMUS ENTERPRISES	G	47	6
569	VESTER LIMITED PRIVATE	G	47	6
570	ROOFS KENYA LIMITED	G	47	6
571	STATIM PHARMACEUTICALS LIMITED	G	47	6
572	NEXON ENERGIES (K) LIMITED	G	47	6
573	ARGUS TRADING COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
574	SUNRAYS SOLAR LIMITED	G	47	6
575	COPYRITE FURNITURES	G	47	6
576	LIONIX MERCHANTS LIMITED	G	47	6
577	YETU LIMITED	G	47	6
578	ABDULLA FAZAL AND SONS LIMITED	G	47	6
579	KITCHEN & OFFICE INTERIORS LTD	G	47	6
580	GOLDTEX ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
581	NEW FLAMINGO HARDWARE AND PAINTS LIMITED	G	47	6
582	JAFF'S OPTICAL HOUSE (NAIROBI) LIMITED	G	47	6
583	ACE PAPER AND PRINT LIMITED	G	47	6
584	DIXONS ELECTRONICS LTD	G	47	6

585	JOHE AGENCIES LIMITED	G	47	6
586	AKAI ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
587	FOREVER E A LIMITED	G	47	6
588	BANZA INVESTMENTS COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
589	GOURMET MEAT PRODUCTS LIMITED	G	47	6
590	COLORAMA PROCESSING LABORATORY LTD	G	47	6
591	ECSTACY LIMITED	G	47	6
592	REFRIGERATION COMPONENTS LIMITED	G	47	6
593	TELEYETU KENYA LIMITED	G	47	6
594	ITAL PRODUCTS LIMITED	G	47	6
595	VICON INVESTMENTS COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
596	ECOSMART ENERGY LIMITED	G	47	6
597	NGINU ENTERPRISES LIMITED	G	47	6
598	MUTHAIGA MINI MARKET LIMITED	G	47	6
599	MUFADDAL GLASS DISTRIBUTORS LIMITED	G	47	6
600	WELS COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
601	TECHSPA GENERAL SUPPLIES	G	47	6
602	E-ZONE LIMITED	G	47	6
603	SANDEN INTERCOOL (KENYA) LIMITED	G	47	6
604	CONCORDE SERVICE STATION LIMITED	G	47	6
605	ANNUM TRADING COMPANY LIMITED	G	47	6
606	THE MERCURY LOUNGE LIMITED	G	47	6
607	OTTOMATT SUPERMARKET LIMITED	G	47	6
608	INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF RED CROSS AND RED CRESCENT SOCIETIES	G	47	6
609	VSO-JITOLEE	G	47	6
610	SAFETY TECH LIMITED	G	47	6
611	CAPTON INVESTMENT LIMITED	H	49	7
612	INDEX CARGO LOGISTICS LIMITED	H	51	7

613	DARU-ALSALAM HAJ & IMRA COMPANY LIMITED	H	51	7
614	WESTWIND AVIATION LIMITED	H	51	7
615	WILKEN AVIATION LIMITED	H	51	7
616	QATAR AIRWAYS Q.C.S.C	H	51	7
617	SITE FORWARDERS LIMITED	H	52	7
618	THE SCOTT TRAVEL GROUP LIMITED	H	52	7
619	LUCKY BABA DOGO TRAVELLERS LIMITED	H	52	7
620	MULLER LOGISTICS LIMITED	H	52	7
621	LOGISTICS AND ENERGY AFRICA LIMITED	H	52	7
622	MOYALE RAHA TRANSPORTERS COMPANY LIMITED	H	52	7
623	NEW RISING TRANSPORTERS LIMITED	H	52	7
624	KIJABE GUEST HOUSE	I	55	8
625	LEISURE (K) HOTEL	I	55	8
626	BILAURI LIMITED	I	55	8
627	SIMPLY AFRICA LIMITED	I	55	8
628	LEON VILLAS GUEST HOUSE	I	55	8
629	THE STRAND HOTELS LIMITED	I	55	8
630	SHALOM HOUSE ENTERPRISES	I	55	8
631	MAVUNO PROPERTIES LIMITED	I	55	8
632	BILAKOYE RESTAURANT	I	56	9
633	MONTYS KENYA LIMITED	I	56	9
634	GRONAHS EATING PLACE LIMITED	I	56	9
635	JAMRET LIMITED	I	56	9
636	MCHANA RESTAURANT LIMITED	I	56	9
637	FOUR ACES CAFETERIA LTD	I	56	9
638	ARTLANTIS CHAI LOUNGE LIMITED	I	56	9
639	HOMETOUCH CATERING SERVICES LIMITED	I	56	9
640	TAMARIND HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT LIMITED	I	56	9

641	SAAPE LIMITED	I	56	9
642	TALISAMAN LIMITED	I	56	9
643	THE AERO CLUB OF EAST AFRICA LIMITED	I	56	9
644	FRIENDS DELIGHT RESTAURANT	I	56	9
645	SURYASUN HOLDING COMPANY LIMITED	I	56	9
646	PAMPA GRILL LIMITED	I	56	9
647	HEWTON LIMITED	I	56	9
648	CAMERAPIX PUBLISHERS LIMITED	J	58	10
649	RON TV INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	J	59	10
650	AVTECH LIMITED	J	59	10
651	OPTIMAX GROUP LIMITED	J	61	10
652	EATON TOWERS KENYA LIMITED	J	61	10
653	DIGITAL VISION EAST AFRICALIMITED	J	62	10
654	TANGO TELECOM LIMITED	J	62	10
655	SAGE SOFTWARE EAST AFRICA LIMITED	J	62	10
656	E-MOMENTUM INTERACTIVE SYSTEMS LIMITED	J	62	10
657	BROADCAST SOLUTIONS INTERNATIONAL LIMITED	J	63	10
658	IMARA CAPITAL LIMITED	K	64	10
659	DIGITAL MEDIA SACCO SOCIETY LTD	K	64	10
660	P.C.E.A KASARANI PARISH SACCO LTD	K	64	10
661	EXECUTIVE BUSINESS ENTERPRISES LIMITED	K	64	10
662	GENCO SACCO	K	64	10
663	INVESPOT INSURANCE INVESTIGATORS	K	64	10
664	SELECT MANAGEMENT SERVICES LIMITED	K	64	10
665	OROKISE SACCO	K	64	10
666	HAZINA CO-OPERATIVE SAVINGS AND CREDIT SOCIETY LIMITED STAFF PENSION S	K	64	10
667	GRAND JOINT INVESTMENT GROUP LIMITED	K	64	10
668	CAPITAL GROUP STAFF PROVIDENT FUND	K	65	10

669	BRAEBURN LIMITED STAFF PROVIDENT FUND	K	65	10
670	BRITISH AMERICAN INSURANCE CO. LTD STAFF PENSION PLAN	K	65	10
671	SEVEN FOUR EIGHT AIR SERVICES (K) STAFF PROVIDENT FUND	K	65	10
672	CIC PENSION PLAN	K	65	10
673	ABC INSURANCE BROKERS LIMITED	K	66	10
674	KENDY MONEY TRANSFER LIMITED	K	66	10
675	GACHICHIO INSURANCE BROKERS LIMITED	K	66	10
676	MIPE HOLDING LIMITED	K	66	10
677	PLATINUM MICRO INSURANCE BROKERS LIMITED	K	66	10
678	EQUALITY NOW	M	69	10
679	UBER LIMITED	M	69	10
680	T&T SHAH AND ASSOCIATES	M	69	10
681	ENGMA ENTERPRISES LIMITED	M	69	10
682	WESONGA,MUTEMBEI,KIGEN & ASSOCIATES	M	69	10
683	INAYA GROUP LIMITED	M	70	10
684	ALPS HOLDINGS LIMITED	M	70	10
685	AZEN SERVICES COMPANY LIMITED	M	70	10
686	STATISTICAL RESEARCH AND ANALYSIS COMPANY LIMITED	M	70	10
687	ECOSITE DEVELOPMENT COSUTANTS LIMITED	M	71	10
688	ANGIDA ENGINEERING WORKS	M	71	10
689	MMI DEVELOPERS LIMITED	M	71	10
690	ENSAFO GROUP LIMITED	M	72	10
691	INTER-REGION ECONOMIC NETWORK LIMITED	M	72	10
692	THE CENTRE FOR THE STUDY OF ADOLESCENCE LIMITED	M	72	10
693	MEDIA EDGE INTERACTIVE LIMITED	M	73	10
694	ULTIMATE ASSOCIATION	M	74	10
695	SPACE FACTOR LIMITED	M	74	10
696	VIVID PRINTING EQUIPMENT SOLUTIONS LIMITED	M	74	10

697	CAMCO ADVISORY SERVICES (KENYA) LIMITED	M	74	10
698	HOUSE OF TECHNOLOGY LIMITED	M	74	10
699	SAGEO TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	M	74	10
700	BRAND INTEGRATED CONSULTING LIMITED	M	74	10
701	BOMATA ENTERPRISES LIMITED	M	74	10
702	MOHINDER SINGH MOHAN SINGH KENYA LIMITED	M	74	10
703	VETERINAIRES SANS FRONTIERES SWITZERLAND (VSF CH)	M	75	10
704	DIGITERRA GROUP LIMITED	N	78	10
705	GLORY SAFARIS LIMITED	N	79	10
706	KENYA GRIP AND SPARKS LIGHTING LIMITED	N	79	10
707	PROMO FACTORY LIMITED	N	79	10
708	ELMVALE AGENCY LIMITED	N	79	10
709	BRANDNEST ADVERTISING & DESIGN LIMITED	N	79	10
710	SERENGETI LIMITED	N	79	10
711	MAMSA CLEANERS LIMITED	N	79	10
712	KINGSTON TRAVEL SERVICES LIMITED	N	79	10
713	VIBRANT DIGITAL SOLUTIONS LIMITED	N	79	10
714	JULIMAK SECURITY SERVICES LIMITED	N	80	10
715	EDIKAN SOLUTIONS LIMITED	N	80	10
716	NEPTUNE CLEANING SERVICES LIMITED	N	81	10
717	QUIDS ENTERPRISES LIMITED	N	82	10
718	VALLEY AUCTIONEERS LIMITED	N	82	10
719	HEINRICH-BOLL FOUNDATION	O	84	10
720	PENTHOUSE GYMNASIUM LIMITED	P	85	11
721	APPLETON KINDERGATEN & MONTESSORI SCHOOL LIMITED	P	85	11
722	EAST AFRICA SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT LIMITED	P	85	11
723	YOUTH ON THE MOVE	P	85	11
724	BRIGHTLIGHT ACADEMY LIMITED	P	85	11

725	BYFAITH JUNIOR SCHOOL INNERCORE LIMITED	P	85	11
726	HURU CONSULT LIMITED	P	85	11
727	K REP DEVELOPMENT AGENCY	P	85	11
728	THE NAIROBI ART CENTRE LIMITED	P	85	11
729	BETHLEHEM COMMUNITY CENTRE	P	85	11
730	GEMS SKILLS (KENYA) LIMITED	P	85	11
731	ST. LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY	P	85	11
732	CHRISCO EDUCATIONAL CENTRE LIMITED	P	85	11
733	TIPS MANAGEMENT SERVICES LIMITED	P	85	11
734	FRANCIS XAVIER PROJECT	P	85	11
735	NAIROBITS TRUST	P	85	11
736	MAJI MAZURI HEAD START CBO	P	85	11
737	KAREN SOUTH SCHOOL LIMITED	P	85	11
738	GLOBAL ACADEMY	P	85	11
739	STRATHMORE EDUCATIONAL TRUST REGISTERED TRUSTEES	P	85	11
740	KARIOBANGI ADVENTIST EDUCATION CENTRE	P	85	11
741	KENYA INSTITUTE FOR THE BLIND	P	85	11
742	GLORY DRIVING SCHOOL (E.A) LIMITED	P	85	11
743	P C E A DANDORA COMMUNITY CENTRE	P	85	11
744	TASSIA SCHOOL	P	85	11
745	LORETO INSTITUTE	P	85	11
746	CONERSTONE ACADEMY	P	85	11
747	ISLAMIA MADRASSA SOCIETY	P	85	11
748	NIMOLI MEDICAL SERVICES LIMITED	Q	86	11
749	MITSUBISHI CORPORATION	Q	86	11
750	LIVING GOODS LIMITED	Q	86	11
751	THE GLOBAL ALLIANCE FOR IMPROVED NUTRITION	Q	86	11
752	EURO DENT LABORATORIES LIMITED	Q	86	11

753	TEAM AND TEAM INTERNATIONAL KENYA	Q	86	11
754	DRUGS FOR NEGLECTED DISEASES INITIATIVE	Q	86	11
755	GMCKS PRANIC HEALING FOUNDATION OF EAST AFRICA	Q	87	11
756	LITTLE SISTERS OF THE POOR	Q	87	11
757	LIVING WATER AFRICA REGION	Q	88	11
758	CALEONIC COMPANY LIMITED	Q	88	11
759	INDIGENOUS INFORMATION NETWORK LIMITED	Q	88	11
760	SHREE CUTCHI LEVA PATEL SAMAJ	Q	88	11
761	TEAR FUND LIMITED	Q	88	11
762	INTERNATIONAL PEACE BUILDING ALLIANCE (INTERPEACE)	Q	88	11
763	CAROLINA FOR KIBERA ORGANIZATION	Q	88	11
764	ACTION AFRICA HELP - INTERNATIONAL (AAH I)	Q	88	11
765	KAYAMBA MUZIK DIVERSITY	R	90	11
766	JUMA KAYAMBA LIMITED	R	90	11
767	AIM GLOBAL FITNESS LIMITED	R	93	11
768	SIKH UNION CLUB NAIROBI	R	93	11
769	GLORIOUS HOPE MISSION	S	94	11
770	EAGLES CHRISTIAN CHURCH	S	94	11
771	CORNERSTONE FAITH ASSEMBLY	S	94	11
772	CHRISTIAN MISSION AID	S	94	11
773	AIC MISSIONS DEPARTMENT	S	94	11
774	ENSURE TECHNICAL SERVICES LIMITED	S	95	11
775	THE FORD FOUNDATION LIMITED	S	96	11
776	GLAMZO UNISEX SALON LIMITED	S	96	11
777	ERGIS INVESTMENTS LIMITED	S	96	11
778	CAMPDEN HILL LIMITED	S	96	11
779	AFRO SIRI LIMITED	S	96	11
780	SPIEGEL INTERIORS LIMITED	S	96	11

781	EXCITERS GROUP LIMITED	A	1	2
782	VERSANI GROUP LIMITED	A	1	2
783	CANDY GLOBAL BUSINESS LIMITED	C	2	2
784	CARE -VET SYSTEMS LIMITED	C	2	2
785	SPARK FRESH INVESTMENT	C	2	2
786	TEEKAY DESIGNER INDUSTRIES (2004) LTD	C	3	2
787	JTEE TECHNOLOGIES LIMITED	B	4	2
788	SIMBA AFRICA RIFT ENERGY LIMITED	B	4	2
789	THE BIG IQ LIMITED	C	4	2
790	PAPER CONVERTERS (K) LTD.	C	4	2
791	ECOMART COMMUNICATION ENTERPRISES	C	4	2
792	MARSTON CLEANING AND SALES SEVICES	C	4	2
793	PRIME POWER ELECTRICALS	C	4	2
794	ROMA SOLUTIONS LIMITED	C	4	2
795	PRINT AND BRAND INVESTMENTS LIMITED	C	4	2
796	MEGA	C	4	2
797	MONOPOL COLORS EAST AFRICA LIMITED	C	4	2
798	PRESTIGE PLASTIC PRODUCTS LIMITED	C	4	2
799	INDUSTRIAL COATING AND PAINT	C	4	2
800	KENYA LIGHTING INDUSTRIES LIMITED	C	4	2
801	SSPL TRADING LIMITED	C	4	2
802	HOLMAN BROTHERS E.A LTD.	C	4	2
803	KENYA AIRWAYS LIMITED	C	4	2
804	OTUNG LIMITED	E	4	2
805	BIOSYTE	E	4	2
806	TSAVO WILD DESIGN AND INTERIOR LIMITED	F	5	2
807	NISOM AGENCIES LIMITED	F	5	2
808	KOMBIRO BUILDING COMPANY LIMITED	F	5	2

809	SERONIKE GLOBAL LOGISTICS LIMITED	F	5	2
810	MAGNATE GROUP LIMITED	F	5	2
811	ZESKA ENTERPRISES LIMITED	F	5	2
812	ABINOAM GENERAL MERCHANTS CO LTD	F	5	2
813	MODULAR CONTAINER SOLUTIONS LIMITED	F	5	2
814	JEYRHO LOGISTIX LIMITED	F	5	2
815	ASILI GROUP LIMITED	F	5	2
816	MAIKAL CONTRACTORS	F	5	2
817	FORCAM CONSTRUCTION LIMITED	F	5	2
818	CYGNUS ENGINEERING LIMITED	F	5	2
819	IN-BUILT ENGINEERING LIMITED	F	5	2
820	WORLDMAX HOLDINGS (K) LIMITED	F	5	2
821	NEELAM ENTERPRISES LIMITED	F	5	2
822	GESTOL MERCHANTS LIMITED	F	5	2
823	CMC DI RAVENNA-KENYA BRANCH	F	5	2
824	LOG ASSOCIATES LIMITED	F	5	2
825	SECUTEL AGENCIES LIMITED	F	5	2
826	SREE JOTHY ELECTRICALS LIMITED	F	5	2
827	RAGOS VALUERS AND ESTATE AGENTS LIMITED	L	5	2
828	MNANA LIMITED	L	5	2
829	WAROMA INVESTMENTS	L	5	2
830	SHALOM PLAINS LIMITED	L	5	2
831	MTWAPA STAREHE HOMES LIMITED	L	5	2
832	TOPLER GLOBAL LIMITED	L	5	2
833	SPACEVIEW PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	5	2
834	BRIGHTER FUTURE INVESTMENTS	L	5	2
835	LONGONOT PLACE LIMITED	L	5	2
836	KNIGHT FRANK KENYA LIMITED	L	5	2

837	JACARANDA GARDENS MANAGEMENT COMPANY LIMITED	L	5	2
838	CEDARWOOD PARK LIMITED	L	5	2
839	AVOCADO PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	5	2
840	MAJESTIC SECURITY SYSTEM LIMITED	L	5	2
840	RISHI PROPERTIES LIMITED	L	5	2
842	PRIDEGROVE INVESTMENTS LIMITED	L	5	2
843	NJEMA -JO-FRAKI COMPANY LIMITED	L	5	2
844	PASALAND AGENCIES LIMITED	L	5	2
845	MUKIMA RIDGE ONE LIMITED	L	5	2
846	MUKIMA RIDGE NINE LIMITED	L	5	2
847	NOBIS DEVELOPMENT COMPANY LIMITED	L	5	2
848	NIMMS LIMITED	L	5	2
849	INTER - PARTY AGENCIES LIMITED	L	5	2
850	METICULOUS DESIGNS LIMITED	L	5	2